CHAPTER I.
INTRODUCTORY.

The present review deals with education in an area of more than a million square miles and among 255 millions of people. That is to say, the review is confined to about two-thirds of the sub-continent of India—the British provinces and most of the native States which are in political relations with them. It does not treat of all of the latter, nor with any of the States which are in direct political relations with the Government of India; nor do the figures include those for the small areas of British territory administered by political officers—though a short chapter is devoted to education in special areas. The map which fronts this volume illustrates the scope of the review. Further details will be found in supplemental table no. 1.

The period covered is from April the 1st, 1907, to March the 31st, 1912. It is important to bear in mind that a census of the population was made in 1911. The introduction of a new set of population figures is an element for which allowance must be made when statistics are compared.

The report deals with provinces as they stood during the quinquennium. On April the 1st, 1912, Eastern Bengal was absorbed into the new presidency of Bengal; Bihar and Orissa and Assam were constituted as new provinces.

2. The compilation of a review of education in India offers certain difficulties. Despite a certain similarity of organisation, there is considerable variation of system in each province. Wide racial differences complicate the problem. It is unsafe to make assertions of general application without specifying exceptions. It is wearisome to drag the reader through a separate recital for each of ten territorial units. Again, the review must serve both for the general reader who asks only an outline and also for the student who requires details of some special aspect of education. At the risk of some repetition, details regarding general college and school education, the training of teachers, etc., as well as full information about some of the courses, grant-in-aid rules and like matters have been thrown into the form of appendices. But this device can effect only a moderate curtailment of the narrative; the characteristics of provinces must still find mention; and, in chapters that deal with special education, some description of individual institutions is inevitable. There is another difficulty. The review deals with different stages of instruction and also with education among different communities. In these circumstances a certain amount of repetition is unavoidable, since an incident or an institution demands notice in different connections.

3. The form of previous reports has, so far as possible, been followed. In addition to the new appendices, two new general tables have been introduced. The number of supplemental tables has been cut down. New chapters have been added on oriental studies and education in agencies, etc. To place the reader in closer contact with the subject, and as a substitute for descriptions
of school-houses which can have only local application, some illustrations of school and college life and buildings have been included in the first volume. These have been produced at the Thomason Engineering College, Roorkee, under the supervision of Lieutenant-Colonel E. H. de V. Atkinson. These are intended to serve as samples—not as an exhaustive record.

Previous reviews have been criticised on the ground that their authors merely described and expressed no opinion. The present writer trusts that he has succeeded in imitating the example of self suppression and incurring the same charge. The review-maker must of necessity be first a chronicler and only very sparingly a commentator.

4. The reports on which the present review is based are the work of the following officers:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Officer</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Madras</td>
<td>The Hon'ble Sir Alfred Bourne, K.C.I.E., D.Sc., F.R.S.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bombay</td>
<td>Mr. R. D. Prior, M.A.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bengal</td>
<td>Mr. M. Prothero, M.A.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Provinces</td>
<td>The Hon'ble Mr. C. F. de la Fosse, M.A.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Punjab</td>
<td>The Hon'ble Mr. J. C. Godley, M.A.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burma</td>
<td>Mr. J. G. Coventon, M.A., F.R.N.S.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastern Bengal and Assam</td>
<td>Mr. J. N. Roy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Provinces and Berar</td>
<td>Mr. A. G. Wright, M.A.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North-West Frontier Province</td>
<td>Mr. J. A. Richerly, M.A.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With the exception of Mr. Prior, Mr. Prothero and Mr. Roy, these gentlemen are the directors of public instruction in their respective provinces; and Mr. Prior was officiating in that capacity. The provincial reports furnish the material without which any adequate review would be impossible. The universities have also provided valuable reports. A heavy debt is due to the compilers of previous reviews for the models they have provided and the lines of thought they have suggested. The writer is also under a deep obligation to the directors of public instruction for having perused the more important chapters in proof, to the Hon'ble Mr. Gait for assistance in the section on literacy and in the chapter on backward classes, to Dr. Venis and Dr. Ross for valuable suggestions in the chapters on oriental studies and Muhammadan education, and to Mr. Meikle, Actuary to the Government of India, for the calculation made in appendix XVII and for aid in chapter VIII. The sections dealing with agriculture, forestry and veterinary science have been contributed by the Department of Revenue and Agriculture and that relating to medical education by the Director General of the Indian Medical Service. Much assistance, especially in seeing the work through the press, was also rendered by Mr. Kaye and Mr. Chakrabarti of the Department of Education.

5. After the review had been written certain corrections of the Bengal figures were received. These are mostly unimportant and hardly affect the figures for India as a whole and no attempt has been made to incorporate them in the statistics of this review. A list of the corrections is given in appendix I.
CHAPTER II.

EVOLUTION OF POLICY.

I.—Early policy.

6. The British found not a system of education, but a number of educa-
tional institutions, already established in the more settled parts of India. There were seats of Sanskrit learning, as in Nadia, of Arabic learning, as at
Khairahbad and Jaunpur. There were less celebrated tolis and madrassas. And there were the elementary pathshalas and maktabs. An authentic account of these, as they existed in Bengal, has been left by Mr. William Adam, originally a missionary, who was appointed government commissioner of education in 1835. He found that Burdwan, which he considered the most advanced district visited, contained only 931 schools (in 1910 it contained 1,470 primary schools), and that in one district the percentage of teachable children at school as ascertained over one of its thanas was 2.5 per cent. There were no indigenous schools for girls. Thirteen years before, the Madras presidency was believed to contain 12,498 schools. The schools, as shown in Mr. Adam's reports, were miserable places. The house, if there was one, cost from Rs. 1½ to Rs. 10. The teachers were poor and ignorant. Nearly all were regularly paid in fees or in presents; but the average professional income was found, in the districts visited, to be just short of Rs. 3 a month. The use of printed books was unknown. The compositions taught inculcated a low standard of morality. As to discipline, the school was a place of terror, if we may judge from the recognised methods of truancy and the deterrent nature of the punishments, one of which was to tie-up the offender in a sack with nettles, a cat or "some other noisome creature" and roll it along the ground. These are the institutions on which the existing system has been largely grafted. The process still continues of converting the indigenous pathshala, the Koran school and the pongyi kyaung into an efficient place of elementary instruction.

7. The East India Company did not at first assume responsibility for Beginnings of education. Such improvements as were effected in elementary schools were education in the work of individuals (often, but not always, missionaries) and private British associations. A few names stand forth—Bell and Lancaster, the originators of the pupil-teacher system, in Madras; Adam and David Hare (the latter a retired watch-maker), in Bengal. The efforts of these men and of bodies such as the Calcutta School Society were enthusiastic. But the task was immense, and the organisations for tackling it were limited, scattered and lacking in cohesion.

Similarly the beginnings of higher education were due to the efforts of individual officials, enlightened Indians, missionaries and successful adventurers. In 1782 Warren Hastings established, and thereafter for a time maintained, the Calcutta Madrassa for the study of Arabic and Persian. In 1791 Mr. Duncan, the Resident of Benares, founded at that place a Sanskrit college, locally endowed and "designed to cultivate the literature and religion of the Hindus." In the next year the Muhammadans of Delhi, and early in the nineteenth century the Borahs of Surat, built themselves Arabic colleges. A part of the fund established by the Peshwas for the support of pandits was utilised by the Commissioner of the Deccan to initiate and support a college at Poona for Hindu learning. These early foundations had in view the study of the oriental classics and the ancient lore. But the feeling of the enlightened—at least among the Hindus—soon declared itself in favour of the vernaculars, English and occidental thought and science. The Calcutta Vidyalaya was founded in 1817 by private effort for the education in English

*Adam's Reports on Vernacular Education in Bengal and Bihar, by the Reverend J. Long, pages 10, 156 and elsewhere; also The Calcutta Review, Volume II, 1844, which gives a vivid description of Education in Bengal and Bihar mainly founded on Adam's Reports.
of children of the higher castes. The Hooghly College, supported from the Mohsin Fund, comprised English and oriental departments. The foundation by the Bengal Committee of the Calcutta Sanskrit College was opposed by Raja Ram Mohan Roy and others as retrogressive in tendency. Schools on more or less modern lines were opened at Agra and Delhi. The Poona College was saved by Mountstuart Elphinstone through the introduction of vernacular and English and the opening of its doors to other than Brahmans. The tendency in favour of western culture found expression in Macaulay’s Minute and realisation in a rapid growth of modern institutions. For these, missionary and official efforts were responsible. The former had previously concentrated on conversion. The Baptist College (1818) at Serampur had combined instruction in the tenets of Christianity with the study of Sanskrit and Arabic. Bishop’s College (1820) was, and still is, for the reception of Christian students. The idea of conversion, however, yielded to that of education. The General Assembly’s Institution of the Church of Scotland (1830) and the London Missionary Society’s Institution (1838) were founded in Calcutta; the Christian College (1837) and St. Joseph’s College (1844) at Negapatam, in Madras; the Wilson College (1834) in Bombay. These were quickly followed by Government colleges. In Bengal there were Dacca (1841), Krishnagar (1845) and Berhampore (1853); while in 1855 the Presidency College absorbed the Calcutta Vidyalaya. In 1841 the “Madras University” was started—at first a high school, now the Presidency College of Madras. The similar institution in Bombay, originating with a private endowment in 1827, was organised as the Elphinstone Institution in 1840. Meantime there were private organisations for the instruction of Europeans and children of mixed descent in the larger cities. These were supported by bequests and subscriptions. Captain Doveton (of the Nizam’s service) endowed the Doveton College in Calcutta. General Claud Martin (who had been in the service of the King of Oudh) founded the Martinière Colleges at Calcutta and Lucknow.*

8. From the tangled history of those early times three movements detach themselves—the rapid growth of the demand for English education, the gradual acceptance of responsibility by government, the tardy recognition of the importance of elementary as opposed to higher education. In the first instance, government—or rather individual officials—had founded institutions for the study of the traditional classics. But, even before the abolition (permitted under Act XXIX of 1837) of Persian as the language of judicial and revenue proceedings, interest had been aroused in the cultivation of the vernaculars and a knowledge of English had come to be recognised as the high road to preferment and the door to the treasury of Western knowledge. In the institutions designed to give oriental teaching the pupils had to be retained by stipends; in schools where English or the vernacular was taught the majority paid fees. Furthermore, there was a genuine desire for modern culture. Raja Ram Mohan Roy, in the course of his protest to Lord Amherst against the establishment of a Sanskrit school, had written in 1823, “If it had been intended to keep the British nation in ignorance of real knowledge, the Baconian philosophy would not have been allowed to displace the system of the schoolmen, which was the best calculated to perpetuate ignorance. In the same manner the Sanskrit system of education would be the best calculated to keep this country in darkness, if such had been the policy of the British Legislature.” The controversy culminated in Macaulay’s brilliant Minute and Lord Bentinck’s resolution of 1835, which directed efforts and funds to the promotion of European literature and science; the places of oriental learning were to be retained, so long as there was a demand for them, their professors were to be paid, but not their students. Macaulay has sometimes been misunderstood. He appears to have advocated English for the few, and the consequent improvement of the vernaculars (and enrichment of their literatures) for the many. Instruction in English and the number of English-teaching institutions have outstripped his ideal; and there has not been commensurate improvement or output in the vernaculars. The possible dangers of this development were early observed. Commenting on the despatch of *Fourth Quinquennial Review (Nathan), pp. 43–45; and Howell’s Education in British India, pp. 1–21.
1859, Raja Radhakanta Deb wrote, "Nothing should be guarded against more carefully than the insensible introduction of a system whereby, with a smattering knowledge of English, youths are weaned from the plough, the axe, and the loom, to render them ambitious only for the clerkship for which hosts would besiege the Government and mercantile offices, and the majority being disappointed (as they must be), would (with their little knowledge inspiring pride) be unable to return to their trade, and would necessarily turn vagabonds." The evil is not wholly imaginary. But it is often exaggerated. Justice has not been done to the vernaculars. But no system that could have been invented would have been faultless. The free introduction into higher institutions of western thought and of the English language has probably been productive of considerably more good than harm; and perhaps it was inevitable.

9. "Education in India under the British Government," says Howell, Recognition of education as a function of the State. was first ignored, then violently and successfully opposed, then conducted on education as a system now universally admitted to be erroneous, and finally placed on its present footing. The early settlers were traders. Only gradually the pendulum swung round from commerce to administration. But education was hardly looked on as a part of the administrator's duty. It was regarded, even in the England of those days, as the proper sphere of private enterprise. The task in India was of deterrent magnitude. And the activities of mission bodies caused great alarm to government. Societies arose—the Calcutta School Book Society in 1817, founded with a view to supplying the lack of vernacular books; the Calcutta School Society, founded for the improvement of existing schools and the establishment of new ones. The Marquess of Hastings was president of the latter society. And government was gradually drawn into participation in educational management. The Charter of 1813 had permitted the Governor General in Council to apply a sum of not less than one lakh of rupees in each year to the revival and improvement of literature, and the encouragement of the learned natives of India, and for the introduction and promotion of a knowledge of the sciences among the inhabitants of the British territories in India." The despatch of 1814 which announced the grant (the first educational despatch of the Court of Directors) showed that the "sciences" referred to were oriental sciences—the many excellent systems of ethics contained in the Sanskrit language, "with codes of laws and compendiums of the duties relating to every class of the people," tracts of merit "on the virtues of plants and drugs" and many other things the study of which "might do much to form links of communication between Indians and European officials." Some organisation was required—if only to disburse the grant. A General Committee of Public Instruction was at last constituted in Bengal (1823) containing ten members of the civil service; another was established in Madras. The former was replaced in 1842 by the Council of Education; a similar change took place in Madras. In Bombay there was a Board of Education. The Bengal Council of Education, however, merely looked after special institutions. The bulk of the educational institutions were placed under the general department of the Government of India. In 1843 educational control in the North-Western Provinces was transferred to the new government at Agra. Finally in the despatch of 1854 its responsibility for education was emphatically brought to the notice of the administration, the need of extension and systematic promotion was affirmed, and the lines of a definite policy were laid down.

10. Nor was it till the same date that the unsoundness was realised of the Slow growth of doctrine that education can be trusted to permeate downwards. It was a comfortable policy—especially at a time when the slender resources of civilisation were confined to the large cities. Outside these oases lay a desert of which little more was known save its vastness and its sterility. The funds available being inadequate for any purpose of general education, it was laid down as a principle by the Committee of Public Instruction, that the best application of them would be to high education "which was of course out of the reach of the masses and only attainable by the few." Moreover the professional and clerkly classes, already thirsting for English education, were close to the doors of the administrations and could make their wants known. It was both easy and pleasant to provide them with higher institutions of learn-
ing. But outside these favoured spots there was little. Notwithstanding the existence of village schools, the best contemporary authority (and the same who estimated the number of those schools in Bengal and Bihar) was pessimistic. "I am not acquainted," wrote Adam, "with any facts which permit me to suppose that, in any other country subject to an enlightened government, and brought into direct and immediate contact with European civilisation, in an equal population, there is an equal amount of ignorance with that which has been shown to exist in this district." This was written of Bengal, the advanced area of India, and in 1838, when much of Europe still lay under the darkness of mass illiteracy! The first organised attempt on a large scale was made by Mr. Thomason, Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces. He found that "the people within his jurisdiction were extremely ignorant, that the existing means of education were very defective, less than five per cent, of the boys of school-going age received any instruction at all, and what they did receive was of a very imperfect kind." The same story had been reiterated from every province in India. Mr. Thomason was foremost in establishing a system of circle schools supported by a local cess. His scheme was incomplete when he died in 1853. In the next year the policy of mass education was emphatically announced.

Sir Charles Wood's despatch of 1854 marked out the foundations on which the edifice of Indian education has since been reared. Education was henceforward to be the care of the state, as it had already become in the North-Western Provinces. Mr. Thomason's scheme had included the appointment of a Visitor General on £1,200 a year, to be filled by a civilian. An inspectorship had been created for Bengal in 1844. There were three inspectors in Bombay. Now the Boards and Councils of education were to be set aside in favour of an educational department organised as a portion of the machinery of government in the several presidencies. The key-notes of the system were to be utility and diffusion. Eastern science and philosophy were recognised as abounding in grave errors; eastern literature as deficient with reference to modern discovery and improvement. Erudition in such subjects might serve as an auxiliary. The general extension of education was to aim at spreading the improved arts, science, philosophy and literature of Europe. This object was to be effected by means of the English language in the higher branches of instruction and by that of the vernacular languages for the great mass of the people. Special emphasis was laid on Anglo-vernacular instruction, the study of the local vernacular in combination with English, and translations into the native languages calculated "so to combine the substance of European knowledge with native forms of thought and sentiment as to render the schoolbooks useful and attractive." The kinds of institutions in which instruction was to be imparted were minutely indicated. The oriental schools were not to be abolished but to be placed on such a footing as might make them of greater practical utility. Universities were to be established at Calcutta and Bombay (a proposal for such an institution in the former city had been made in 1845 by the Council of Education and rejected). Readiness was also expressed "to sanction the creation of an University at Madras or in any part of India, where a sufficient number of institutions exist, from which properly qualified candidates for degrees could be supplied." The model was to be the London University. The affiliated institutions were to be periodically visited by government inspectors. Schools, destined to make of their pupils more useful members of society, were to be established throughout India; and these also were to be "subject to constant and careful inspection." The provision of such schools was regarded as, if possible, more important than that of universities and colleges. And the imparting of correct elementary knowledge to the great mass of the people was described as of special moment. The example of Mr. Thomason was held up for imitation, the lethargy of Bengal and Madras in this respect was lightly censured. Special instruction was to be encouraged. Faculties of law and engineering were foreshadowed in the universities. Institutions like the Thomason College of Civil Engineering at Roorkee (founded in 1847), like the Medical Colleges of Calcutta (founded in 1835) and Bombay, and like the Madras School of industry and design and the art school projected by Sir Jamsetjee Jeejeebhoy at Bombay, were to be

* Howell's Education in British India, p. 47.
EVOLUTION OF POLICY.

established elsewhere. The training of teachers was to be carried out through the selection of pupil-teachers, their encouragement by stipends, the drafting of them into normal schools and the grant of certificates. And the profession of schoolmaster was to afford inducements such as were offered in other branches of the public service. Sympathy was expressed for the cause of female education and for the growing desire of the Muhammadans to acquire European knowledge. A system of scholarships was to set up a ladder from one grade to another. But the intention of these scholarships was to be practical. They were to be devoted largely to instruction in teaching, medicine and engineering. The encouragement of the mere acquisition of learning by "young men of ability, but of slender means," was to be left to endowments and private benevolence. As to management and finance, it was recognised that, in view of the vast population and the paucity of available funds, insuperable difficulties beset the extension, within any reasonable time, of the present system of education by means of institutions entirely supported at the cost of government. With the agency of the state must be combined "the aid which may be derived from the exertions and liberality of the educated and wealthy classes of India and of other benevolent persons." Accordingly reliance was to be placed mainly on a grant-in-aid system. The conditions of aid were to be:—(i) adequate local management by private patrons, voluntary subscribers or trustees of endowments, willing to superintend the school and ensure its permanence for a given time, (ii) government inspection, (iii) adherence to the conditions laid down for such grants, and (iv) the requirement of some fee, however small, from the scholars. The insistence on fees (save in normal schools) was prompted by the belief that it would render education more valuable, thus stimulating exertion and attendance, and by considerations of finance. The system of aid was to be applied to higher institutions, to anglo-vernacular and vernacular schools which imparted a good elementary education, and to raising the character of the indigenous schools. In the case of these last it was felt that minute and constant local supervision would be specially necessary. Where private management proved sufficient, government was not to found new schools; and the time was anticipated when many of the existing institutions could be transferred from government to local bodies under the control of, and aided by, the State. But it is far from our wish," runs the despatch, "to check the spread of education in the slightest degree by the abandonment of a single school to probable decay; and we therefore entirely confide in your discretion, and in that of the different authorities, while keeping this object steadily in view, to act with caution, and to be guided by special reference to the particular circumstances which affect the demand for special education in different parts of India." Finally, with almost nervous exactitude, the relation of the government was defined towards religious beliefs. In government institutions, the education imparted was to be exclusively secular. The system of grants-in-aid was to be based on an entire abstinence from interference with the religious instruction conveyed in the school assisted. Inspectors were to take no notice whatever of the religious doctrines taught in aided institutions. And universities were to affiliate institutions conducted by all denominations, provided they afforded the requisite courses of study and due guarantees for the conduct of the students.

12. A brief survey of the events previous to 1854 and a careful study of the despatch of that date are necessary to an understanding of educational policy in India. Events have occurred to modify but not sensibly to change the system then outlined. In some respects anticipations have been disappointed. Private effort has not to any extensive degree advanced elementary education. Too little attention has been bestowed upon vernaculars. The practical side of higher school education has not been effectively developed. In some respects the policy then laid down has not been fully endorsed by experience. Too little encouragement was vouchsafed to oriental studies. Discontent is expressed at the secular character of instruction—though private schools have taken but slight advantage of their freedom, and though a safer rule is still to seek. In some respects the doctrines then in vogue have fallen into disrepute. Affiliating universities have been condemned. Pupil teacher systems have ceased to inspire confidence. In
other respects the despatch has proved incomplete. Its financial policy was vague. It overlooked the claims of the domiciled community. It made no provision for the education of native rulers and the highest classes. But the foundations remain the same, with little alteration. The edifice has followed the architect's plans, with but few additions.

13. The land-marks in the history of Indian education subsequent to 1854 may be briefly indicated. In the year of the mutiny (1857) the universities of Calcutta, Madras and Bombay were founded. The Punjab University was incorporated in 1882; that of Allahabad in 1887. Lord Stanley, in a despatch of 1859, reaffirmed the policy of 1854 with but few modifications. In 1882 a Commission surveyed progress and made recommendations. In 1901 Lord Curzon directed his energies to the subject of education and summoned a conference. One of its results was the Indian Universities Commission of 1902. Many of the views of that Commission were embodied in the Indian Universities Act of 1904—a hotly opposed measure, which regularised the constitution of the governing bodies and tightened the control of the universities over their affiliated colleges. Another was an expert travelling committee to advise on technical education. A third was the bestowal of renewed and increased attention upon mass education. The fixed policy of the government was reaffirmed and elaborated in the resolution of March the 11th, 1904. And, within the next few years imperial grants were assigned aggregating eighty lakhs of rupees (£533,000) a year, for university, technical, European, and (chiefly) elementary education. At the close of 1910 the value assigned to educational development was indicated by the creation of a special department in the Government of India, and the disbursement (early in 1911) of a special non-recurring grant for educational purposes of over ninety lakhs of rupees (£600,000). At the Coronation Durbar of December the 12th, 1911, His Imperial Majesty the King-Emperor caused to be announced a new recurring grant of fifty lakhs (£333,000) for popular education in recognition of its paramount importance, while other considerable grants have followed in quick succession.

II.—Characteristics of policy.

14. It remains to indicate some of the main features of policy, and the general lines of their evolution since 1854. This can be done only in the broadest outline. The details, especially those of the most recent developments, will be found in the succeeding chapters. But the subjects of legislation, management, finance and instructional system must for a moment be regarded—partly from a historical outlook—with a view to a clear understanding of the present condition of affairs.

15. Perhaps the most striking trait in the Indian system is the lack of legislation. There are the Universities Acts (II, XXII and XXVII of 1857, XIX of 1882, XVIII of 1887, VIII of 1904, and XI of 1911). The Municipal and Local Self-Government Acts provide for the raising of local cesses (partially to be applied to education), define the powers and duties of local bodies as regards the establishment and maintenance of schools and regulate their relations with the departments of education. There is a Reformatory Schools Act. And, for the kindred subjects of archeology and museums there are the Preservation of Ancient Monuments Act and the Indian Museum Act. But this is all, and it amounts to little. For the rest there are rules and regulations under the Acts and provincial codes issued by the various administrations. There is no education law in the proper sense of the term. There is no compulsion on teacher or pupil. The system is entirely voluntary.

16. On the one hand, it is open to any one to establish a school. There is no law for the registration of schools or teachers. This feature contrasts with the practice in the continental countries of Europe and in some of the British colonies. There is still a mass of institutions (the so-called "private" institutions) which have no connection with the existing system. These are largely semi-religious schools and exist peaceably side by side with the more modern places of study. A visit from the inspecting officer is generally welcomed; and frequently the school improves under his advice and comes within the pale of aided or at least of recognised institutions. In default
of any general law, continued inefficiency on the part of the teachers or management is met by withdrawal of grant, of scholarship-rights and of recognition for purposes of presenting candidates at any public examination. In the case of colleges, affiliation is granted or withdrawn under law and regulations, by the government concerned, on recommendation from the senate of the university. The recognition of schools for presentation of candidates at matriculation is granted and withdrawn by the syndicates of the universities—save in the case of Madras, where these acts are performed by government. There remains the case of schools established where they are not required in unfair competition with existing institutions, and those deliberately set up in defiance of the existing system. The former have sometimes, under a mistaken policy of toleration and encouragement, earned recognition to the detriment of educational interests; when such recognition is denied, they quickly die.

17. On the other hand, it is incumbent on no one to send his children to (b) for compulsion of school. Elementary education has recently been made compulsory in the native State of Baroda, at first over a limited area, then over the whole state. This development is still admittedly in an experimental stage. The question of introducing into British India a similar measure, coupled with free elementary education, was raised by the Hon'ble Mr. Gokhale in the Imperial Legislative Council early in 1910. A year later Mr. Gokhale introduced a Bill for making the adoption of compulsion permissive for municipal and district board authorities, provided the numbers actually at school reached a percentage (to be fixed by the Governor General in Council) of the children of a school-going age within the locality in question, and provided the Local Government concurred in the application of the Act to that particular area. The measure was to be applicable separately to boys and girls. The Bill was introduced but was rejected a year later after an interesting debate at the second stage. It was held that the mass of opinions which had been collected in the interim condemned the Bill as a practical measure, and that it was premature for an agricultural country where the demand for education was still slender. While a large body of educated opinion favoured the measure and there was a general desire for the spread of education, there was no display of willingness to defray the cost; and the most thoughtful condemned the Bill as premature and likely to retard progress. An account of the main provisions of the Bill and the principal arguments advanced on either side will be found in paragraphs 294—296 of this volume.

18. A few words must be said here regarding the events which have led up to the system of administration and finance to be described later in this review. The general policy of relieving the state of the management of schools was laid down in 1854. The despatch of 1859 did not pronounce so clearly on the subject and contemplated the increase, where necessary, of the number of government institutions. The question was discussed at length by the Commission of 1882; and the policy was upheld (given efficient control) notwithstanding a large amount of evidence against the wisdom of the withdrawal of government management. In 1900 the Secretary of State reminded the Government of India of the necessity of government control, guidance and assistance in higher teaching, and indicated the desirability of maintaining a certain number of government schools. The Royal Commission of 1908 on Decentralisation in India doubted the propriety of local bodies maintaining and managing high and other English-teaching schools; they considered that "secondary education should be in the hands of government." In some provinces the system of management by private bodies has been to a certain extent discredited by departure from the definition given in 1854 of a managing authority, the growth of schools run by private individuals on money-making lines, and insufficient control. Nevertheless, government have adhered to the policy of encouraging privately managed schools under suitable bodies, maintained in efficiency by government inspection, recognition and control, and by the aid of government funds. This devolution of authority has been made in the case of higher institutions mainly to private associations—missionary and otherwise; in the case of elementary institutions mainly to municipalities and district boards which can either maintain their own schools or make grants from their funds to privately managed
schools. The idea of municipal government in India is as old as 1687; and in that year the erection of a school-house (but apparently only one) was regarded as among the functions of such a body. Effective municipal administration and the extension of the principle of election date from the latter half of the last century, especially from Lord Ripon's viceroyalty and the Acts of 1883-1884. Primary education is now regarded as an obligatory duty of municipalities. Similarly, a system of board administration in the rural areas was established by the Local Self-Government Acts of 1883-1885; and the bodies thereby created (varying considerably in constitution for different parts of the country) have extensive functions in connection with elementary education. The Royal Commission on Decentralisation proposed the confinement of the efforts of local bodies entirely to primary schools and the further devolution of educational functions to rural boards, sub-district boards and panchayats, the grant of reasonable latitude to sub-district boards to settle the curricula, the maintenance by local bodies of their own inspecting staffs (in addition to the government inspectorate) and the abrogation of rules requiring those bodies to devote specific percentages of their revenue to education. These recommendations are under consideration. But the important fact remains that government superintends but does not manage educational institutions.

19. It has been stated that the charter of 1813 permitted the appropriation of a lakh of rupees annually for purposes of education. But, save for its reliance on private resources, the despatch of 1854 prescribed no financial policy. The despatch of 1859 repaired this omission by laying down as a principle the imposition of a local rate (being a fixed proportion of the annual value of land) for purposes of elementary education. This was followed by the Cess Acts for Sind (1865), Madras (1866), Bombay (1869), the United Provinces and the Punjab (1871). There was considerable variety in these Acts. That for Bombay made compulsory a rate of 6½ per cent on the land revenue. The forward condition of education in certain parts of that presidency has sometimes been ascribed to this measure. In Madras, on the other hand, the imposition of a rate was quasi-voluntary, the inhabitants of an area being empowered to assess themselves for educational purposes. The result in the latter presidency was failure—no increase in the funds nor in the number of rate-schools; on the other hand, some closed, and it was remarked that there "can be little doubt that, if a free voice were allowed in several villages, a majority would elect the discontinuance of the schools."

In Bengal the Act provided only for communications, not for schools. The permanent settlement offered a difficulty. Early statistics show that in this province and Madras the actual expenditure from public funds on elementary schools was far below one per cent of the land revenue (the standard generally adopted in other parts of India); while in Bengal not only was seven-tenths of this met from imperial funds, but the educational budget grant for all purposes was in large proportionate excess to the land revenue as compared with other provinces.* Meantime expenditure had grown, in 1866-67, to a total of just over 76 lakhs of rupees (taken for eleven months and exclusive of Burma). Of this, imperial funds contributed nearly 48 lakhs, receipts of Educational Committees, cesses, fees, private endowments, etc., 23 lakhs, and other private sources 5 lakhs.† In 1870-71 the

* Howell's Education in India, pp. 6 and 48.
† Howell's Education in India, table on p. 6.
system of provincial finance was initiated. Then came the legislation of the early eighties, which, among other things, changed the system of assessment. The elementary schools were handed over to the boards. On the whole the policy has been remarkably successful. There was a rapid advance in the number of schools and pupils, also in the amount of expenditure—though local funds in themselves have never been elastic. In ten years (1881-82 to 1891-92) total expenditure rose from 187 to 305 lakhs, an increase to which local funds contributed 68 lakhs. Today the annual expenditure has reached Rs. 7,55,92,605 (5,239,507), to which provincial funds contribute Rs. 2,90,98,808, local and municipal funds Rs. 1,35,64,264, fees Rs. 2,19,08,640, and other sources Rs. 1,61,60,887. During the last decade considerable grants have been made from imperial to provincial funds, more or less ear-marked for definite purposes. These gradually pass into provincial settlements.

20. The system of instruction and its developments under each branch will be described and discussed at considerable length in succeeding pages. At the present stage it is necessary only to indicate some very general traits of the matter taught and the method pursued. A haphazard system of elementary education has been replaced by an organised system. The old-fashioned system of oriental classics has been left as it was and very slightly subsidised. A totally new order of higher education has been introduced based on the western ideals of sixty years ago. The despatch of 1854 (assuredly one of the noblest of official documents) laid down the lines; and the lines have stood the test of time. It has already been indicated that they were not perfect. They were judiciously conceived, in accordance with the recognised needs of India and the educational ideas then prevalent in England. It was an era that viewed with satisfaction the affiliating university, venerated the examination system and inscribed on its altars the nothingness of aught on earth save man and of aught in man save mind. Time has widened the horizon and humanised the machinery.

21. Higher education in India presents three broad characteristics. It is (a) in higher secular; it is utilitarian (though not practical); and it is conducted in English. The policy as regards religious teaching enunciated in 1854 was based on the apprehension of proselytisation. That apprehension no longer exists. The danger of "irreligious" education has been made manifest. A movement in favour of religious instruction has arisen among the educated. Experiments are being made. But the adequate solution of one of the most difficult of our problems is probably not yet in sight. The high school and the college are the natural path to government and professional employ; and examinations have been the natural portals. The scale on which these examinations must be conducted is very large. The scope of such examinations is limited. And these circumstances in turn have imposed limits on the course. For the subject that does not lend itself to the test comes to be neglected or excluded from the course when the certificate is the end and aim. Courses have accordingly often been framed with a view to facility and fairness of examination and lacking in those elements which go to make up what does not tell in an answer-paper—character, practical adaptability and reasoning power. The text-book, too, has not always been chosen with a consideration for the environment and the mental plane either of the teacher or of the taught. There is an outcry that the courses are literary, and that a practical bent is needed in the high school, and also in the shape of technological institutions. Perhaps the argument in favour of the practical has sometimes been obscured by vagueness as to the meaning of the term. But the desire for a broader basis of instruction is slowly crystallising; and probably few will gainsay it, especially when the existence of higher institutions finds its justification no longer only in the need of public servants, but also in wider outlets of professional activity and culture. The statement is sometimes made that the Indian student is actuated by purely material motives. The statement is partially true of many students in all countries, but is not truer in the case of India than of elsewhere. Again, it is sometimes said that the bond between the ruling race and the ruled has been made the language of the former, and that this result is paradoxical. The assertion is incorrect, since it would limit administrative activity to the college class-room; and, even there, must be qualified by realisation of the facts that the Indian desires, and the government
has prescribed, a course of occidental study; and that it is not easy (though it might be advisable) to conduct this in languages which are not the natural vehicle of the thought to be expressed, and often in two or three of those languages simultaneously before the same audience.

If the examinational trend has limited the scope, it has affected still more the imparting of instruction. The cram-lesson and the key-book have received encouragement. The large influx into secondary and higher institutions, the necessity of cheap maintenance, and often the quantitative and qualitative defects of the staff have also contributed to the adoption of crude methods. In some areas and in some institutions discipline has been one of the poorest. These facts have combined to foster in many quarters an unflattering opinion of English education in India. A point which is largely responsible for the opinion is the wastage which takes place as pupils ascend the standards. That such wastage should take place is explicable and also deplorable. But it is not fair to judge of a system by its unimproved product. The graduate is no discredit to Indian education.

22. The spread of useful and practical instruction among the masses has remained the principal feature of educational policy. The Court of Directors impressed its importance upon the central government, the central government upon the provincial administrations. Various causes have combined against the fulfilment of this aim—the loud claims of higher education, the lethargy of the lower classes, and the inferiority of the teachers. The middle classes desire higher institutions, the maintenance of whose efficiency demands the energies and the financial aid of the State. A great part of the masses have not been accustomed to education in the past and see little advantage from it in the present. Exemption from fees and compulsory attendance have been urged. The former is tried in some provinces without appreciable effect. The latter is a drastic measure to adopt towards a population which is not within reasonable distance of general literacy and large sections of which would resent such interference with liberty as an act of tyranny. Economic progress and the improvement of the school itself will probably of themselves commend a change of attitude. The most urgent improvement is the raising of the pay and status of the village teacher. M. Chailley, in his *Administrative Problems of British India*, has placed the mediocre quality of the primary schoolmaster as the first reason for the lack of reform. This, rather than defects of curricula, is probably responsible for the divorce of teaching from the practical issues of village life and the consequent want of popularity and of marked effect on literacy. The teaching of the '3 R's' and a little geography are generally combined with some study of the village maps and records and nature-study centring round the field, the crop and the cattle. These and mental problems in arithmetic are much appreciated. It remains that their teaching, already good in some schools, should be improved in the great majority.

Method has suffered from other causes besides the poor prospects of the teacher. Elementary education, too, long lay under the blight of ideals now regarded as obsolete or unsuitable—an oppressive examination system, the distribution of grants by examinational results, the importation of methods of infantile instruction unsuitable to the genius of the country. In the primary school, if anywhere, there should be no place for rigid tests; and the instruction should be imparted on indigenous lines adapted to modern requirements and to rational methods. When attention and inspection have not been relaxed or diverted to secondary education, good results have been obtained. There are many excellent primary schools in India. The improvement of the rest is a matter of money and care.

23. These few points—which, to those conversant with Indian education, will read as common-places—have been put forward to show the defects rather than the qualities of the system, especially those defects which may be regarded as its inheritance from the age that gave it birth and whose eradication has proceeded more slowly than in Europe. How consciousness of these defects has grown, and the steps taken to remedy them, will be shown later in this review. The preceding paragraphs have attempted to express certain generalities applicable to Indian education in general and do not attempt to treat of its specialised forms.
III.—General organisation.

24. It will be convenient here to touch briefly on the outlines of the system now prevalent in India, if only for the sake of defining the terms which occur in the forthcoming chapters. This may be done under the heads of management, finance and classification of institutions.

25. Government guides the policy and inspects, but does not own or manage colleges and schools. There are exceptions to the latter assertion; and they are important. For there are certain institutions which government alone can efficiently maintain, and others among which the maintenance of a limited number by government is wholesome. An account of the controlling agencies is given in chapter IV. For the most part, elementary schools are maintained by local bodies and private societies or individuals, secondary schools and colleges by private societies. Government also maintains some high schools and colleges, nearly all the training institutions for teachers, and the more important of such special institutions as deal with engineering, industry, medicine, agriculture, forestry, etc. Thus the vast majority of the ordinary places of instruction are in the hands of local bodies or private agencies. Government, however, inspects through its officers, prescribes the curricula (save when courses are subject to the universities) and apportions grants. And all the institutions which submit to inspection, follow the curricula and receive (or hope for) grant-in-aid, are termed public institutions. These are sub-divided as public institutions under public management—i.e., management by government, or by a municipal or other local body such as a district board; and public institutions under private management—i.e., management by a society, a committee, or an individual. In addition, there are private institutions—those which have not accepted departmental or university standards and do not submit their pupils to any public test. The number of these is not very large and has slightly decreased in the past five years, though a small increase is visible in the pupils. The tendency is for the private school to enter the list of recognised schools and become a public institution under private management.

There are other agencies of control. The most important of these are the universities. These are incorporated bodies partially under the control of government but possessed of a large measure of independence. Their influence is limited to colleges and high schools, for which they prescribe courses and hold examinations.

26. The total cost of the educational system is shared almost equally between public and private funds. By the former are meant provincial revenues and municipal or district board funds. Provincial revenues are the produce of the land revenue and of taxation, part of which is paid, under provincial settlements, into the imperial exchequer and part is retained by the Local Government. The portion paid to the imperial Government, enhanced by the produce of purely imperial heads of revenue (railways, irrigation, opium, etc.) is partly used for imperial charges, such as the army, and is partly given back in various ways to provinces. One of these ways is the occasional distribution of sums for set purposes, such as education or sanitation. The Government of India are able to urge forward a general policy by thus making available to Local Governments the means for its accomplishment. The system has been questioned as tending to over-centralisation. The Royal Commission on Decentralisation recommended in respect of these grants that the system must be maintained, provided that it involves no increase of administrative control by the Government of India, and that the views of Local Governments are taken as to the relative urgency of objects. They also remarked that objects should not always necessarily be the same in every province, and that recurring grants may gradually be converted into shares of growing revenue. Municipal and district or local boards levy cesses. As this source of income is generally insufficient for their needs, it is increased by Local Governments through equilibrium grants for general purposes (i.e., grants calculated to square income with expenditure) and also special grants made for such purposes as expansion of education. A portion of the municipal or district fund is spent on education; and it is necessary to recollect that the fund is partly the produce of local cesses and partly contributions from provincial
revenues. In a word, the whole of the provincial expenditure on education is met from provincial revenues which are from time to time enhanced by imperial grants. Similarly, a large but indefinite portion of local fund expenditure on education is met from cesses; but these are very materially increased by grants, both general and special, from provincial revenues. The life history of an imperial assignment might be traced as follows. The Government of India allots a recurring sum to a Local Government for, let us say, elementary education. The sum is shown in the provincial budget as part of the provincial funds available for education. As primary education is mainly the affair of district boards, the larger portion of the sum is transferred as a special grant to the district funds, and distributed proportionately to each board. Part, however, may be kept for provincial expenditure on increases of the inspecting staff, on scholarships or schools for the training of elementary teachers necessitated by the enhanced educational activity of the boards. The boards probably spend the money in increasing the pay of existing teachers, founding new board schools, increasing grants to privately managed schools or aiding schools hitherto unaided.

Private funds are classed as fees, subscriptions, endowments and other sources. There is no need to add any further explanation. But the figures collected under these heads are necessarily of a somewhat uncertain nature.

Classification of institutions.

27. The ordinary institutions are the following. First, the primary schools in which simple vernacular education is imparted. These are subdivided into lower primary or elementary schools and upper primary—that is, those which carry education a stage or two above the elementary. The great majority of schools are of the primary type. To these should be added vernacular middle schools which are classed as secondary in the tables, but are simply primary schools with continuation classes added, to serve the need of larger villages and also with a view to supplying youths of sufficient attainment to enter at once into vernacular normal schools. Second, the anglo-vernacular secondary school, which is divided into the anglo-vernacular or English middle school (in theory an incomplete high school lacking the top classes, but often of a deplorably inferior character), and the full high school teaching up to the matriculation or school final examination. In many parts of India a high school possesses the primary classes also; and a boy may undergo his whole school career from the infant class to the matriculation in the same institution. Third, there is the arts college, affiliated to one of the universities and offering a course of four years up to the bachelor's degree and a further course to the M.A. Some colleges have high schools attached to them. Besides these, which have been termed the ordinary institutions, there are special institutions, both of the collegiate and school grade, for law, medicine, engineering, teaching and agriculture; and there are schools of commerce, of industry, etc. Private institutions are partly religious or semi-religious schools, or teach Sanskrit, Arabic and Persian. But the majority of these institutions are very elementary schools teaching a vernacular, which hope, as they improve, to be placed on the recognised or aided list.
GENERAL PROGRESS.

CHAPTER III.

GENERAL PROGRESS.

I.—Statistical Progress.

28. The first noticeable feature of the quinquennium is the increase of pupils. In 1907 the number was 5,388,632. In 1912 it was 6,780,721 or pupils, nearly 26 per cent. larger. Compared with past periods the increase is large; compared with the population it is small. The school-going population has been calculated in India as 15 per cent. of the population. Doubts have recently been cast upon this conventional figure. The calculation depends upon the number of years which may be reckoned as representing a reasonable time for education, the ages which begin and end this period, and the proportion of the population which is at any time included between those ages. On the one hand, in a country which is tropical and sub-tropical, the proportion of the population contained in the earlier age-periods is larger than in cold climates. On the other hand, where the bulk of the population is agricultural, the period of education is necessarily shorter than under more complicated social conditions, and the amount of education required is less. The actual time spent under primary instruction is, so far as the figures adduced in chapter VIII can show, 3-8 years. This period, however, cannot be taken as sufficient to secure permanent results; for the figures of literacy warrant the assumption that many of those who receive education relapse into illiteracy. The primary course (and this is all that need be considered) ordinarily occupies from five to six years; and the average age of school-life is from the completion of the fifth to the completion of the eleventh or twelfth year. These ages include (if we reckon to the end of the eleventh year) 13.7 per cent. of the population, (if we reckon to the end of the twelfth year) just below 16 per cent. The old figure of 15 per cent. may therefore be taken as fairly correct. On this assumption only 17.7 of the population of a school-going age are now at school against 14.8 per cent. five years ago. If only pupils under primary instruction are taken, the percentage is still less.

29. The increase of 2.9 in the percentage is large, especially when it is considered that the figure for 1907 is reckoned on the census total of 1901, that for 1912 on the census total of 1911, and that the latter total exceeds the former by over fourteen millions of souls. But the percentage in itself is very small. The reasons for this can be more suitably discussed in the chapter on primary education. The following are the increases in different provinces:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Province</th>
<th>Pupils at school (figures in thousands)</th>
<th>Percentage of increase</th>
<th>Percentage of the total population at school</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1907</td>
<td>1912</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madras</td>
<td>1,007</td>
<td>1,280</td>
<td>27.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bombay</td>
<td>731</td>
<td>923</td>
<td>28.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bengal</td>
<td>1,269</td>
<td>1,610</td>
<td>26.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Provinces</td>
<td>606</td>
<td>712</td>
<td>17.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punjab</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>381</td>
<td>27.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burma</td>
<td>399</td>
<td>445</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastern Bengal and Assam</td>
<td>816</td>
<td>1,075</td>
<td>31.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Provinces and Berar</td>
<td>237</td>
<td>313</td>
<td>32.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coorg</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North-West Frontier Province</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>20.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>5,389</strong></td>
<td><strong>6,781</strong></td>
<td><strong>25.8</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* G. Sandberg: *Apresus statistiques Internationaux*, page 114.
† T. C. Ackland: *Report on the estimated age distribution of the Indian population as recorded at the Census of 1911*, page 36.
The percentage of increase is over 30 in three provinces. The figures of the last column fairly represent the educational condition of different provinces as set forth in this review.

In 1902 the percentage of those at school to the total population was 1.9, and in 1901 the percentage of literacy was 5.3. Now 2.7 of the population are at school; and in 1911 the percentage of literates was 5.9.

Another rough means of judging the advance of education is a consideration of the growth in the number of newspapers and periodicals. The number published in India in 1906 was 1,366. In 1911 it was 1,815. The increase has been much larger in the Bengalis than elsewhere. It is less easy to speak of the circulation of these papers. Some of the new productions have a minute circulation; but that of the more popular papers has generally increased.

30. The total amount spent upon education has risen from Rs. 5,59,03,673 (£3,726,911) to Rs. 7,55,92,605 (£5,239,507). The figures for provinces are given below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Province</th>
<th>1907.</th>
<th>1912.</th>
<th>Total increase.</th>
<th>Percentage of increase.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rs.</td>
<td>Rs.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madras</td>
<td>97,64,355</td>
<td>92,65,102</td>
<td>5,00,744</td>
<td>38-9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bombay</td>
<td>1,06,63,089</td>
<td>1,26,71,557</td>
<td>20,08,468</td>
<td>19-9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bengal</td>
<td>1,16,63,468</td>
<td>1,72,93,434</td>
<td>56,29,966</td>
<td>47-6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Provinces</td>
<td>74,90,580</td>
<td>1,07,93,835</td>
<td>33,03,255</td>
<td>44-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punjab</td>
<td>51,56,590</td>
<td>65,54,909</td>
<td>14,98,319</td>
<td>32-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burma</td>
<td>34,57,233</td>
<td>47,36,441</td>
<td>12,79,208</td>
<td>35-3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastern Bengal and Assam</td>
<td>51,54,074</td>
<td>80,46,301</td>
<td>28,92,227</td>
<td>57-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Provinces and Berar</td>
<td>22,48,061</td>
<td>32,52,447</td>
<td>10,04,386</td>
<td>49-3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coorg</td>
<td>48,12,68</td>
<td>72,85,49</td>
<td>24,73,812</td>
<td>49-2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North-West Frontier Province</td>
<td>2,37,754</td>
<td>4,28,498</td>
<td>1,90,744</td>
<td>80-2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>5,59,03,673</strong></td>
<td><strong>7,55,92,605</strong></td>
<td><strong>1,96,88,932</strong></td>
<td><strong>36-8</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This represents expenditure from both public and private sources, which contribute to the total in about equal proportions. In 1912 the expenditure from public funds was just over four crores of rupees (nearly £2,700,000), distributed among provinces as below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Province</th>
<th>1907.</th>
<th>1912.</th>
<th>Total increase.</th>
<th>Percentage of increase.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rs.</td>
<td>Rs.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madras</td>
<td>42,79,590</td>
<td>59,64,266</td>
<td>16,84,676</td>
<td>39-4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bombay</td>
<td>56,75,537</td>
<td>74,38,139</td>
<td>17,62,602</td>
<td>31-9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bengal</td>
<td>48,30,614</td>
<td>65,10,088</td>
<td>16,89,474</td>
<td>39-9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Provinces</td>
<td>49,27,654</td>
<td>67,05,076</td>
<td>17,77,422</td>
<td>37-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punjab</td>
<td>32,12,186</td>
<td>38,75,550</td>
<td>6,63,364</td>
<td>20-7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burma</td>
<td>22,08,949</td>
<td>26,57,601</td>
<td>4,48,652</td>
<td>21-7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastern Bengal and Assam</td>
<td>25,13,520</td>
<td>40,10,524</td>
<td>14,97,004</td>
<td>59-6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Provinces and Berar</td>
<td>17,40,596</td>
<td>25,63,517</td>
<td>8,23,921</td>
<td>47-4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coorg</td>
<td>36,928</td>
<td>54,498</td>
<td>17,570</td>
<td>57-7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North-West Frontier Province</td>
<td>1,59,050</td>
<td>3,00,818</td>
<td>1,41,763</td>
<td>94-8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>2,96,34,574</strong></td>
<td><strong>4,65,53,072</strong></td>
<td><strong>1,69,18,498</strong></td>
<td><strong>36-8</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The North-West Frontier Province easily leads the way in the increase both of total and of public expenditure. Eastern Bengal and Assam comes next. It is interesting to observe that in these two provinces, and in Madras, Bombay, the Central Provinces and Coorg public expenditure has increased more rapidly than total expenditure.

31. The quinquennium has witnessed the allocation of imperial grants for purposes of education. The amounts devoted to each branch of education will be stated in the appropriate chapters. The totals are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Branch of Education</th>
<th>1911</th>
<th>1912</th>
<th>1913</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Non-recurring grants</td>
<td>90,17,000</td>
<td>65,00,000</td>
<td>3,19,00,000</td>
<td>4,74,17,000 (£3,161,133)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recurring grants</td>
<td>50,00,000 for popular education.</td>
<td>10,00,000 for universities and secondary education.</td>
<td>55,00,000 for various kinds of education.</td>
<td>1,15,00,000 (£766,667)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These figures include grants made shortly after the close of the quinquennium. The full effect of these allocations has not yet made itself felt in the general expenditure figures. Indeed, the actual distribution of the last non-recurring grant is being spread over three years. On the other hand, the grants made in 1905 and 1906 have played their part in facilitating progress during the period under review. The figures of this paragraph refer solely to imperial grants, not to the natural increase of provincial expenditure on education.

32. The average cost of educating a pupil has risen from Rs. 8-8-2 a year to Rs. 9-4-11. Out of this, public funds defray Rs. 4-11-9. The cost is highest in the Punjab (Rs. 14-11-8) and next highest in Bombay (Rs. 13-0-10). It is lowest in Eastern Bengal and Assam (Rs. 5-15-6). The most expensive institution is the professional college, where a pupil costs nearly Rs. 342. In an arts college the average expenditure is over Rs. 169, in a secondary school Rs. 23-10-3, and in a primary school Rs. 4-6-5.

33. The general advance of education in India during the last fifty years is illustrated in the diagrams which figure at the beginning of this chapter. These show the gradual rise in the number of pupils and the concomitant rise in expenditure. The figures of the earlier years are unreliable; the dotted line in the sixties and seventies represents transition to new and more complete methods of collecting statistical information. Freedom from famine in particular and generally the material prosperity of the country are important factors. The famines of 1874 and 1876, the severe famines of 1897 and 1900 and the advent of plague about the same time delayed progress to a considerable extent; while the 1886-87 depression was partially due to financial stress. The resolution of the Government of Bombay remarks that during the latter part of the period under review plague was responsible for the closure of 368 schools in two divisions alone. But the material prosperity of the country and the spread of education have been well maintained during the last decade. Since 1900 expenditure has increased by 109 per cent. and the number of pupils by 52 per cent.
34. The quinquennium has witnessed a remarkable realisation on the part of almost all classes of the growing importance of education. The movement in favour of denominational universities, the prominence which educational problems now assume on the platform and in the press, the debates in the imperial and local legislative councils and the introduction of a private bill for compulsory education—all these are symptoms pointing in the same direction, while growing numbers afford incontestible proof of enhanced demand. The Government of Bombay remark that the history of the period indicates "the presence among the people themselves of a growing disposition favourable to the reception of higher educational ideals and aspirations."

35. Mr. de la Fosse says that perhaps the most notable event in connection with primary education is the suddenly awakened interest in it manifested by the general public. If the zeal in some quarters somewhat outruns discretion, its existence is a sign of happy augury. The programme of extension called for by the Government of India should, if funds suffice for its realisation, certainly satisfy all but the most extravagant idealists. It is not unnatural that the cry for mass education emanates from classes already educated. The reports contain indications that practical efforts towards its realisation are not always commensurate with profession. The increase of pupils in secondary schools is comparatively greater than that in primary; and sympathy is largely centred on higher institutions. The Madras report speaks of apathy on the part of the Hindus towards the depressed castes. It is complained that some of the district boards have cut down their expenditure on education. Municipal committees in the Punjab take little interest in the elementary education of the masses and secondary schools claim the largest share of municipal expenditure on education in that province; and the conversion of a middle vernacular school into an anglo-vernacular school often arouses individual generosity. Rural courses which do not lead to English classes are unpopular.

36. On the other hand, the rush into higher institutions (secondary schools and colleges) has been remarkable. The increase of pupils during the period has amounted to 47 per cent. The reports notice the insufficiency of existing facilities to cope with rapid expansion. In some provinces a limit of numbers has had to be fixed in government schools. In the Bengal's the inadequacy of colleges to accommodate candidates for admission has proved embarrassing. Some interesting figures from the Punjab report regarding the numbers in secondary schools are quoted in paragraph 180 of this review.

37. Individual assistance, too, is displayed mainly in the case of higher or specialised studies. Education in India is not largely endowed. Sir A. Bourne complains of the lack of foundations for secondary schools. Exceptions are the generosity of the Tata family displayed in the establishment of the Indian Institute of Science at Bangalore and the liberal endowment of various institutions in the Bombay presidency. There are other exceptions; and the number of endowed fellowships, scholarships and prizes is by no means insignificant. Among instances of private liberality during or just after the quinquennium may be mentioned the response to the appeals for denominational universities, the gift of fifteen lakhs made by Sir T. Palit to the Calcutta University, the endowment of the Science Institute and Gujarat College and of the projected college of commerce in Bombay, a large donation for a university library at Calcutta, and (most striking of all) the collection of five lakhs among the frontier tribes for the establishment of an arts college at the border city of Peshawar. Reports mention other individual acts of generosity.

38. Government has utilised the opportunity afforded by enhanced interest, the desire for better education and the growing sense that the basis of instruction has hitherto been too narrow. These have been the three guiding factors in such changes as have been initiated in organisation and in the handling of educational problems.
39. With the growth of education and the increased complexity of the questions it involves, a greater responsibility falls upon government and a larger portion of its attention is necessarily devoted to this side of administration. Accordingly, a separate department has been created in the Government of India, a department of public instruction has been organised in the North-West Frontier Province, the inspecting staff has been strengthened throughout the provinces and has received the status of a government service where it did not previously possess it. Large grants have been made for the expansion and improvement of institutions; and the administration of these funds will in itself demand a greater perfection in the machinery. The inspecting staffs of provinces are often too small to cope with the number of schools. Notwithstanding that they have been strengthened, the number of officers in some areas is still quite inadequate. With enlargement of the staff there has arisen the need for co-ordination of duties—a subject treated of in chapter IV. Administration tends to grow more involved, and this has necessitated, in some provinces, new methods of co-operation with civil officers. The growth of the subordinate inspecting staff demands increased supervision and threatens to be largely ineffectual unless means are adopted, through special training, to render it helpful rather than inquisitorial.

A feature of some importance among the administrative changes of the period has been the devolution of powers to officers of the departments of public instruction. This is rendered necessary by the increasing volume of work. The measures of decentralisation generally relate to matters of routine and need not be detailed here. Among the more important of them is the power to appoint officers on higher rates of pay and to sanction building schemes up to a higher amount than was formerly permitted.

40. At the same time, steps have been taken to take the public into confidence in the framing of educational schemes. Sir Harcourt Butler, the first Member for Education in the Governor General's Council, based the initial operations of the department upon the advice of three conferences to which non-official representatives were admitted in large numbers. The first of these fittingly dealt with general problems of Indian education, the second with the improvement of oriental studies, the third with the education of the domiciled community. The proceedings of these conferences have been published in full and allusion is made to them in the preceding resolution and in the pages of this review. Nor is this all. Committees have been summoned for discussion in the provinces; and the quinquennium has been characterised by the number of its conferences. "Conferences," says Mr. de la Fosse, "have been throughout the chief means by which reforms have been initiated. Before making any step forward, it has been the practice to take stock of the situation and to confer with experts and others interested in education as to the plan of campaign." The questions of secondary and of industrial education in that province were considered by two conferences called at Naini Tal. This second question was also discussed at conferences held in Burma and in Eastern Bengal and Assam in 1909 and by a committee in the Punjab. Committees were summoned for the framing of the school leaving certificate scheme in Madras and of courses for European schools in the same presidency; for the revision of primary courses in Bengal, the formulation of proposals for a school final examination, and for the improvement of Muhammadan education, of the Presidency College and of the Calcutta Women's Training College, for the establishment of a technological institute in the same city and for the distribution of the imperial grants; on the question of rural education in the United Provinces; on the framing of a vernacular curriculum, on the reform of madrassas and on moral and religious education in Bengal and Eastern Bengal and Assam. A general conference, ordinarily attended both by officials and non-officials, was established in the Punjab in 1909 as an annual event. The first of these meetings dealt with the unification of primary curricula, the pay of village teachers, the simplification of the code, etc.; the second considered a draft revision of the school curriculum; the third dealt with more purely departmental subjects and was confined to departmental officers. An important development in Eastern Bengal and Assam has been the establishment, as a permanent body, of a Female Education Committee, which meets annually and is consulted by government on all
questions affecting the education of girls. "In addition," says Mr. Roy, "to the formulation of large projects for the expansion and reform of girls' schools of all grades, the attention of this committee during the past three years has been directed to the inspection of schools, the discussion and prescription of better methods of teaching, the improvement of individual institutions, and the encouragement of study among girls and women by the formation of ladies' committees and the introduction of zenana teaching." These conferences have generally been largely attended by private individuals. Important schemes have been framed, and considerable progress has been made in carrying them out.

41. The superiority of the public over the privately managed school was emphasised at the Allahabad conference of 1911. But the policy of entrusting higher education as far as possible to private agency is maintained. The recommendations of the Government of India made in 1906 included the establishment of a certain number of government high schools. The Decentralisation Commission advocated the transfer of English schools from local bodies to government. In the United Provinces, high schools have been made over from district boards to the State—considerably to the benefit of the institutions. In Burma a certain number of government high and middle English schools are being established; and it has been decided to bring under government management the municipal high schools at Bassein and Akyab. The Central Provinces administration has decided to play an active part in supplying secondary education in important centres. Part of the scheme put forward for the North-West Frontier Province is the provincialisation of municipal high schools, which has since been sanctioned. It has been found desirable to place under government management (with the full consent of the college authorities) the Gujarat College in Bombay and (just after the close of the period) the Morris College in the Central Provinces.

42. The private management of primary schools has not proved successful. Their organisation is defective, their distribution uneven. Large portions of the country have been actually over-schooled; but the inefficiency and poor accommodation of the institutions rendered them unattractive. One of the most striking features of the figures quoted at the beginning of this chapter is the comparatively small increase of institutions, amounting (for those of all kinds) to only 8 per cent., against an increase in pupils of 26 per cent. In other words, an institution now educates 38 pupils against 33 pupils five years ago. This is particularly marked in the North-West Frontier Province, where an actual diminution of 212 schools has been accompanied by an increase of pupils amounting to over 20 per cent. and a large enhancement of expenditure. In Eastern Bengal and Assam, too, the increase of institutions has been insignificant, and the growth of pupils large. A more even distribution of schools is being observed; single good schools are being substituted for groups of overlapping and inefficient institutions; new schools are being established where none existed before. Board primary schools are more popular and are increasing at a more rapid rate than privately managed schools. The growing desire for instruction and the appreciation of more efficient institutions are evinced by the proportionately greater increase of pupils. The policy of government is a regular survey of the country with a view to a properly distributed provision of schools. The work has but now commenced. The figures of the quinquennium appear to justify considerable expectations from its execution.

43. While the demand is for board primary schools wherever possible, endeavours have been made to improve privately managed institutions, whether of the higher or of the elementary grade, by means of grants. The grants-in-aid to elementary schools in Madras increased by 38 per cent. In the United Provinces the annual grants to aided colleges increased by 69 per cent., and nearly four lakhs were given for capital purposes; the annual grants-in-aid to schools teaching English rose by 32 per cent., and those to European schools by 55 per cent. For the whole of India the grants to colleges have increased by 19 per cent., to secondary English schools by 20 per cent., to middle vernacular schools by 21 per cent., to primary schools by 5 per cent. and to special schools by 69 per cent. The increase on the total expenditure is 15 per cent.
The amount now annually disbursed from public funds to aided institutions is over 80 lakhs, and this sum excludes grants for capital purposes.

The matter in which privately managed institutions stand mostly in need is improvement of staff. In state schools the teachers are pensionable, in board schools they are sometimes pensionable and sometimes subscribe to provident funds. There are few measures which would contribute more substantially to securing a better type of teacher in privately managed schools than the establishment of some similar provision. Progress in this respect has been made during the quinquennium. In Madras the question of establishing a provident fund for teachers in privately managed institutions is under consideration and expenditure upon provident funds started by private managers is now recognised as a proper object of aid. Such funds have been established in various grades of institutions in the Punjab; contributions towards them are allowed to count as expenditure on tuition in secondary schools; they have been instituted for primary teachers in all districts. The Central Provinces administration has under consideration the establishment of a provident fund for teachers in aided schools. In the North-West Frontier Province a regular service of vernacular teachers has been formed. The Government of India have also addressed Local Governments generally on the subject.

Among improvements must be reckoned the provision of more suitable accommodation. There has been great building activity. Greater attention is being paid to the special requirements of educational buildings. The provision of houses for primary schools remains a problem. There is a tendency to adopt type-plans for this and other simple forms of school-houses. This has especially been the case in the United Provinces, where the designs include buildings for schools, hostels and manual training workshops. The buildings since erected are stated to have given satisfaction in all respects; and the existence of standard plans has effected great saving of labour. The reports from Bengal, the Punjab, Eastern Bengal and Assam and the North-West Frontier Province also speak of type-plans having been framed—mainly for primary schools.

It has more and more been recognised that the type of education followed by most pupils in India is narrow and deadening. The reaction against this state of things has taken different forms. The demand for education, industrial training and the reviving interest in oriental studies will be described in the chapters on those subjects. It is necessary here to deal at some length with the subjects of physical and moral training and briefly to mention the steps that have been taken to free study from the influence of a hard and fast examinational system.

Greater attention to physical culture has been a feature of the quinquennium. Bengal has recently obtained a physical director from the United States. In the United Provinces much has been done for providing schools with proper playing grounds. The protective side of physical education has begun to receive attention in the Punjab, and a commencement has been made of systematic physical examination. This province has also a completely organised system of physical training and athletic competitions for schools; high schools have their teachers of athletics, vernacular schools are visited by peripatetic instructors in the employ of boards; tournaments are held, first in districts and afterwards at the headquarters of divisions. In the last year of the quinquennium a compulsory system of games was introduced into all government schools of the Central Provinces, together with the payment of a games fee to support the clubs. This is reported to be working well. The Madras report notices that an encouraging feature is the increasing ability of students to manage their games for themselves, while it is feared that most teachers still take but little interest in them. The same complaint is made about teachers in Bengal, who, "as a whole, do not appreciate the value of physical training for their pupils and do little for the better organisation of school games, much less take part in them themselves." Apart from this, there is no doubt great keenness evinced among college and secondary school pupils, and a considerable efficiency has been attained in athletics, while drill and deshi kasrat (country exercises) are regularly practised in almost all public institutions, both higher and primary.
47. A word of warning has to be added, though it is apparently not applicable in all provinces, upon a danger which attends the introduction of western systems of athletics. Sir A. Bourne remarks that the institution of tournaments and cup ties by which it has been sought to encourage games has not been an unmixed benefit. "It has even produced an inceptive professionalism which keeps the number of boys actually playing games comparatively small." Nor is Mr. Prior in favour of tournaments; the spirit of sport (he writes) is almost entirely wanting and the great crowds of school-boys who witness the matches usually contain only a very tiny percentage of boys who have ever played the game themselves or ever will play it. While admitting that matters improve, and that matches end less frequently than before in inter-tribal warfare and stone-throwing, he is convinced that while the playing of organised games should be encouraged, the time has not come for tournaments between institutions to be played with moral profit to the boys. The Bengal report, too, complains of the spirit of professionalism which leads to the enrolment of boys in schools in order that they may be qualified to play in matches, and the over-emulation and excitement which sometimes result in acts of violence against the opposite party or their friends. The report from the United Provinces cites an instance in which the students of a normal school were summoned by the team which they had defeated at hockey for assaults committed in the course of the game; "the case was happily compromised out of court, when it came to be understood that no malice lay behind the vigour of the attack." The same report states that it has been found desirable to abolish the tournament system altogether owing to the professionalism and unpleasantness which were engendered and from which, it appears, not even headmasters were altogether free. Its disappearance appears to have had no damaging effect upon enthusiasm. On the other hand, the fostering endeavours of the college staffs and of a university committee for inter-collegiate contests are said to have wrought improvement in athletics in the Punjab, where, in spite of occasional disturbances, a more friendly and sportsmanlike spirit is said to be growing up and there is no reason to question the beneficial effect of tournaments.

Professionalism and crude ideas respecting contests where party spirit may run high are dangers to be guarded against, and the latter is a not unnatural characteristic of the earlier stages of an implanted growth. But the taste for games in themselves is wholly good and the right spirit is growing. The average Indian student lives a healthy life when he has the opportunity. In some of the large towns his physical condition often leaves everything to be desired. Calcutta possesses over 8,000 college students and nearly 58,000 school pupils. Beyond the public parks, few of the institutions have playgrounds worthy the name. Many have none; others give the title to any small space that happens to be unoccupied in the compound.

48. Save for the beginning made in the Punjab, but little is done in the way of medical inspection. Simple hygiene lessons are generally included in vernacular text-books, and the subject sometimes figures as a separate one in higher schools. But the teaching is too often unreal. The Government of India have recently given Rs. 25 lakhs for educational hygiene, the provision of playgrounds, and kindred objects.

49. Manual training is being introduced as a part of the instructional system; but its introduction is slow. Mr. Prior says that this branch of a liberal education is still viewed with dislike and distrust; it is not regarded as any part of the stock-in-trade of a clerk, a graduate, a shop-keeper or a gentleman; all that the parent asks of the school is that it shall pass his son by any means through the requisite examination. Nevertheless manual training now forms an item in the course of some of the training institutions; manual classes are attached to some of the board schools in Bombay, Sloyd classes to selected schools in Burma, and two Local Governments have indented for manual instructors.

50. The question of religious and moral training has come prominently to the fore during the quinquennium. The attitude of government as regards religion has already been described as one of neutrality—abstention from teaching in public schools, abstention from interference with teaching in...
privately managed schools. Certain concessions have been allowed. In the United Provinces the education code permits religious instruction for one hour a week to the children of parents who desire it, but the ordinary staff is to have nothing to do with the instruction. In the Punjab the code permits religious instruction on the premises of board schools out of school hours, provided that it is imparted in accordance with rules laid down by the local body, that the parents desire it, that no teacher in regular employ is compelled to teach, and that no charge for such instruction is paid from public funds. In 1909-10 religious instruction was permitted in state schools in Burma, where the great majority of the people are Buddhists and thus offer a fairly homogeneous field. The chief conditions imposed were the equal recognition of different faiths, the provision of instruction out of school hours, without compulsion and only at the request of parents or guardians, the separation of any fees collected for religious instruction from school fees, the approval of the selected teacher by the inspector and the prohibition of any religious ceremony, festival or public act of worship within the school precincts.

51. The results do not always confirm the reality of the outcry against a purely secular system. There are vast numbers of privately managed institutions of every grade where religious instruction has always been permitted and yet none has ever been imparted. In the United Provinces only five schools have taken advantage of the concession made in the case of government institutions. Mr. de la Fosse concludes that the middle-class parent is pares deorum cultor et infrequens, and remarks the fact that, though by reason of the equal observance of the festivals of various religions no school boy in the world enjoys so many holidays as the Indian school boy, yet those who demand religious instruction have not thought of utilising these opportunities. It must, however, be remembered that the main declaration of government, dating as it does from a time which apprehended the dangers of proselytisation, is regarded as deterrent in the case of publicly managed schools, that in a matter like this the privately managed school is prone to follow suit, and that new orders take long to permeate the public mind. In Burma the idea of religious instruction is rendered familiar by its prevalence in monastic schools; and similar instruction, chiefly Buddhist (though representatives of other religions have equal rights of access to pupils of their faiths), is now given in sixty state institutions. The teachers are mainly members of the school staff and receive no special remuneration. The system is said to be working smoothly and to be productive of good—if only by weakening the belief that secular instruction is the only work of schools. Yet even here, though the concession was received with delight by those concerned and though parents are not apathetic, practical help from them is not forthcoming and there is a tendency to look to government for everything.

52. The influence of a long established principle, natural inertia and the habit of regarding a school as a machine to facilitate the passing of external examinations doubtless largely account for the contrast between inactivity and outcry. Nor is the demand universal. There can be no doubt of its widespread reality among Muhammadans. It is less general among Hindus. This was strikingly emphasised in the divergent opinions expressed at the Allahabad conference. One speaker averred that those brought up in the most orthodox manner often display the most unsettled minds; another cited an instance in which the introduction of religion as part of the school course had given rise to religious reaction and political propagandism; both these authorities considered such instruction to be impossible. Mr. de la Fosse observes that purely secular education is often regarded as the underlying cause of social, moral and political unrest, but that a perverted religious sense has quite as often been the cause of depravity. Mr. Godley warns against the too common assumption that the value of a school as a moral agency is secured by the inclusion of some form of religious teaching.

53. The changes in rule which have been noticed, the increase of denominational schools in the Punjab and the collection of funds for communal universities form the record of achievement during the quinquennium. This
does not amount to much. The time has rather been formative of opinion. However slowly it transforms itself into deed, there is no doubt a feeling abroad that respect for parents and teachers has waned, that the student's moral storehouse is often empty, swept and garnished and that it is consequently receptive of wild and irresponsible notions. The evil is symptomatic of transition—the conflict between the old and the new. The Government of India have suggested the calling together of committees in the different provinces to consider the matter.

Moral instruction presents less difficulty. The reading books commonly include moral lessons. Sometimes direct moral instruction is given. In Bombay a book of moral stories has been prepared for teachers. The difficulty lies with the staff. "The average teacher," says Mr. Godley, "has not the capacity for imparting direct moral instruction in such a way as to interest and impress his pupils." There are plenty of exceptions; and better recruitment and training will effect a change. Meantime, as one authority says, we must not attack the problem as if it were a case of laying on gas and water. "There are educationists of experience," says Mr. Prior, "who firmly believe that morality cannot with benefit appear upon a time-table, that it should permeate the whole curriculum, work, play and life of the school, and that at present we have not the necessary vehicular facilities for the 'imparting' of specific morality. Personally I believe rather in discipline, the example of worthy men, mental development (instead of memory-cramming), enlistment of parental co-operation, and in organised, manly games."

The hostel system.

One way of bringing order and good influence into the student's life is through the hostel system. "Owing to the unsuitability of many so-called guardians," says Mr. Prothero, "who are allowed to act in loco parentis, but who are often in no way connected with their wards and have no control over them, and the want of well qualified resident superintendents for the messes, it is hoped in time to establish sufficient college hostels to accommodate all students who do not live with their parents or natural guardians. Students require suitable accommodation, strict oversight, quietness for study, care in sickness, and freedom from domestic worries; and only in hostels can these wants be sufficiently supplied." The Lieutenant-Governor of the Punjab believes that a system of denominational hostels may meet the difficulty of religious instruction.

There has been a great increase in hostels during the period. There are now 2,798 hostels with 107,388 boarders; and the annual cost is Rs. 54,72,340 a year. The answering figures five years ago were 1,930 hostels, 78,412 boarders and Rs. 36,71,708. In the Central Provinces the increase of boarders in secondary schools amounts to 55 per cent. The Government of India have recently made grants for hostels, amounting to five lakhs recurring and Rs. 1,34,82,000 (£900,000) capital. The recurring expenditure is probably in the first instance being spent on buildings. But hostels require good superintendence; and money will be required to secure the latter.

The examination system.

The policy of Lord Curzon's government struck a blow at the system of excessive examinations in India. The only school examinations ordinarily recognised are the in situ test that closes the primary course and that which closes the complete school life. College life is still largely a preparation for university examinations. Opinion in some quarters continues to mourn the abolition of examinations at intermediate stages of the school career; here and there linger vestiges of the old system. On the whole, however, the change has undoubtedly been for good. The further problem of the nature of the test that should close the secondary school course has exercised the minds of educationists. It is recognised that the matriculations of the universities suffer from the difficulty of dealing with unmanageable numbers of candidates and from the defects inherent in external examinations. Bombay already had its school final examination, recognised for entrance to the public service but not to the university. Madras and the United Provinces have instituted systems during the period; also Burma and the Central Provinces, where, however, the attempt has not been attended with success. The object of these schemes (which will be described at
GENERAL PROGRESS.

length (in chapter VII) is to place the test in the hands of persons actually
cognisant of the schools, to give due weight to the record of the pupil and
to introduce oral and practical tests as an adjunct to written papers. Sir A.
Bourne says of the system in Madras that the secondary school certificate
records "not only the degree of success attained in a public examination,
but also the work done in school for not less than three years, and the charac­
ters and aptitudes of the holders as manifested during the same period."
The scheme is reported to have had great success and is described in the
resolution of the Local Government as perhaps the most striking reform of
the quinquennium.

IV. —Main events of the period.

56. The preceding section has indicated the main trend of development.
The ensuing chapters will treat of education and its progress under various
heads. In order to provide a synoptic view, some of the main events of the
last five years (exclusive of those already mentioned) are recited below.

57. The continued effect of the legislation of 1904 has been visible in
University and collegiate education. The exercise of the powers thereby con­
ferred on the universities has added to the efficiency of the colleges. The
universities themselves have been busied with (in some cases) the consolidation
of the courses of study, with the initiation of teaching arrangements in post­
graduate work, and with the provision of suitable buildings for their meet­
ings, their libraries or their examinations. In the meantime, new ideals
of university education have arisen which bode far-reaching changes in the
future. The Hindus and the Muhammadans have proposed denominational
universities at Benares and Aligarh. A scheme is being formulated for a
teaching and local university at Dacca; and separate universities have been
suggested elsewhere. The size of colleges has increased. The attainment
of higher standards has added largely to their cost. Among single incidents
the most striking is undoubtedly the movement for collegiate education
among the frontier tribes. This has already taken a most practical form;
and, at the opening of the buildings destined to grow into the Islamia College
of Peshawar, Sir Harcourt Butler pointed out the deep significance of this
event. "Standing here, on the most famous highway of Asia, facing the
mouth of the Khyber Pass, I confess that my imagination is powerfully
affected at the prospect of the enlightenment which will radiate from this
school and college, not only in this province and along the frontier, but far
into the recesses of Asia."

58. Secondary education has developed along lines laid down in 1906 and
Secondarq
education.

generally reiterated in the foregoing resolution. The various Local Govern­
ments have, so far as funds were available, translated this policy into fact.
Among the reforms now in progress none is more important than the
improvement of the prospects of teachers in these institutions—whether by
the framing of more favourable terms of service in government schools or
by the enhancement of grant and the introduction of more elastic methods in
its assessment for those under private management. In some provinces much
has already been done in these directions; notably, the services have been
improved in Bombay, the United Provinces, the Central Provinces, and the
North-West Frontier Province. The demand for English education is in­
creasing enormously and the number of pupils attracted by the higher effi­
ciency of government institutions has in some places proved a source of
embarrassment. Several provinces have substantially raised the fee rates in
secondary schools and in colleges. This measure has had no apparent
influence on numbers. The curriculum has been entirely revised in Eastern
Bengal and Assam. The growth of systems of school leaving certificates or
examinations in several provinces (notably Madras) has been an important
feature of the quinquennium. Some of the reports complain of the adverse
effects of the matriculation upon study and originality of method. The
Bengal report also questions the standard of the matriculation; and the reso­
lution of the Government of Bombay mentions indications that most of the
colleges have been suffering from a plethora of immature first-year students
induced by the unduly low standard of the matriculation, and supports the
view that, for purposes of the university, the high school course should be extended by at least one year. Though progress has been made in secondary education, much still remains to be done, and glaring defects have yet to be removed.

59. Apart from the interest exhibited in primary education, the main features of the period have been the reorganisation of courses in certain provinces, the establishment of the board school system in the districts of Eastern Bengal, and the complete abolition of fees in the North-West Frontier Province. The Government of India have requested that a portion of the grants made should be devoted to the extension of the principle of free elementary education. While rejecting the proposals for compulsory attendance at schools, they have urged the extension of facilities and a system of surveys which should place education of a simple kind within the reach of all who desire it; and they have emphasised their wishes in this matter by the provision of grants which will serve to facilitate a beginning in a more extensive and systematic distribution of institutions. While educational surveys are expected to produce a larger extension of elementary instruction, attempts are being made to improve the standard by fixing higher rates of pay for teachers, increasing the facilities for training and gradually enlarging the agency for inspection. How essential are these reforms and how futile would be a rapid and cheap expansion without such precautions is demonstrated by the fact that, even as things are, 39 per cent. of those educated relapse within a few years into illiteracy.

60. Professional education has witnessed a certain amount of improvement and concentration in law classes and institutions. A new medical college has been opened at Lucknow; and a new departure is under contemplation at Delhi in the shape of a medical college for women. The agricultural college at Cawnpore has been developed and a new college opened at Lyallpur.

In 1911 the Indian Institute of Science opened at Bangalore. The numbers under technical and industrial education have steadily risen. The resolution of the Government of Bombay speaks of the remarkable progress made in this branch of education, especially in the school of art, where architectural and pottery sections have been developed. The resolution, however, complains that "there is a general lack of co-ordination between the courses and standards of the several technical institutions due to the absence of any effective controlling authority." A series of conferences in several provinces have framed correlated schemes of development, and departments of industry have been established. In 1912 a small committee travelled through India to enquire how technical institutions can be brought into closer touch and more practical relations with the employers of labour in India. A committee in England has examined the scheme under which about ten scholarships are awarded to Indians for the study of technical subjects in Europe. A college of commerce is projected at Bombay.

61. There has been considerable progress in the training of teachers. Every large province is now provided with one or more secondary training colleges, new additions during the period being in Bengal and Eastern Bengal and Assam, where previously facilities for this kind of training were entirely lacking; in the Central Provinces, where the institution has been developed into a college and in the United Provinces, where a second college has arisen at Lucknow.

62. The feeling that oriental studies had fallen into some neglect was recognised by the summoning of a conference at Simla in 1911. Meanwhile, attention has been paid to the subject in Madras and boards of examinations have done much to organise and encourage indigenous schools of study, especially in Bengal and the United Provinces.

63. The number of girls at school has increased during the quinquennium by 47.7 per cent. The resolution on the Bombay report while remarking on the large numerical rate of increase says that there is an almost general opinion among educational officers that the real advance is incommensurate with the efforts and attention bestowed, and that the instruction which is
being imparted to girls, especially in the advanced schools, is proceeding on wrong lines and is not calculated to produce the intellectual and physical improvement for which there is need.

64. The special colleges for chiefs continue to flourish. It is characteristic of the times that there is now a general desire to see the courses at these colleges, etc., carried on to a more advanced standard. After the close of the quinquennium, a conference was held to consider a scheme for a higher college.

In Sind there has been a movement for the establishment of special madrassas and hostels for the education of the sons of zamindars.

65. Liberal grants have been made for the education of Europeans and the domiciled community. An important conference on this subject was held in Simla in 1912. The conclusions of this body, and the funds now being collected in England, are expected to result in a substantial advance.

66. The number of Muhammadans at school has increased by 32.3 per cent., but is still incommensurate in higher and collegiate institutions. In Muhammadan primary education the community holds its own, and Muhammadan girls now go more readily to school. Awakening interest is evinced in the opening of certain special Muhammadan institutions—such as the Islamia colleges at Lahore and Peshawar and a few high schools—and the proposal for a university at Aligarh.

67. The precise increase of education among backward classes is difficult to estimate. In Madras literacy among the Paraiyans has trebled. In Bombay an almost general spread of education has taken place in these depressed classes, amounting to an increase among those under instruction of 72 per cent. for aboriginals and of 64 per cent. for depressed classes. Vast numbers of these tribes and castes, however, are still untouched by education. Special inspecting agencies are required, and the provision of trained teachers from the tribes themselves. Much may be hoped from the general spread of schools.

68. No account of the educational events of this quinquennium would be complete without mention of the first visit of a British Sovereign to India and of the Delhi Durbar. The Government of India struck over two millions of medals for presentation to school children, and these were eagerly purchased for distribution by local bodies and private managers. The announcement of a recurring grant for truly popular education was one of the principal boons announced at the Durbar. Arrangements were made for the attendance at that ceremony of large numbers of pupils, who, clad school by school in different coloured head-dresses, gave to the vast auditorium the appearance of a variegated tulip-bed. His Imperial Majesty's reply to the address from the Calcutta University and the Queen-Empress' visit to the Mayo College emphasised their interest in the educational welfare of the country. The memory of the Durbar will be perpetuated in schools by the celebration of its anniversary.

As to local celebrations of the occasion, an account is given by Mr. de la Fosse, from which the following passage is taken:

"The local celebrations excited the liveliest enthusiasm, and the occasion was specially brought home to the minds of school boys and school girls by the grant of a holiday and the presentation of coronation medallions amid suitable festivities. The expense was borne partly by government and partly by local boards, in some instances relieved by private voluntary contributions. The labour of distributing Durbar medals—in all over five lakhs—was ungrudgingly undertaken by my office. The medals were much appreciated by the children and will remain a symbol of the gracious good will and favour of the Crown to its most distant and youngest subjects. Little bands of school boys from different districts had the privilege of attending the Imperial Durbar, and the detachments showed up well in their neat costumes and various coloured safas."

A special Muhammadan deputy inspector of Bombay remarks on the deep impression of love and loyalty evoked by the celebrations in Urdu schools. The boarders of one of the schools for depressed classes in the same
presidency were taken to Bombay on the occasion of Their Imperial Majes-
ties' arrival at the expense of a private individual. And throughout the
whole country the royal visit was celebrated in schools with the utmost
enthusiasm.

His Imperial Majesty while in India gave emphatic and practical
assurance of his interest in the educational welfare of his subjects. The
grants announced at the Royal Durbar have been followed by other liberal
allocations.
CHAPTER IV.
CONTROLLING AGENCIES.

I.—General.

69. The control of education in India is somewhat complicated. There is a department of education in the Government of India, and there are departments of public instruction in the provinces. These are charged with the work of education. It must not, however, be supposed that their administrative powers are unlimited, still less that they are the main agency for imparting instruction. Each department is subject to the government, and its operations are co-ordinated with the general policy of government. Subject to this general condition, each department under a Local Government advises as to educational needs, administers the funds allotted, inspects, examines, disburses grants-in-aid, frames rules and enforces them, prescribes curricula and maintains a few educational institutions. But its controlling powers are shared, in the matter of higher education, by the university, and, mainly in the matter of elementary education, by the civil authorities and the local and municipal boards. The great majority of institutions are maintained by the boards or by private agencies. The latter may receive aid either from the department or from the board. This chapter contains a brief description of these authorities.

70. The formation during the quinquennium of a department of education in the Government of India was a signal recognition of the importance which this branch of public business is beginning to assume. The new department was created in 1910 and got to work in the beginning of 1911. Education had previously competed for the attention of the Home Department along with a host of other subjects. The department of education also, besides its main business, deals with sanitation, local self-government, ecclesiastical matters, archaeology and museums. The post of Director General of Education in India has been abolished, or rather absorbed into the new department, which comprises, besides the Member of Council, two secretaries and an assistant secretary.

71. Each province has a department of public instruction, save the small province of Coorg, where inspection, etc., is managed from Madras. In January 1911 a department was formed in the North-West Frontier Province, where previously the cares of archaeology and education were combined in the same office; and the inspecting agency, etc., had been included in the Punjab service. A director has now been appointed for the North-West Frontier Province and Baluchistan; and, at the conclusion of the quinquennium, proposals had been submitted for a separate cadre of officers.

A provincial department consists of a director of public instruction, a certain number of inspectors with their staff, professors of colleges and teachers in schools. The director administers the department. The question was discussed during the quinquennium whether he should be given the status of a secretary to government (in the Punjab he already is an under secretary), and was decided in the negative mainly because it was deemed advisable to leave him unfettered in his capacity of an administrative and inspecting officer supervising the work of the department and moving about among educational institutions. The inspectors, professors and teachers are grouped in various services. The teachers are mainly employed in the higher institutions, and, even here, represent but a small part of the total number, the majority being in private employ, while nearly all the teachers of primary schools are board or municipal servants or work in aided institutions.

II.—The services.

72. The services in which these officers are placed are the Indian educational service, the provincial educational service, the subordinate and the services.
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lower subordinate service. Some hold posts outside any service. The existence of the two higher services in their present form dated from 1896. Up till that time, Europeans and a few Indians were classed together in a graded service (with increments of pay in each grade) rising from Rs. 500 to Rs. 1,500. Originally they all drew pay at the same rates according to their grade. During the time of Lord Ripon, the pay of Indians was reduced to two-thirds of that of Europeans in the same grade. The Public Services Commission of 1886-87 resulted in the formation of provincial services. The reorganisation was not carried out till 1896, and virtually resulted in the separation of Europeans and Indians. The former are generally placed in the Indian educational service, the qualification for which is recruitment in England by the Secretary of State—a mode of appointment open to Indians but applied to them only three times since the reorganisation. The latter are placed in the provincial service; and here the separation is not so complete, for this service contains a certain number of Europeans recruited in India. This distinction has given rise to comment. The improvement of the terms of both the Indian and provincial educational services (including the desirability of making promotions from the latter to the former) has for some time been under consideration by the Government of India and Local Governments, but (save for the introduction of some temporary though by no means unsubstantial measures of alleviation) has been held in abeyance pending the deliberations of the Royal Commission on the Public Services in India now sitting. The principle of this division of services rests on the method of recruitment.

The provincial service was intended to represent side by side with the Indian educational service the highest class of employment open to natives of India. Both of these branches, that recruited in England and that recruited in India, together form the superior service of the education department, the difference between them being not in status or duties, but in the conditions of employment as regards pay, leave and service for pension.

73. The conditions of the Indian educational service are similar throughout India. Those of the locally recruited services vary from province to province. The following may be taken as a general description, allowance being made (save in the Indian educational service) for provincial variations:

(i) The Indian educational service is recruited by the Secretary of State in England and is composed almost entirely of Europeans. Its members fill the posts of inspectors, principals, professors and headmasters. Picked officers are made directors. The pay is Rs. 500 a month, rising after ten years to Rs. 1,000. There are also sixteen allowances of two grades (excluding four allowances for Chiefs' Colleges); the higher grade of allowance rises to Rs. 500 a month. Consolation allowances of Rs. 100 may be given if the salary of any officer has not, within that period, exceeded Rs. 1,000 a month. Exchange compensation is also given. The average emolument for officers on these terms is (on an actuarial calculation) Rs. 974. Directors are on special pay, the highest maximum being Rs. 2,500 a month. Full pension is ordinarily earned after 30 years' service and amounts to £437-10-0 a year. A director of approved service receives £529 a year. The terms for ladies are special; their pay is generally from about Rs. 300 to about Rs. 500 or Rs. 600 a month. Their pension is calculated according to pay.

(ii) The provincial service is recruited by the Local Governments and is composed mainly of Indians. It comprises inspectors, assistant and joint inspectors, principals, professors, headmasters of collegiate high schools, headmasters of some normal schools, etc. The arrangement of the services varies. In several provinces there is regular grading from Rs. 200 to Rs. 700 a month. The average pay is between Rs. 300 and Rs. 400, save in the Central Provinces where it is Rs. 273, and in Burma where it is Rs. 404 a month. Here also the service qualifying for full pension is 30 years. The maximum pension is Rs. 350 a month. It is calculated as usual on three years' average emoluments.

(iii) The subordinate service is similarly recruited by Local Governments and is composed almost wholly of Indians, filling the posts of deputy and
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sub-inspector, lecturer, headmaster, assistant teacher, etc. The formation varies greatly. In some provinces there are eight grades, ranging from Rs. 50 to Rs. 250 a month. (In the Punjab the service contains two posts on Rs. 400 a month.) These services contain very large numbers of officers.

(iv) The lower subordinate service exists only in certain provinces and contains officers of lower qualifications, generally on less than Rs. 50 a month. The average monthly pay in the subordinate and lower subordinate services taken together is Rs. 55 a month.

(v) Outside posts are generally created for officers performing special duties.

74. At the close of the quinquennium there are ten directors of public instruction. There are also (excluding the fourteen posts in Chiefs' Colleges) 75 officers in the Indian educational service, the average monthly pay being about Rs. 753 (less than the actuarial by reason of the fact that many officers have not reached the Rs. 1,000 grade). Of these, four are Indians. There are 380 officers in the provincial service (of whom 328 are Indians and some of the others members of the domiciled community); the average pay is Rs. 318 a month. The subordinate and lower subordinate services contain 7,511 officers (of whom 200 were Europeans or members of the domiciled community) drawing an average pay of Rs. 55 a month. There are also 465 ungraded posts (of which 43 are held by Europeans or members of the domiciled community) on an average pay of somewhat over Rs. 75 a month; and 104 posts which cannot be classified (of which 90 are held by Indians) on an average pay of slightly over Rs. 152 a month. The total number of officers in these services is thus 8,945.

75. The conditions of service in the education departments have been under discussion during the quinquennium. Among the questions that have come forward are the scale of pay and the number of years qualifying for pension in the Indian educational service, the slowness of promotion and the impossibility of advancement beyond the highest grade in the provincial service. The solution of these problems, as stated above, has had to be postponed, temporary measures of relief being devised for the provincial service. In some provinces, too, improvement has been found essential in the subordinate services.

Generally speaking the scale of pay is low; and the grading, inferior to that worked out by Sir David Barbour, affords tardy promotion. In 1904, the Government of India suggested in connection with the reform of secondary education a minimum salary for teachers of English of Rs. 40 rising to Rs. 400 in the case of headmasters of high schools. The Local Governments have presented schemes of improvement. The following have been under consideration or sanctioned during the quinquennium. The Government of Madras have proposed to raise the pay of assistant masters; but the scheme has not yet been sanctioned. In Bombay the pay of headmasters has been revised at a cost of Rs. 16,560 a year; at the close of the period, a scheme for raising the pay of assistant teachers was recommended, at an annual cost of Rs. 31,140, and sanction has since been accorded. In Bengal the terms of the lower subordinate service have failed to give satisfaction. The committee which met in Calcutta in 1908 to consider secondary education made recommendations for the amelioration of the lower services in that province and in Eastern Bengal and Assam and improvements are understood to be under consideration. The provincial and subordinate services in Eastern Bengal were, during the period, separated from those in Bengal and combined with the Assam officers, with beneficial results to those included in them. But the lower subordinate service of Eastern Bengal was deemed so unsatisfactory that it was decided not to include in it the corresponding officers in Assam. The rates of pay for high school teachers in the United Provinces have been raised; the additional cost of Rs. 1,10,358 a year includes the expense of increasing the staff as well as the pay. The prospects of the subordinate service in the Punjab have been improved at a cost which will eventually rise to Rs. 91,820 a year. A scheme has been drawn up for Burma and is under consideration. The administration of the Central Provinces presented an exhaustive scheme for the complete reorganisation of the upper subordinate
service at an annual cost of Rs. 36,012 and the formation of a lower subordinate service at an annual cost of Rs. 2,95,200; sanction has since been given as funds may permit. Changes and additions have also been sanctioned in the service in the North-West Frontier Province which will cost Rs. 16,636 a year.

76. These services, however, form but a small section of the host of teachers, who number 215,518. Of these only 7,598 are in government service; 51,979 are in the employ of boards, 9,121 in that of municipal bodies and 146,820 belong to privately managed schools. The conditions upon which the last three classes work are less favourable than in the case of government servants. This will have been gathered as regards primary teachers from the fact that part of the present policy is the raising of the minimum pay for those who are trained to Rs. 12 a month. But the principal disqualification is the general (though not universal) want of some provision for old age. Government servants look forward to their pension. In some areas board school teachers also have pensions. But, generally speaking, these and teachers in private employ have no prospect of pension and no contribution fund. This is a matter in which reform is urgently called for.

III.—Inspection.

77. The inspecting agency is, with minor exceptions, included in the government services. Nomenclatures differ in different provinces. But the following rough generalisation (with exceptions, some of which will be noticed in appendix II) holds good throughout India. The director, besides administering the department, inspects colleges and, so far as possible, samples of other kinds of institutions. Inspectors, included in the Indian or provincial services, inspect high schools, training institutions, and samples of other institutions throughout a commissioner's division or a collection of districts. They are aided by assistant inspectors (in the provincial service) who are, in some provinces, specially charged with the supervision of middle schools. Deputy inspectors, who are generally found in the higher grades of the subordinate service, inspect middle and primary schools and the smaller training institutions throughout a district, or sometimes when the district is large, throughout a part of it. They are in close relation with the district magistrate (and to some extent subject to his orders) and with the district board. They are assisted by sub-inspectors, who are included in the subordinate service. In some provinces yet other inspecting agents are found—supervisors, inspecting pandits or sub-assistant inspectors. Thus a hierarchy of inspecting authorities is built up, mainly under the orders of the departments of public instruction, partly under that of the civil authorities.

78. In addition to the ordinary inspecting staff for boys' schools, there are now in most provinces inspectresses and female assistants for girls' schools, and also inspectors for European schools. The existence of such agencies is necessary to the welfare of the particular kind of institution concerned, and is much appreciated. There has been a tendency towards the establishment of inspecting posts for the supervision of technical and industrial schools or even towards the creation of separate departments of industry charged with the supervision of all or some of these institutions. In some provinces a special staff for the inspection of Muhammadan schools has been found necessary; and Bengal possesses special inspecting facilities for areas inhabited by aboriginals and hill tribes. It will be convenient to mention these inspectors in greater detail in the chapters dealing with the subjects concerned. But special inspectors for particular subjects in ordinary schools fall into a different category; and something will be said of them presently.

79. The total cost (excluding direction) of the inspecting agency is Rs. 40,85,834, being 5·2 per cent. of the total expenditure on education, and 7·6 per cent. of the direct cost. The percentage of their cost to the total cost in the various provinces is, in Madras 5·4, in Bombay 3·9, in Bengal 5·1, in the United Provinces 4·9, in the Punjab 4·2, in Burma 7·6, in Eastern Bengal and Assam 6·5, in the Central Provinces 6·4, in Coorg 4·8, in the North-West Frontier Province 2·9. The cost of inspection in any province obviously
depends not merely on the size and pay of the agency employed, but also upon the number of the schools and their efficiency as judged from the point of view of expenditure upon them. Where the average direct expenditure upon each institution is low, the proportion debitable to inspection must be relatively high. On the other hand, where schools are numerous, the cost of inspection per institution naturally falls. Conclusions drawn from the percentages just shown must be modified in the light of this consideration. A calculation has been made showing the cost per school of inspection and direction in each province from a comparison of which with the percentages three different cases arise. In the North-West Frontier Province, where, owing to the liberal scale on which schools are financed, the percentage of cost of inspection to educational expenditure is lowest, the cost of inspection and direction per institution is, by reason of the paucity of schools, far higher than in any other province, and actually amounts to two-fifths of the total average cost of an institution in Bengal. To a lesser extent, the same is the case in the Punjab, where the percentage is moderate, the cost per institution very high. A middle position is occupied by Burma and the Central Provinces, where both percentage and average cost are high by reason of the facts that schools are comparatively few and their scale of maintenance satisfactory. The opposite is the case in provinces which are thickly schooled, like Madras, Bengal and Eastern Bengal and Assam. In all these cases the percentage of the cost of inspection is high. But the cost per school (especially in the two Bengals) is lower than elsewhere. It may be noticed as a significant fact that the cost of direction and inspection per institution in the North-West Frontier Province is exactly six times what it is in Eastern Bengal and Assam.

80. The inspecting agency presents its own problems. A wise treatment of those problems and a well-thought-out organisation of the service reacts favourably upon the schools. The quinquennium has been marked by reform and duties. But in several matters reform is incomplete and questions are still outstanding.

81. In the matter of organisation, there has first been an increase in the number of inspectors and an effort to cover the area by the superior staff. The areas to be covered by the superior staff were obviously excessive. The number of institutions assigned, in some parts of the country, to the subordinate staff, is so great as to render effective inspection impossible. The changing ideas on the duties of inspectors and the recognition of instruction as a part of their work, have placed an additional strain upon the officers. In these circumstances, in the present condition of public opinion, with teachers who are largely untrained, committees that have not everywhere inspired confidence and schools isolated in remote places, the inspecting staff is still in many tracts inadequate, and is far from allowing one officer to every 80 or 100 schools, which is generally regarded as the maximum which he can manage. (As an example, it may be stated that the average number of schools in a sub-inspector's charge in each of the three divisions of Eastern Bengal is 185, 138 and 158 respectively.) On the other hand, increase of the lower staff is unavailing unless there are sufficient superior officers to supervise its operations.

82. Secondly, the broader duties assigned demand that a superior type of officer be attached to the service. In some provinces, the subordinate inspecting staff had not the status and privileges of government servants; the inspecting staff had not the status and privileges of government servants; the period under review has seen the transfer of sub-inspectors in Bengal and Eastern Bengal and Assam and of supervisors of elementary schools in Madras; also the re-transfer to the department of deputy and sub-inspectors in the United Provinces. Previously these officers were the servants of local bodies. On the other hand, the inferior agencies in Burma and in Eastern Bengal and Assam are being abolished and replaced by better qualified and better paid officers.

83. Thirdly, efforts have been made to ensure better co-ordination. In the majority of provinces (exceptions are Madras, where there are no commissioners' divisions, and Burma, where the circles are still of excessive size) the inspector's circle now corresponds with a revenue division. Thus the commissioner has at hand an educational adviser. A broader view (already
in full existence in some provinces) is also taken of the duties of the inspector. His supervision is generally no longer confined to any special classes of schools. (In Eastern Bengal and Assam the inspector is specially responsible for high schools and training institutions, but is also required to visit a certain percentage of the middle, model girls' and primary schools of his circle.) He is the administrator throughout his circle; and measures of decentralisation have imposed upon him a heavier responsibility. This, however, involves assistance for the inspector. Hence in several provinces an assistant inspector is attached to him; and this practice is growing. In Bengal and Eastern Bengal some divisions require several inspectors. Thus fresh problems arise connected with the distribution of duties. These are solving themselves in different ways in different provinces. In Eastern Bengal the divisional inspector is in general charge of education throughout the division and of all large schemes, while the other inspectors have charge of certain areas under him. In Bengal a somewhat similar arrangement is being tried as an experimental measure. Still more difficult is the problem of those districts where the number of schools requires a strong staff and where the work of education is complicated. There the presence of an officer is needed who is qualified to advise the magistrate and the board, and to supervise his subordinates. It is in provinces like the Bengal that this difficulty is felt. And the point is forcibly brought out in the Bengal report. "The importance," writes Mr. Maclean, inspector in Orissa, "of these officers (deputy inspectors) has not been recognised. They are heads of the primary and middle school systems of the different districts, and manifold duties devolve on them; that of inspecting schools and the work of their subordinates; that of administration and correspondence; that of representing the department on the district boards, which is not one of the least responsible of their duties and will become more important as education develops. To perform these duties efficiently officials of the standing of the provincial service are required." Experience, says Mr. Prothero, shows that where additional deputy inspectors have been added to help deputy inspectors, they should not have been made co-ordinate with the latter. The deputy inspector has become only primus inter pares, his power is impaired, and responsibility, shared between different colleagues, is whittled away. It was to remedy this defect that the committee which, in 1908, considered secondary education in Bengal and Eastern Bengal and Assam, proposed a grade of officer to be called district inspector in the provincial educational service. In the meantime the general administration, as well as the inspection of the sadar sub-division, has been entrusted in Eastern Bengal to a district deputy inspector. The other sub-divisions are distributed to deputy inspectors, who are subordinate to the district deputy inspector and in whose charges he is required to tour for a certain number of days in the year. The United Provinces report also speaks of the growing importance of the deputy inspector as responsible to the chairman of the district board for the organisation and administration of vernacular education and as adviser to the board.

84. A fourth point, to which allusion has already been made, is the growing change in the method of inspection. "Examination," says Mr. Wright, "in secondary schools has given place to sensible inspection. In primary schools examination still retains pride of place. The time has not yet come when it can be wholly replaced by inspection and the transition must be gradually effected according to the growth of technical knowledge, and a sense of responsibility on the part of the masters." Moreover, inspection is now supplemented by advice and instruction.

85. This broader view, however, besides demanding a well qualified and intelligent officer in the lower ranks, opens up yet another question in regard to schools of higher grade. On the one hand, the exigencies of co-operation between the civil and the educational officers, the necessity for a wide administrative outlook and the dangers of departmentalism point to the territorial unit as the only possible unit of inspection. On the other hand, the more exacting duties of the inspector, the raising of standards and the appearance of new subjects of instruction conspire to make some kind of specialisation essential. The problem demands careful handling and has received it along three lines. First, there already existed special agencies for distinctly
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separate kinds of schools. These have now been extended. They embrace, as noticed above, girls' schools and schools for Europeans. The quinquennium has witnessed increase not only in the numbers, but also in the independence and responsibility of the inspectresses and their assistants. Secondly, schools which are a part of the general system but of a special type, have in some provinces been placed under special agencies. Thus, Madras, Bengal and the United Provinces have received during the period separate inspectors for technical and industrial schools. Madras and Burma have arranged for the supervision of normal schools by inspectors who also control European schools. (This is just a case where such special agencies are apt to run counter to the ordinary agency; and the system in Madras has undergone modification accordingly.) Arrangements have been made in certain areas for Muhammadan and aboriginal schools. These will be described in due course.

Thirdly, a need has arisen for inspectors of special subjects in the ordinary schools. In the United Provinces, a beginning was made with specialist inspectors in 1911. There are now four such inspectors in the provincial service, one for Sanskrit, one for Arabic and Persian, one for science and one for drawing and manual training. Where possible, they make joint inspections with the divisional inspector. But, as this is difficult to arrange, they spend most of their time in visiting schools alone, sending reports to the director and to the inspector, the latter of whom takes necessary action on them. “By this means,” says Mr. de la Posse, “aspects of school work, which did not always receive adequate attention, are now better looked into; approved methods of teaching are advocated, teachers stimulated and encouraged, and good work discriminated from bad. Improvements are certainly being effected by the efforts of these officers; but the most important work they have done is to bring to light the real state of tuition in these subjects of instruction. While this was imperfectly known, attempts at improvement were liable to be rather like groping in the dark.” In the Central Provinces a similar proposal has been made. The Government of the Punjab has proposed an inspector of drawing and manual training; and that of Madras wishes to create two instructors in the latter subject.

Finally, the quinquennium has seen the beginning of a demand for medical inspection—a matter in which India has hitherto been peculiarly backward. In the Bombay report the following remarks occur:—“With a few honourable exceptions in no school is there a systematic medical inspection of pupils. In England it has been recognised as being of vital importance and must eventually receive attention in India. A moment's reflection will show what immense good can be done by the detection and prevention of vicious tendencies, by care of the eyes and by precautions against fevers, and there are many other opportunities for useful action.” In the Punjab, too, attention has recently been directed to the prevalence of physical defects among school pupils. “Evidence collected in 1911 by Mr. Western, of the Cambridge Mission, and by Dr. Girishari Lal Batra, pointed to conditions of health which, though largely traceable to faulty home upbringing, might be within the power of school authorities to improve. The question was discussed at length in the last educational conference, which recommended the appointment of a school medical officer to visit all the board schools for the province to organise and co-ordinate enquiries. Meanwhile sporadic attempts have been made to collect information which may bring home to parents and others the need of taking reasonable precautions against ill-health and of arresting in good time tendencies which, if overlooked, may have serious future consequences. The Gurdaspur district board has appointed a medical officer to visit all the board schools and advise and report on the health of the pupils. The Health Officer at Amritsar has instituted a medical examination of school pupils in the town. A large number of pupils in the Lahore schools have been medically tested. Weight and measurements are regularly taken and recorded in many institutions. Definite results can hardly be looked for as yet, but the fact that public opinion is being aroused on this matter is a good augury for the future.” Two interesting notes on the subject accompany the director's report. The matter is one on which the recent resolution of the Government of India is emphatic, and it is to be hoped that, combined with instruction in educational hygiene, this branch will shortly see a distinct development.
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Details of provincial inspecting agencies.

(i) Civil officers.

87. Those who desire to pursue into detail the changes which have been made in different provinces during the quinquennium and the organisation and members of the provincial staffs, are referred to appendix II, to which is also attached a table showing the numbers of inspecting officers of various kinds in the provinces.

IV.—Other agencies.

(ii) Local bodies.

88. The civil authorities, as in general charge of all branches of administration in their jurisdictions, are concerned with education. More especially is the collector (or deputy commissioner) brought into contact with primary education through his relation with the board. The following description is taken from the Burma report:—"The commissioner or deputy commissioner respectively is responsible for the state of education in his division or district. His responsibility is exercised through the educational officers concerned and (except in municipal schools) is of a general nature, questions of appointment, curricula, forms and other technical matters being left to the education department. District and divisional officers are consulted in particular by the department in regard to the expansion of education, primary or secondary, the choice of schools and localities suitable for schools, the appointment of school committees and so forth. The educational sections of municipal and district cess fund budgets are supervised by these authorities, who, under government, determine the particular sums to be devoted annually from local funds to education in the areas concerned." Systems vary in different provinces. Where administrative problems are complicated and the work highly exacting, the civil officer has less time to give to educational problems, opportunities for mutual discussion are rarer, and action, not fully preconcerted, may eventuate in differences of opinion. On the whole, however (even where, as is frequently the case, the deputy inspector is partly the servant of the inspector, partly that of the magistrate), the participation of the executive and the educational officer in educational work is beneficial as well as necessary. Mr. Wright remarks that the dangers attendant on the system are obvious in theory. "In practice," he adds, "it works admirably. I know of no case of friction between a revenue officer and an officer of the department. A united desire to advance education is potent to disperse petty differences of opinion, and the influence on and direct stimulus to education that a deputy commissioner can bring to bear is very great. Both to deputy commissioners and to commissioners the department owes a debt for steady support and assistance in all branches of work. The advance of recent years could not have been effected without their cooperation." Sub-divisional officers, tahsildars and naib tahsildars frequently give valuable assistance in inspecting schools.

89. The bulk of elementary education is in the hands of municipal and district boards. Not only do they maintain schools; they also disburse grants to schools maintained by private bodies or persons. This responsibility is imposed on them by law and their power defined and limited by rules framed under the Acts.

The question of finance is of vital importance, but will be treated of in the chapter on primary education. Here it will suffice to say that some percentage of the income of a board, or the income derived from certain sources, or a sum fixed from time to time is to be expended on elementary education, that the officers of the departments generally scrutinise the educational portion of the board budgets, and that boards are not supposed to spend money on secondary education until the claims of primary education have been satisfied. As a matter of fact, municipal and district boards at present support 12 colleges, 1,220 secondary schools and 27,864 primary schools; and these figures exclude the schools which are aided from local funds. As regards control, the duties of the boards generally comprise the establishment, maintenance and closure of their own schools, the appointment and dismissal of staff and the disbursal of aid to privately managed schools. In the discharge of these functions they are guided by rules issued by the Local Governments under the Acts. Generally speaking, the closure of a school requires sanction by the department, or at least sufficient notice to permit of an appeal to the inspector. The curriculum is that prescribed by government. The scale of grant to aided institutions must generally be in accordance with the departmental
CONTROLLING AGENCIES.

37

rules. Adherence to these rules is secured by inspection. In Bengal, the United Provinces and Eastern Bengal and Assam part of the inspecting staff was, at the beginning of the period under review, in the service of the boards. As stated above, this has now been almost entirely changed. Furthermore, the deputy inspector is generally a member of the district board and is able to give advice and bring irregularities to notice. (Mr. Prothero notes that the deputy inspector of Murshidabad was excluded from the board in 1911-12, and comments on this fact.)

90. The rules differ in different provinces. In Madras the administrative powers vested in the local and taluk boards are extensive, those permitted to municipal boards are less so. In Bombay the municipal board has considerable freedom, while the administration of the local board schools is readily carried on by the department, which appoints and dismisses teachers, fixes their pay, etc. In Bengal the system of board schools is practically unknown and has only recently been initiated in Eastern Bengal, though it is prevalent in Assam; but the boards in the Bengal exercise considerable influence through the distribution of grants-in-aid. In the United Provinces and the Punjab there are many board schools and the boards have effective powers devolved upon them. In Burma there are no district boards; but municipal boards manage schools; and in Lower Burma a number of district cess schools have been opened under the joint management of the deputy commissioner and the department. In the Central Provinces the powers of the district councils (as they are there called) are similar to those held by the same bodies in other provinces, save that they are ordinarily required to employ certificated teachers and that the department exercises certain powers of punishment, dismissal and transfer. In the North-West Frontier Province also district and municipal boards manage schools. It should be explained that the district board or council exercises jurisdiction (as its name implies) over a district. In Assam the powers described above are vested in local boards, whose jurisdiction is conterminous with a sub-division of a district. In other provinces, the local or taluk boards are generally to a certain extent subordinate to the district board and exercise, in the matter of education, powers devolved on them by the latter.

91. A natural comment on board administration (which however should not necessarily apply to municipal boards) is that the members often have little or no knowledge of the villages where the schools are situated or the conditions and work of the schools themselves. Mr. de la Fosse, while dwelling on the value of inspection and the ounce of personal knowledge which is worth tons of written reports to the school administrator, and while admitting the display of increased energy on the part of members, states that this is due mainly to the credit of those who are officials. "Non-officials in some districts have shown commendable activity in this matter, but on the whole they interpret their duty with considerable latitude, and in some places do practically nothing at all. It is said that this apathy is especially characteristic of members who live in villages and who could do so much to help on education." The inspector of Agra has calculated that if the elected members had carried out the minimum duties required by the rules, their inspections would have numbered 2,126 instead of 614 in his division.

92. Private agencies are a factor of great importance in the educational system. They may be placed in three classes—European or American missions, Indian societies or committees, and individual managers who are generally themselves also the teachers in the schools.

93. The history of early mission effort has already been briefly indicated in this volume and is treated at greater length in Mr. Nathan's review for 1898-1902. "Missionary societies of all denominations," said Mr. Nathan, "have contributed to the work, and at the present day missions connected with the Church of England, with the Roman Catholic Church, with the Church of Scotland, with the Free Church, with the Wesleyan, with the Lutherans, with the Baptists and with other sects, have their schools for the instruction of Indian youth." Mission societies maintain colleges and secondary schools. Their work in establishing well-supervised hostels is particularly appreciated. They also maintain primary schools among special sections of the population—hill-tribes or backward classes. In the Khasi hills of Assam a Welsh
mission manages the great majority of the primary schools, receiving a lump grant from government. In the Punjab and elsewhere the Salvation Army is working among the depressed classes. And the Oxford Mission and other bodies are doing admirable work among the Namasudras. "The part played by mission agencies in Bengal," writes Mr. Prothero, "is increasing in efficiency and importance, especially in female education and in educational work among aboriginal races." Their work among low-caste children in the Central Provinces is commended. Further, a considerable number of European schools are under mission management. The work of these bodies constitutes an element of strength in the educational system of the country. They furnish a body of men, well-educated, imbued with fresh ideas from Europe or America, endowed with the missionary spirit, self-sacrificing, reliable. The early fears of proselytisation have vanished, and there are few parents whom religious scruples would deter from sending their children to a mission school. It would be difficult to imagine an agency more helpful to government, more trusted by the community and more wholesome in its educational influence.

94. Societies may be roughly classed as those which spread their influence over large areas and those that confine their operations to a single institution. To the former class belong the denominational bodies which have become a factor in the Punjab—the Arya Samaj, and the Chief Khalsa Diwan, etc. These support secondary and primary schools. To the latter belong local committees which generally devote themselves to maintaining a college or a high school. These institutions were often indistinguishable from schools run by the staff or others, as a commercial speculation for private profit. The Bengal report ventures the assertion that this is now largely a thing of the past.

95. Thirdly come the schools which are confessedly maintained by one or more members of the staff as a means of livelihood. Some secondary (probably a good many middle) schools still exist of this kind, with or without a fainéant committee. But the system chiefly obtains among small elementary schools. A teacher will set up in a village. He gathers together a few children into what is known as a 'venture' school. Sometimes the teacher proves inefficient, or the people are callous, and for this or some other reason the school perishes. If it continues, the deputy inspector takes notice of it and brings it to the attention of the board. The teacher then receives a small grant and subsists on this, the fees and such presents as he receives from the villagers. Thousands of elementary schools in the Bengal are of this type.

96. The institutions under private management comprise 120 colleges with 23,216 students, 4,594 secondary schools with 641,288 pupils, 91,476 primary schools with 3,070,823 pupils. These, together with other schools of various kinds, aggregate 101,705 institutions with 3,888,670 pupils. The numerical importance of these agencies may be gathered from Mr. Prothero's report—"Of the total number of educational institutions in Bengal which conform to recognised standards, 97.7 per cent. are under private management."

97. All these institutions, whatever the nature of their management, are eligible for grant provided they fill a need and serve a useful purpose. They are generally supported partly from public funds, partly from fees and subscriptions. The amounts contributed from these sources over a series of years are shown below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Grant from public funds</th>
<th>Fees</th>
<th>Subscriptions, endowments and other sources</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1896-97</td>
<td>Rs. 34,95,836</td>
<td>Rs. 47,26,172</td>
<td>Rs. 38,87,930</td>
<td>Rs. 1,14,70,664</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1891-92</td>
<td>Rs. 46,16,784</td>
<td>Rs. 59,65,225</td>
<td>Rs. 49,91,360</td>
<td>Rs. 1,55,73,369</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1896-97</td>
<td>Rs. 41,34,603</td>
<td>Rs. 58,35,274</td>
<td>Rs. 56,15,297</td>
<td>Rs. 1,55,85,164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1901-02</td>
<td>Rs. 45,84,375</td>
<td>Rs. 76,51,713</td>
<td>Rs. 67,56,551</td>
<td>Rs. 1,89,95,637</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1906-07</td>
<td>Rs. 72,85,071</td>
<td>Rs. 88,66,597</td>
<td>Rs. 77,05,372</td>
<td>Rs. 2,45,45,940</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1911-12</td>
<td>Rs. 97,96,271</td>
<td>Rs. 1,03,86,141</td>
<td>Rs. 1,09,49,457</td>
<td>Rs. 3,38,22,869</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
It is interesting to notice that the funds from each source have grown almost pari passu, and that in each case they have approximately trebled since 1887. "The schools," says Sir A. Bourne, speaking of privately managed secondary schools, "are much too apt to depend for their maintenance exclusively on fees and grants. Few of them are endowed in the sense that English educational foundations are so and none are largely endowed. In some cases the endowment fund is of the nature of floating capital liable to be drawn upon at any moment of emergency, however temporary. The absence of endowments makes the schools too dependent on their fee collections and obliges them to have in mind not so much an ideal of education as the demands of the pupils and their parents."

98. Privately managed institutions play a large part in higher education. Some of them are highly satisfactory—some are not. The Lieutenant-Governor of the Punjab sounds a note of warning against the tendency on the part of certain private institutions to sacrifice quality to quantity and to foster sectarian rivalries. "The report," runs the resolution, "shows that buildings are sometimes run up in a hurry, collapsing a little later. Pupils are attracted by various objectionable methods such as the inducement of a slack discipline. One school with accommodation for 250 boys was found to have 800. In another a class room fit for 18 or 20 was made to hold 50 boys." In the field of primary education, the aided system has proved, on the whole, a failure. The institutions thus maintained do not fulfil the conditions laid down in the despatch of 1854, and Mr. de la Fosse complains that the reality rarely possesses any resemblance to the ideal originally conceived. "The insufficiency of the management, the poor qualifications of the teacher, the wretchedness of the school room, the beggarliness or complete absence of equipment, the starvation wages of the teacher need no further illustration, unless the following touch from an inspection report of this year be added:—In some cases the teachers hold school at their own houses or in the chaupals, or set up a chappar outside the village by begging for some straw and collecting something from boys to defray the cost of making it."

99. The powers of the universities will be described in the ensuing chapter. As controlling agencies they are of high importance since they not only frame courses and conduct examinations for diplomas and degrees, and affiliate, inspect and disaffiliate colleges, but also prescribe the curricula in the upper classes of high schools which prepare for the matriculation examination and with certain limitations confer and withdraw recognition of those schools. Thus the universities exercise a large amount of influence upon the higher institutions of education, though the management of those institutions is mainly in the hands of private managers and to some extent in those of government. Their relation to the departments of public instruction is twofold. On the one hand, members of the departments are included (ex-officio and otherwise) in the governing bodies of the universities. On the other hand, the inspection of schools for purposes of recognition and the continuance of recognition is mainly conducted by the departmental officers, the recommendations of those officers are generally accepted, and the application for recognition ordinarily passes through the official channels or is returned to the department for report. The Madras University is exceptional; there recognition is the act of the department.

100. Among other bodies which control or advise the best known is the educational syndicate in Burma. This came into existence in 1881 and was a tional syndicate few years later incorporated under Act XXI of 1860. Under the rules of the syndicate, it consists of not more than 20 members. "This institution," says Mr. Coverton, "has continued to act throughout the quinquennium as a consultative council on educational questions, its advice being sought by government and the director of public instruction, and as a board of examinations. The only educational examinations undertaken by it are those of teachers and students desirous of obtaining certificates of proficiency in the theory of teaching. These examinations are carried out with the help of the department's personnel and selected heads or teachers of recognised schools. The
creation of a university for Burma will probably render necessary a revision of the constitution and position of the educational syndicate."

101. Governing bodies and committees are formed for the detailed control of individual institutions. These are of various kinds, according as they are formed for government or non-government schools, for higher or for elementary institutions. The establishment of governing bodies for colleges and managing committees for high schools is laid down in the Calcutta University regulations. In the mofussil colleges of Bengal, the governing bodies of government colleges are constituted of the commissioner and the district or sessions judge, the principal and the senior professor. In Calcutta government colleges the constitution varies. These bodies possess limited but independent powers of control. At the Presidency and Sibpur Colleges the scheme is being tried of giving them certain funds for disposal. In Eastern Bengal and Assam the governing bodies of government colleges are ordinarily composed of the divisional commissioner, the principal and the senior professor. The committees of privately managed institutions are variously constituted. There is a tendency to place primary schools under committees. Where the teacher is in effect the proprietor, these are of little avail or non-existent. Where the board school system is implanted, they are more effective, especially in the Central Provinces, where Mr. Wright says that they are usually considered useful. "Commendation is more general from Berar, where the power to use the income from fees, and to settle questions of discipline, and responsibility to a certain extent for the teacher's performance of his duties are highly appreciated and have produced a growing interest on the part of the members."

102. In some provinces there has been an attempt to place the organisation of girls' education or the management of girls' schools under committees largely composed of ladies. Eastern Bengal and Assam has a standing committee for the province, which gives advice to government. In the Central Provinces "a beginning has been made in the formation of school committees composed of European and Indian ladies who take an active interest in the local girls' schools."

103. Visiting committees also exist for certain classes of institutions—generally those of a special kind. In Bengal, a wide application has been attempted of this system. "These committees," says the report, "whose functions are purely advisory, were constituted by government resolution in 1903, and the system has been extended to secondary schools under boards. The inspectors of Patna, Bhagalpur, and Orissa agree that these committees are of little practical use. The report of the inspector of the Presidency division on this point is colourless, and merely gives numerical details of the meetings. The Burdwan divisional report gives no opinion as to the merits of these committees. There is no question that these bodies might do very useful work if they performed the duties assigned to them; the difficulty apparently is to induce them to take an interest in their work." Another experiment in Bengal, which does not appear to have been attended with success, is the formation of district committees of public instruction. Those which were constituted appear to have done nothing, and, writes Mr. Prothero, "under these circumstances it has been decided to abolish these institutions, and only formal orders are awaited on the subject."

104. Text-book committees, though their functions are mainly advisory, exercise a very considerable control over an important branch of educational work. They will receive treatment in chapter XXII.
CHAPTER V.

UNIVERSITIES.

1.-General.

105. The five Indian universities are incorporated bodies owing their Character of constitution and powers to Acts of the legislature. The Calcutta University the univer- and those of Bombay and Madras were incorporated in 1857, the Punjab sities. University in 1882, and the University of Allahabad in 1887. Each university is, in the main, the examining body for a number of affiliated colleges, amounting, in the case of Calcutta, to 56. The principal examinations are the matriculation which admits pupils into colleges, and the intermediate and bachelorship examinations which are held ordinarily at the conclusion of the second and the fourth years of a student's career.

106. The Indian Universities Act of 1904 largely added to and partially The Act of repealed the previous laws on the subject. The passage of that Bill through the Imperial Legislative Council was a stormy one. Even now, when the gloomy prognostications then expressed have been falsified, it is sometimes asserted that the Act officialised the universities, whereas, as pointed out by Mr. Orange, it increased the proportion of elected Fellows in each senate save that of Allahabad. The Act regularised—it did not official­ise. On the contrary, the universities have been stronger and more independ­ent bodies since it was passed. For they found themselves endowed with two new powers—organised control over the constituent colleges (which before had been lacking) and functions of teaching, especially of higher teaching. Furthermore, the government demonstrated its good-will towards them by Lord Curzon's grants in 1904-05 of five lakhs (to be partially utilised for privately managed colleges) and again by assistance in 1912 amounting to sixteen lakhs non-recurring and three lakhs recurring.

107. The past five years have witnessed a striking development, made possible and suggested by the Act of 1904, along lines which will be described in detail later in this chapter. As regards the governing bodies, that Act reduced the number of Fellows, insisted on a strong educational element, set a limit to the period of office, penalised neglect of duty (where formerly a fellowship was too often regarded as a dignified but sinecure title), and introduced an organised system of election. The elective element has now been more widely introduced—or rather based upon a broader electorate. Interest has been stimulated in the educational activities of the senates. And the independence of those bodies has grown. The influence of the central organisation over its colleges has been strengthened through a more strict and orderly system of affiliation. Inspection by the university has rendered that system effective and has introduced a unifying bond among the colleges. Discrimination has been exercised in the granting of affiliation to colleges in different subjects. As regards the courses, the quinquennium has seen their enrichment by the inclusion of new subjects; Bombay has established a degree in commerce; Madras has framed oriental courses; the creation of a medical faculty at Allahabad has given an impetus to the study of biology. At the same time specialisation is becoming more and more a feature, notably in the faculties of medicine and engineering. There is a tendency to prescribe correlated schools of study—a change which is visible in several of the universities and notably at Bombay. Detailed syllabuses are taking the place of mere prescription of examination subjects. There has been some adoption of the system of tests by compartments. As to university teaching, the movement continues in some provinces of partially concentrating instruction in law at central institutions under the direct management of the universities. At Calcutta a system of post-graduate lectures has been built up at the headquarters of the university for instruc­tion up to the mastership degree, and affiliation to that degree has been
allowed (and that in but few subjects) to only two colleges outside the
metropolis. Allahabad has added to the facilities for M.A. study by
organising courses and instruction in economics and Latin. A still higher
grade of teaching with a view to stimulating original research has been
fostered by a few appointments of specialising professors. The new respon­
sibilities in this respect which the Act devolved upon universities have thus
not been neglected. But want of funds for founding chairs and the uncer­
tainty of any openings commensurate with the time and labour necessitat­
ed by higher study and research are still a drag on this form of university
activity. The recent grants made by the Government of India and private
liberality will help to remove the former obstacle; the latter will gradu­
ally vanish with the growth of culture and the demand for specialisation which
inevitably arises with the advance of education to higher levels and the
development of scientific pursuits. There has been remarkable activity in
building; and the universities are now generally possessed of worthy habita­
tions, though much still remains to be done in this direction and in the supply
of fully equipped libraries.

108. The statistical advance of the universities during the quinquennium
is briefly as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1906-07*</th>
<th>1911-12†</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Colleges</td>
<td>176</td>
<td>179</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pupils</td>
<td>18,901</td>
<td>36,583</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passes at the B.A. examination</td>
<td>1,683</td>
<td>2,115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passes at the B.Sc. examination</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>280</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University expenditure</td>
<td>Rs. 10,38,312</td>
<td>Rs. 14,16,734</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The large increase of pupils and passes testifies to the growing demand
for higher education. This has been met without sensibly enhancing the
number of colleges. But the size and efficiency of the institutions have
increased; and it is in connection with them rather than the universities that
advance in cost will be shown.

109. Such in outline has been the progress of the universities under the
stimulus of the reforms of 1904. Those reforms have proved fruitful and
have been more than justified. Their limitations were obvious even to those
who carried them through. Witnesses before the Commission of 1902 urged
the creation of additional universities. This, carried to its logical conclusion
—the adoption of a system of self-contained local universities—appeared to
involve either a multiplication of centres incompatible with efficiency or a
concentration which would have left outlying colleges stranded and would
have aroused the strongest opposition. Neither course appeared practical,
and (in the words of Mr. Orange) "the principle of the federal university
which examines those whom it has not taught received, by the Act of 1904,
a new lease of life." But, with the rapidly growing interest now evinced
in higher education, it was impossible that an ideal abandoned in England
and elsewhere should remain unchallenged in India. The quinquennial
report from Bengal strikes this note in pointing out that the present type of
university can more easily insist upon a uniform standard of attainments
among its students but tends to grow too big for efficient control. "A local
university," runs the passage, "is more adaptable to local ideals, and can more
easily provide for local requirements. The numbers are more manageable
and allow of greater individual attention to the students on the part of the
professors. It can more easily fulfill teaching as well as examining functions
It can more easily be made residential, thus ensuring that the students should
come under the influence of the university throughout their college life, and

* Figures taken from the reports of Directors of Public Instruction.
† Figures taken from reports furnished by the universities and from the calendars. The term
"College," as here used, includes certain schools and classes, and hence the number differs from the
total shown in para. 147. The details are explained in the footnotes to page 59.
not only in the lecture room. The local university can appeal more strongly to the benevolence of local men. The peculiar danger it is subject to is the tendency to the lowering of university standards, but this can be guarded against by constant watchfulness on the part of government and public opinion." However much the Indian university may be improved along its present lines, it possesses inherent defects. Effort is dissipated. A concentrated scholastic atmosphere is wanting. A widespread organisation worked from a single centre makes for monotony. Where the university is not an organic whole, it lacks the volume of thought and the resultant originality which strikes out new lines. It tends to become conventional and imitative. And the same spirit is noticeable in its constituent colleges. The President of Magdalen has told us that a university does best work which "finds itself," which develops its own special advantages, which hears and follows its own inspiring call. Furthermore, the affiliated institutions necessarily vary enormously in efficiency and tone (as a consideration of the comparative cost of educating their students sufficiently shows); and their number and variety make inevitable the adaptation of the standard to the weaker members.

110. The same critical spirit which has recently urged an examination of Growth of new ideals the London University, has applied itself to Indian universities, which were founded on its model. It has taken different forms. First, the Muhammadans and the Hindus have collected funds for institutions of a denominational type. Second, there is a growing desire for federal or affiliating universities of smaller jurisdiction. "In Burma the movement for the creation of a local university has revived. "An important question at issue," says the director, "has been the type of university which should be adopted. A draft scheme in which a modification of the prevailing Indian type of federal university was adumbrated met with considerable criticism in the press as well as at a general meeting of educationalists and others convened in February 1910 by the educational syndicate. That meeting however having decided nem. con. in favour of a local university, the question of type was further examined by the educational syndicate through special sub-committees. A second draft was then elaborated in which a compromise between the Indian federate and the British unicollegiate types was recommended. The resultant institution was to be a genuine teaching university composed of at least two constituent colleges and with a system of inter-collegiate lectures and provision for hostels, the government college however being treated par excellence as the central and chief institution of the university round which the future accretions would gather." The Lieutenant-Governor considers that Burma should eventually have its own university but that there is no immediate urgency. Meanwhile, a similar idea is being mooted at Patna. Mr. Wright reports that there is a general and strong feeling that the time has come when an independent university is required to satisfy the needs of the Central Provinces. "Distance makes adequate representation impossible on the Allahabad Senate. Nor are our needs similar to those of the predominant partner in that body. Above all the necessity imposed upon our colleges and high schools of conforming to the requirements of a foreign university takes out of the hands of the administration the direction and regulation of secondary education." The resolution states that the Chief Commissioner has every sympathy with the demand for a Central Provinces university both from the practical as well as from the sentimental point of view. Thus the idea of establishing new universities of some sort has formulated itself in three of the provinces where at present there is no separate institution of this kind. In Assam and the North-West Frontier Province the number of colleges or local conditions are not yet such as to demand a change. Third, a clear pronouncement on the subject of an altogether novel type of institution was made by the Viceroy at Dacca early in 1912, when he declared the intention of founding there a local teaching and residential university—a scheme which has since been worked out by an influential committee. The two impracticable alternatives alluded to above are not exhaustive. It is possible (and indeed necessary) to maintain the old affiliating universities while reducing their unwieldy jurisdiction by the establishment in different provinces of new universities of a kindred type; and at the same time to found here and there, in promising centres, universities of a kind more congruous with present-day conditions.
111. The Chancellor of the Calcutta University is the Governor General in India. At other universities this position is occupied by the head of the provincial government within whose jurisdiction is situated the headquarters of the university. The head of the government in Bengal is Rector of the Calcutta University—an arrangement whereby he enjoys a special rank in the university of his province and special opportunities of making known his views. The Vice-Chancellor is the executive officer. He is nominated for two years by the Governor General in Council or the Governor in Council in the three older universities, by the Chancellor in the two younger. He holds his office for two years. At the end of the period the Vice-Chancellors were— at Calcutta Sir A. Mukherji, at Bombay Sir N. Chandavarkar, at Madras Sir J. E. P. Wallis, in the Punjab Dr. J. C. R. Ewing, at Allahabad Sir H. G. Richards. All these are High Court Judges save Dr. Ewing, who is head of a mission college.

112. The governing body of the university is the senate. The senate is composed of the Chancellor, the Vice-Chancellor, the Rector (at Calcutta) and two classes of Fellows, (a) Ex-officio fellows.—These number at Calcutta ten, at Bombay six, at Madras six, in the Punjab three (to whom may be added representatives of Chiefs), at Allahabad four. They include the Chief Justice or Chief Judge of the High or Chief Court where the university is situated, the Bishop of the diocese, the civil ordinary members of the Council of the Governor General (at Calcutta), the ordinary members of the Council of the Governor (at Bombay and Madras) and the local director of public instruction (at Calcutta the directors in Burma and Assam and at Allahabad the director in the Central Provinces are also added). This is the constitution of the ex-officio fellowships in the schedules to the Act. The personnel can be changed by notification. At Calcutta the director of Eastern Bengal and Assam took the place of the Assam director; and the formation of the new department of education involved a slight change in the schedule, (b) Ordinary fellows.—The number of these may not be less than fifty, or more than one hundred, in the three older universities; in the two younger universities the minimum is forty and the maximum seventy-five. In the former, ten are elected by registered graduates, and ten by the faculties, while eighty are nominated by the Chancellor. In the universities of the Punjab and Allahabad, as the Act originally stood, ten are elected by the senate or by registered graduates, five are elected by the faculties and sixty are nominated by the Chancellor. The senates contain a large professional element. Not less than two-fifths of those elected by the faculties or nominated by the Chancellor must be engaged in the profession of education. The number of Europeans and Indians generally about balances. During the quinquennium election by the senate in the Punjab was changed to election by the registered graduates; and, by an amendment to the Act (Act XI of 1911), it has been laid down that in the case of the Allahabad University election may be wholly or partially by the senate or by registered graduates. Fellows, whether elected or nominated, hold office for five years.

The senate deals with the more important business of the university and pronounces on the principles which are to guide its policy. The affiliation and disaffiliation of colleges, the regulations and their amendments and the conferment of degrees are considered at its meetings—subject, in the first two cases, to the sanction of the government.

113. Each member of a senate is assigned to one or more faculties. The faculties have power of election to certain vacancies on the senate and on the syndicate; they ordinarily appoint boards of studies and can in some cases add to their number specialists in the subject with which they deal who are not connected with the university. There is a board of studies for each principal branch of knowledge. These boards recommend courses of study and text-books and nominate examiners for the consideration of the syndicates.

114. Since the senates are large (though less so than before the legislation of 1904) they cannot be utilised as executive bodies. Hence in each university many matters are delegated to the syndicate, which forms the executive of the university and a very important factor in its constitution. The preparation
of subjects of discussion for submission to the senate, the appointment of examiners, the recognition of high schools, and other questions of administration are transacted by the syndicate. But its actions are subject to discussion in the senate. The syndicate consists of not less than 9 and not more than 17 members, and in the case of the Allahabad University not less than 10 and not more than 18 members. Of these the Vice-Chancellor and the local director of public instruction (and at Allahabad the director in the Central Provinces) are *ex-officio* members; the others are elected by the senate, the faculties, or both. Half of those elected must be heads or professors of colleges, while at Allahabad these must be in an actual majority.

115. Such are the controlling bodies of the universities. They are *functions* assisted in some cases by special committees framed for discharging certain *university functions*. As an example may be mentioned the students' residence committee at Calcutta. Each university also has a registrar, who, with his office, disposes of business and issues the orders of the senate or the syndicate. Apart from minor domestic matters such as the appointment and control of their own staff, the main duties of the university bodies thus constituted may be classed as follows: 

(i) They recognise schools and hold matriculation examinations for the pupils of those schools and for private candidates. 
(ii) They affiliate colleges, inspect them, and conduct the diploma and degree examinations for admission to which the students of those colleges and private students are eligible. 
(iii) They maintain in certain instances their own collegiate institutions and make provision for university teaching in post-graduate and higher studies. 

In the performance of all these functions they are guided by their own regulations. These regulations were originally framed by the universities who also make changes in them. The original regulations required, and any modification also requires, the approval of the government concerned. Separate sections of this chapter will deal with courses, examinations and degrees and with university teaching. It remains to give here some brief account of the relations of the universities with schools, and the affiliation and inspection of colleges.

116. The universities are empowered under the Act to regulate the conditions to be complied with by schools desiring recognition for the purpose of presenting candidates for matriculation. This power is not exercised at Madras, where the recognising authorities are the director of public instruction and (outside British territory) the durbars of feudatory states. At the other universities recognition is the act of the syndicates. The University of Allahabad occupies in this respect a kind of intermediate position since the application for recognition is made through the department of public instruction, which also conducts the initial (but not necessarily subsequent) enquiries. In the other universities the school management may make direct application and it rests with the syndicate to accept the report of the government inspector or to make investigation through other competent persons. The arrangement at Madras is that recommended by the Indian Universities Commission of 1902, whose views on the subject, however, were not accepted by the framers of the Act.

117. The universities conduct their own matriculation examinations. These will be described in chapter VII. It may here be stated that there is a movement on the part of the universities to recognise as equivalent to the matriculation, the various forms of school leaving tests which are springing up in India. School final or school leaving certificate examinations and the senior Cambridge local examination are largely accepted by the universities as equivalent to their matriculation examination. The other examinations so recognised are the London matriculation examination by the Calcutta University, the Oxford senior local examination by the Universities of Bombay and the Punjab and the diploma of Chiefs' colleges within their jurisdiction by the universities of Allahabad and the Punjab.

118. Those who, having matriculated, desire to present themselves for examination by a university and thus obtain a diploma or a degree must have undergone a course of study at an affiliated institution. Exceptions are made, on the recommendation of the syndicate, by special order of the senate, in accordance with the regulations framed by each university. Affiliation is no longer (as was the case before the Act of 1904) granted en bloc, but by
faculties or subjects, and also up to different stages in each faculty or subject. It is thus of two kinds—an institution hitherto unaffiliated must seek affiliation de novo in a certain number and grade of courses; an institution already affiliated, but desirous of adding other subjects to those which it now offers, or carrying the student in any course up to a higher stage than has hitherto been permitted to it, must show its ability to do so and thus obtain a further measure of affiliation. The procedure in both cases is the same and is laid down in the Act of 1904. The college must apply to the university and satisfy the syndicate that it is under the management of a regularly constituted governing body, that its finances are sound, that its affiliation and its fee-rates will not, by undue competition, injure neighbouring institutions to the detriment of education and discipline, that the buildings are suitable, that there is a library, that reasonable provision is made for the residence on the spot of the principal and some members of the staff, and that the science laboratories and the arrangements for the residence of students conform to the requirements of the regulations. The syndicate then depute an authority to make a local inquiry, after which they report to the senate who, if necessary after further inquiry, record their opinion. The whole of the proceedings are then submitted to the government who grant or refuse the affiliation sought in whole or in part. The procedure for disaffiliation is similar, save that the initiative is taken by a member of the syndicate, who must give notice of a proposal for withdrawal of privileges from the institution concerned and state his reasons for introducing it. These are made known to the college, with a view to affording it the opportunity of submitting a representation. The syndicate consider the proceedings and if necessary order a local inquiry. They then report to the senate. When that body has recorded its opinion, the whole proceedings must be submitted to the government who may if they desire make further inquiry and then pass such orders as they consider necessary.

119. The law also lays down that the syndicate shall cause colleges to be inspected, but does not specify the intervals after which inspection is necessary or the nature of the agency (save that it must consist of one or more "competent persons" authorised by the syndicate). At Calcutta the regulations prescribe inspection once a year, at Bombay at least once in three years, at Madras from time to time, in the Punjab once a year and at Allahabad at least once in five years. It is obvious that this is a very important function of the universities; for, though returns, notifications of changes of the staff, etc., are forwarded to the syndicate, personal investigation alone can show whether the general standard of efficiency is maintained at the level required for affiliation. For this, and for the inquiries relative to affiliation and disaffiliation, there is need of an inspecting agency. After the framing of the new regulations consequent on the Act of 1904 special steps were taken. The present arrangements for periodic inspection are as follows. The Calcutta University alone maintains a whole-time paid inspector. As he cannot be expected to have a special knowledge of the requirements of each subject taught, and for other reasons, the syndicate usually associate with him one or two local professors when he is visiting a college or a group of colleges. At Bombay a committee was nominated by the syndicate in 1909. Mr. Prior remarks of its work, "Criticism and appreciation of the respective shortcomings and merits of the institutions visited were put forward and welcomed or resented according as they were felt to be deserved or undeserved; many of the defects alluded to have been since remedied." After detailing some of the opinions of the committee, among which figures a serious complaint made regarding a certain college of the amount of time consumed in the rains by cricket competitions, he gives it as his view that this system of inspection is perhaps the best practicable. "It is open however to the objection that the members of the committee without any conscious bias may take too harsh a view of the shortcomings of rival institutions, but deal too tenderly with those of their own, while constructive criticism might be taken to pledge the members of the committee to more than they could undertake themselves." At Madras a representative body was created after the Act of 1904, which by reason of its composition carried great weight. In the Punjab the inspection of each affiliated college has been performed annually by small committees of from two to four members appointed by the syndicate. The committees are
generally composed of members of the syndicate who are either engaged in actual teaching work or are otherwise specially qualified to judge of the special activities of particular colleges. A secretary to these committees also visits all colleges and is thus enabled to present a comparative report. "This method of inspection," says the university report, "is found to work admirably in practice, and as a direct result an all-round improvement in every department of college life and activity is everywhere visible. College authorities welcome the inspection committee as a body of experts able and willing to advise on methods of instruction, on matters of college discipline, and on special problems and difficulties which particular institutions may encounter, while the members of the committees themselves gain experience from the observation of college work in varying circumstances and conditions." At Allahabad a board of ten inspectors was constituted. It was felt that one man was not competent to deal satisfactorily with all the aspects of college work, that the representations of a body would carry greater weight than those of an individual, that there should be room for the participation of different colleges in a work in which all were interested, and that a limited tenure of office would prevent the board from becoming the preserve of a clique. "There were some," says Mr. de la Fosse, "who suspected evil in what they feared might become a system of meddling or espionage; others disliked it as a new-fangled measure calculated to lower the dignity of university education. All such misgivings have been falsified and no one now, who has had experience of it, doubts the value of the visits of the board. ** * * * * All the colleges have been inspected at least once during the quinquennium and some two or three times. This work has been done with tact and thoroughness and above all with good-will. The colleges have felt that they have been helped as well as criticised, and if the syndicate has had to apply both the curb and the spur it has resulted in no lasting resentment." The arrangements made in various universities differ considerably. They are shaped largely in accordance with the number of institutions, the supply of men available for inspection and the existing facilities for getting about the country. The almost universal opinion is that inspection has been successful. It has led to improvements in the colleges and has tightened the bonds of unity between them.

120. It may be added, in this connection, that the universities frame (e) Control of regulations touching the transfer, conduct, punishment and residence of students in affiliated institutions. These regulations differ in respect of detail.

121. It will have been gathered from the foregoing paragraphs that the power of the universities is to some extent limited. First, the Chancellor has, in the two younger universities, the privilege of nominating the Vice-Chancellor; in all universities he nominates a considerable number of the fellows, approves the election of fellows, can declare vacant the office of any ordinary fellow who does not attend a meeting other than convocation during a year, and can (sometimes under restrictions) cancel a fellowship; and, as will presently be seen, he confirms honorary degrees. Other powers are exercised by the government, i.e., in the case of Calcutta by the Government of India, in the case of other universities by the Local Government within whose jurisdiction is situated the headquarters of the university. In the three older universities, the Governor General or the Governor in Council nominates the Vice-Chancellor. The list of offices carrying ex-officio fellowships may be changed (provided the maxima allowed by law are not exceeded) by government notification. The bestowal and withdrawal of affiliation rest with them; the university can record its opinion, but the government pronounces the verdict. The making or modification of regulations must receive the approval of government. Finally, at Calcutta, the sanction of the Governor General in Council is required to the appointment of university professors, readers and lecturers. The independence of the universities, however, is secured in various ways. The authority nominating to the senate is bound by the law to select not less than two-fifths of his nominees from among persons following the profession of education—a rule which considerably narrows choice. Nor has the government any power of initiative in the matter of disaffiliation of colleges, the alteration of regul
lations once passed, or the addition of new regulations. And (save as specified above) it has no power in the recognition of schools or its withdrawal. This last point is peculiar, since it gives the university a measure of control over high schools (a class of institutions intimately connected with the general school system) which, in the case of colleges, rests with the government. Above all, the powers of framing courses and conducting examinations are of the highest importance and affect large numbers of institutions spread over wide areas. There are few, if any, universities in the world which exercise so far-flung an influence as does the Calcutta University, with its 56 affiliated colleges and its jurisdiction over an area of 491,000 square miles and a population of nearly 104,000,000.

III.—Courses, examinations and degrees.

The faculties.

122. The three older universities possess the faculties of arts, law, medicine and engineering. Calcutta also separated the faculty of science from that of arts in its new regulations. The Punjab University has arts, science, law, medicine and oriental studies; it has combined engineering (in which only a licentiate is offered) with science. Allahabad has arts, science, law and medicine—the last recently added.

The courses.

123. Under these faculties are combined various courses. At Bombay and Madras the science courses (which at Madras have no separate nomenclature) are arranged under the faculty of arts. Every university save Bombay offers a course subsequent to graduation and leading up to a second degree or a licence for the preparation of teachers. The faculty of medicine now includes various courses, such as public hygiene. Bombay offers degrees in agriculture and commerce—the latter recently instituted. Madras and the Punjab confer oriental titles. The arrangements made for courses, examinations and degrees will be found in detail in the diagrams and appendices in volume II of this review. The second of these appendices shows the subjects taken in the arts and science graduate courses. It will suffice here to give a general outline.

The arts and science courses are open to candidates immediately after they have matriculated and lead after two years to an intermediate examination and after a further two years to a degree examination. Yet another one or two years lead to an examination for the degree of M.A. or M.Sc. After an interval the doctorate is obtained by presentation of a thesis to which is added in some cases the passing of an examination. The study of law commences after graduation in arts or science and continues two or three years before the bachelorship in law can be obtained. There are further degrees of master and doctor of law. The medical courses begin generally after the intermediate stage—earlier at Calcutta and Bombay. They lead first to the bachelor's degree; after which practice in the profession and examination earn the doctorate in medicine or some distinctive degree in surgery, hygiene etc. The course for the degree of bachelor of engineering commences generally (but not always) after the intermediate. The Punjab University offers only a licentiate obtainable two years after matriculation. The Punjab University has a complete course, parallel with the arts course, in oriental studies, and maintains an Oriental College, which endeavours to carry out the dissemination of western knowledge through the medium of the local vernaculars and the encouragement of the study of classical and vernacular languages. "To these ends," says the report of the university, "the work of the college is planned on a double basis, one leading to degrees in oriental learning and the other preparing for the various oriental titles examinations, and embracing literary courses in Sanskrit, Arabic and Persian and certain vernacular languages." The Madras University has also quite recently instituted title examinations in oriental classics. Bombay offers a degree in agriculture and has recently instituted one in commerce. These courses, save under certain exceptional circumstances, or in the higher degrees such as that of doctor, must be studied in colleges affiliated in the subjects offered and to the degree sought.

Honours.

124. Honours are obtainable at the degree examinations, save at Allahabad. Ordinarily the honours course includes the pass course and is taught along with it, but involves more advanced study in one of the subjects chosen
and success in additional question papers. At Madras, however, the course is different and will, by recent regulations, be spread over three instead of two years, displacing the examination for the M.A. degree, which will then be conferred on payment of a further fee two years after graduation with honours.

125. The ideal examination involves an oral or (in science) a practical test. This is facilitated by examination at a single centre. Such examination, however, is difficult to arrange in affiliating universities exercising a widespread jurisdiction. Hence we find that for the lower examinations different centres are permitted. Calcutta and Madras do not insist on a single centre for the ordinary degree examinations and have abandoned the oral, while retaining the practical test. Allahabad, though imposing the oral test for the B.A., has conceded a centre for that examination at Nagpur. Bombay and the Punjab retain the headquarters of the university as the sole centre for degree examination, though the former has no oral test.

126. Fees are paid for examinations. The fee for the I.A. and I.Sc. Examination ranges from Rs. 20 to Rs. 25, for the B.A. from Rs. 20 to Rs. 35, for the B.Sc. fees. from Rs. 20 to Rs. 40, for the M.A. and M.Sc. from Rs. 20 to Rs. 50. For examinations in law and medicine fees of Rs. 15 to Rs. 200 and of Rs. 10 to Rs. 100, respectively, are charged. The Madras University requires an additional fee of Rs. 10 and Rs. 50 for the preliminary and final honours examination in English at the B.A.

127. Examiners are appointed by the syndicates on the advice of the Examiners' boards of studies and sometimes subject to the general control of the senate. Both setters and examiners of papers are paid. The problem of maintaining a uniform standard and tempering the mechanical system of marks (which still obtains in all universities) is one the difficulty of which increases with the number of candidates. The regulations or rules of the Calcutta, Punjab and Allahabad Universities deal with the subjects of moderators, head examiners and re-examination of papers. The Calcutta regulations are particularly explicit. There the members of faculties and the heads of colleges first suggest the names of examiners. The boards of studies consider these suggestions and make nominations. The syndicate finally appoints; and its appointments are not limited to the nominations. The syndicate also appoints boards of examiners for the setting of papers. For the intermediate and degree examinations in arts and science these boards may include no one who is actually teaching for the examination. For the M.A. and M.Sc. examinations, the boards consist of the university lecturers in the subject concerned together with others (who are not engaged in preparing candidates). Each board meets in Calcutta to apportion the setting of papers. There is also a meeting of the setters and the examiners of papers as soon as the examination is over to determine the standard and system of marking. A third meeting is held when the results have been worked out and tabulated; at this meeting a report is drawn up. The reports are received by five members of the syndicate who are appointed moderators, and are submitted with further reports to the syndicate along with recommendations for grace. Notwithstanding these precautions complaints as to variation of standard are not infrequent. The Bengal report treats of the astonishing variations which have taken place in standards during the quinquennium and urges the need of inquiry. It appears that the percentage of passes in the first division at the matriculation to the total number of passes has risen from 12.3 in 1906-07 to 50.9 in 1911-12, and that at the intermediate in arts from 8.7 to 24.5. The percentage of actual passes in those examinations, however, while it has shown a tendency to rise, has remained fairly steady. But the percentage of passes in the B.A. examination has risen from 23.5 in 1901-02 to 37.7 in 1906-07 and to 60.9 in 1911-12.

128. A tendency is observable towards examination by compartments. Examination The B.A. and B.Sc. examinations at Madras are held in two parts at intervals by compart- of one year. The Punjab University has introduced re-examination in a single subject for those who fail at the degree test. At Bombay a previous examination in the middle of the intermediate course (which disposes of English in the case of science students) has long been a feature; this examination may now be replaced by a certificate from the head of the college. The
HONORARY DEGREES.

Honorary degrees are conferred on eminent persons who are recommended by the Vice-Chancellor and at least two-thirds of the other members of the syndicate; the recommendation is made to the senate; and, if two-thirds of those present are in favour of it, it is referred for confirmation by the Chancellor.

129. Honorary degrees are conferred on eminent persons who are recommended by the Vice-Chancellor and at least two-thirds of the other members of the syndicate; the recommendation is made to the senate; and, if two-thirds of those present are in favour of it, it is referred for confirmation by the Chancellor.

MODIFICATION OF COURSES.

(a) In arts.

We see that the tendency is towards concentration of study and the crystallisation of alternatives into groups or schools of subjects which are more or less correlated with each other. The course for the B.A. now consists in all universities of English plus either two subjects or one subject or one group of subjects chosen from a list (in the case of Calcutta vernacular composition forms a second compulsory subject). Bombay has recently reduced its degree course from four to two subjects—a change regarding which the principal of the Elphinstone College remarks that the danger is that the B.A. degree will in future be gained much too cheaply and that the graduate will emerge no longer with a general smattering of four subjects, but with an equally superficial knowledge of two only. Nevertheless the change is suggestive of at least a potential improvement in attainment. Looked at from the point of view of combination, the courses at Bombay and Madras present a strict grouping; at Calcutta and Allahabad a freer choice of combinations has been adopted (and at Allahabad the power of selection has recently been increased), but limited within general groups, and, in the latter case, by a narrow field of alternatives; the Punjab offers unrestricted choice. From the point of view of specialisation in arts or science subjects, Allahabad is the only university which excludes science wholly from its B.A. course; Madras, though the nomenclature of science courses has not been adopted, in reality distinguishes rigidly between arts and science by correlation between the intermediate and degree courses and by prescribing, for the B.A., English with either an arts or a science group; at Calcutta both of the elective subjects may, and one must, be an arts subject; Bombay and the Punjab permit the combination of English with wholly science subjects—an arrangement which, however, does not stultify the distinction between arts and science courses for the reasons that at the former university English is not studied for the B.Sc., at both the choice of science groups or subjects is more limited than in the B.Sc., and in the Punjab it is restricted to three subjects, one of which must be astronomy, a branch of study which will disappear from the B.Sc. course in 1914. Symptomatic of the same tendency are the complete removal of science subjects from the M.A. at Bombay and the institution of a M.Sc. degree; and, in the Punjab University, the recognition of history and economics as two separate subjects, the changes in the curricula to emphasise practical work in science, the insistence on two laboratory subjects for the B.Sc., and the abolition of English poetry as a subject for the same examination.

(b) In law.

The most notable change in the law courses has been the prolongation of the course at Calcutta to (ordinarily) three years, the general stiffening up of conditions and the concentration of law classes at large centres. Another is the abolition in the Punjab of the lower grade examinations qualifying for a certificate and a licentiate in English or vernacular.

(c) In medicine.

There have been two great reforms in the faculty of medicine. One is the continued tendency to do away with the lower grade courses leading to the licentiate in medicine and surgery. These are retained only at Bombay and Madras and are now in process of abolition at Bombay. The second is the specialisation which increasingly marks the courses subsequent to graduation; these now lead to different degrees, such as the M.D., M.S., and (at Bombay) bachelor of hygiene—a degree which is now necessary before the candidate proceeds to the M.D. in sanitation. (It is to be observed that before the commencement of the quinquennium Calcutta already possessed four degrees at this stage—the M.D., the M.S., the master of obstetrics, and the diploma of public health.)

(d) In engineering.

Similar changes are taking place at Bombay in the engineering courses. Those leading up to the licentiate are being abolished and replaced
by courses which qualify for bachelorships in three distinct departments—civil, mechanical and electrical engineering. At Calcutta also the degree course has been split into three—for civil, for mechanical and electrical and for mining engineering.

134. The brief description given will suffice to show that there is a steady Attainment of but cautious working towards specialisation and an arrangement of courses students calculated to make for higher efficiency. The details of the courses are too long for insertion in this chapter and will be found in volume II. But even the lengthier description given there treats only of the dry bones—of periods of study, of subjects and of examinations. It cannot reproduce the curricula contained in the university calendars. Still less can it clearly indicate that which is the matter of greatest interest—the attainment of the students who have successfully passed the tests. That is a question in answering which the personal equation both of candidate and examiner is of prime importance. The Indian B.A. or B.Sc. has a good knowledge of some of Shakespeare's plays, of Milton, of certain prose works on literature and other subjects; in addition to this he may have a very fair acquaintance with the Sanskrit or Arabic classics (though not so deep or so wide as that of Latin or Greek possessed by the English undergraduate who has just begun reading, say, for honour moderations); or he has read and remembered Mill and various textbooks on ethics and psychology; he has perhaps studied the differential and integral calculus, dynamics, and hydrostatics, or he has completed a course in physics or chemistry similar to, or slightly higher than, that offered at a good English secondary school—but generally under far better laboratory conditions and supervision. If this amount of acquisition appears rather disappointing it must be remembered that he takes his degree at an age when the English boy is just entering his college career or has accomplished the first year of it, and that a foreign language is the medium of instruction in the course and of expression in the test. It is still more difficult to appraise the power gained of reasoning and of application of this knowledge. A frequent complaint is that the college student generally comes ill-equipped from a school where method, mental discipline and inspiration are lacking. The depressing effects of inferior school education form a prime factor in the college career. The first two years are properly occupied in repairing deficiencies. Given that such repair is carefully carried out, the progress made between the intermediate and the B.A. degree stage is remarkable. The pity is that the period is too short. Assiduity and a strong power of memory make rapid acquisition possible. But haste is inevitable and does not make for assimilation and consolidation. Continuation of study to the M.A. stage rectifies this shortcoming and produces many excellent scholars. And, as regards the average graduate, it is right to remember that the Englishman who judges him is generally one who has taken honours and hence is apt to judge the pass man by an honours standard.

IV.—University teaching.

135. The earlier Acts specified that the Indian universities were estab-
Operation of lished for the purpose "of ascertaining, by means of examination, the persons of the Act of who have acquired proficiency in different branches of literature, science and 1904 art, and of rewarding them by academical degrees as evidence of their respec-
tive attainments, and marks of honour proportioned thereunto." The Act of 1904 included among their duties provision for the instruction of students, the power of appointing university professors and lecturers, the management of educational endowments, the equipment and maintenance of university libraries, laboratories and museums, and other things besides. The teaching activities of universities have developed during the quinquennium. The progress has been mainly along three lines—the maintenance of institutions, the provision of instruction for the master's degree, and the appointment of professors with a view to encouraging higher study and research.

136. At the beginning of the quinquennium there were two colleges managed by a university—the Law College and the Oriental College at Lahore. There was also a university law school at Allahabad. To these have now been added a university law college at Calcutta, which is a portion of the
52 PROGRESS OF EDUCATION IN INDIA.

The Calcutta University has to some extent centralised post-graduate teaching in Calcutta. The conditions of affiliation for M.A. and M.Sc. courses are difficult and but few colleges have complied with them. The university has established three kinds of appointment—professors, readers and lecturers. A professor is a whole-time servant of the university paid from funds set apart for the endowment of the chair. A reader is one who delivers special courses of lectures and receives an emolument. A lecturer may or may not be a teacher in a college, and is appointed for a term of two years, during which he delivers lectures and may receive (though not necessarily) a remuneration. Any of these three kinds of instructors may undertake research or other post-graduate work. The reader generally delivers a short course of highly specialised lectures. The professors are the Tagore professor of law and the Minto professor of economics, both of whom, among other duties, deliver lectures for the mastership degree. This duty, however, so far as it is not carried out in the affiliated colleges, devolves mainly on the university lecturers. In any college which has full affiliation to the M.A. or M.Sc. in a subject, the professors who lecture on that subject become ipso facto university lecturers. The senate likewise appoints other college professors and persons not primarily engaged in teaching. These deliver lectures open to all honours graduates of Indian universities in the particular subject. The arrangement has the effect of offering facilities to students of colleges which have no affiliation to the mastership. University lecturerships have been established in Madras for honours students. Lecturers were first appointed just after the close of the quinquennium.

The facilities for research comprise professorships, fellowships and scholarships. (a) Professorships.—The Calcutta University has the endowed Tagore professorship of law; and the generous gift of Sir T. Palit has now provided funds for the maintenance of science professors. There is an endowed Wilson lecturership in languages and literature at Bombay, the Sadho Lal readership in Sanskrit or Prakrit studies at Allahabad. Other chairs are supported by grants from government. Such is the Minto professorship of economics at Calcutta, founded in 1909, towards which the Government of India have annually contributed Rs. 10,000 a year. Scholars of high distinction are also appointed as readers to deliver courses of lectures on special studies. During the period under review Doctors Thibaut, Sen, Schuster, Walker, Brojenadranath Sil, Cullis, Mallik and Yamakami, Sir T. Holland and the late Professor Pischel delivered such lectures in Calcutta. Just at the close of the quinquennium the Government of India also gave recurring grants aggregating Rs. 2,55,000 to enable the universities to make a definite step forward towards the realisation of the idea of a teaching university, for higher work and to improve the inspection of colleges. From a portion of this income the Calcutta University are founding a George-the-Fifth professorship of mental and moral science and a Hardinge professorship of higher mathematics. From their own funds they are likewise founding a chair of ancient Indian history. The Punjab University are also about to found, by the aid of this grant, two lecturerships to be held by specialists during the cold weather. The universities of Bombay and Allahabad are making similar proposals. (b) Fellowships, etc.—There are quite a number of endowed prizes and scholarships at the different universities. Some are of sufficient value to attract students (though not in large numbers) to research. Such are, at Calcutta, the two Premchand Roychand scholarships, of the annual value of Rs. 1,400 each, one awarded in a literary and one in a scientific subject, as well as many other minor scholarships; at Bombay the Springer research scholarship (with an endowment of Rs. 43,000), the Munguldass Nathoobhoy travelling fellowships, the Duke of Edinburgh fellowship, the Mohobot fellowship and others—this university possesses over a hundred endowments; at Madras the endowments are generally of smaller amounts (the university founded during the quinquennium certain research studentships, but the reports on students did not warrant the award); the Punjab
has six endowed studentships; at Allahabad, the Empress Victoria readership (with an endowment of Rs. 76,000) was founded in 1909 for research in science and the translation of a science work into the vernacular.

Besides these, the government have placed at the disposal of the Indian universities in rotation two scholarships annually of £200 per annum tenable for three years. These are awarded by the universities concerned to selected Indian candidates with a view to the completion of their studies either at Oxford or at Cambridge. The selected scholars also receive second class passage each way.

V.—Numerical progress, buildings, etc.

139. The universities have jurisdiction over native states as well as over numbers of British provinces. Hence the general tables do not give a full idea of their activities. A set of special tables has been prepared from figures supplied by the universities, giving the full number of institutions and students. These will be found in appendix VII. They show 179* affiliated colleges, of which 56 belong to the Calcutta University; and 36,533 students, of whom 14,807 are in colleges affiliated to Calcutta. It is noticeable that, while the Madras University is second, the number of its colleges is 49, and that of its students only 7,152. That is to say, while the average enrolment of a college affiliated to Calcutta is 264, that of a college affiliated to Madras is only 146. The schools recognised by universities number 1,385† and their pupils 407,462. The numbers of schools and pupils under the Calcutta University are 618 and 143,625.

In this connection mention may be made of a small point, namely, the connection of educational institutions in Ceylon with those of India. In the last review Mr. Orange stated that under the Act of 1904 Ceylon had been transferred to the sphere of influence of the Madras University, but its nine colleges had not yet been affiliated. This condition of things still exists. The colleges of Ceylon have never been affiliated to the Madras University but as a temporary measure students who had attended colleges affiliated to the University of Calcutta were allowed to appear for the examinations in Madras under the old bye-laws. These examinations have now been superseded by those prescribed under the new regulations. Two colleges in Ceylon applied for affiliation to the new examinations, but after a local inquiry the applications were withdrawn. Six high schools (four of which are termed colleges) in Ceylon are, however, recognised by the Madras University for purposes of matriculation examination. But it is understood that the large majority of schools and colleges in that island now prepare their students mainly for the Oxford and Cambridge locals and the London University examinations. Those who wish to study for the Madras examinations must after matriculation attend some affiliated college in Southern India.

140. As regards examinations, the numbers of those who, in 1911, passed and at different stages were, at the doctorate stage, 5 and 3, at the master's stage 587 and 348, at the bachelor's stage 7,559 and 4,098, and at the intermediate stage 13,699 and 7,094. The totals of those who appeared and passed in university examinations were thus 21,996 and 11,656. Of the examinees about 10,068 were non-Brahman Hindus, about 8,374 were Brahmans, 1,746 were Muhammadans, 750 were Indian Christians, 693 were Parsis, 171 were Europeans or Anglo-Indians, 92 were Buddhists and the remainder belonged to other races or religions. In the arts courses the number of Brahmins is almost equal to that of non-Brahman Hindus.

* It may seem strange that while affiliated colleges throughout all India number 179, colleges in British India alone appear from general table III to be still more numerous—186. The reason is that general table III contains many colleges (artificial and professional), which are not affiliated to any university and hence do not figure in the university tables. The number of students shown by the universities is larger, owing to the comparatively large size of arts colleges.

† The number of high schools here shown exceeds that shown in general table III by 31. But the pupils fall short of those in the general table by 363. The general table contains a certain number of schools which are not recognised. One may hazard the explanation that these schools are ordinarily larger than affiliated schools in native states.

‡ Including 146 candidates and 113 passes in Engineering which the Punjab University has not shown in detail but has included in the column for 'total.'
51 PROGRESS OF EDUCATION IN INDIA.

(5,619 against 6,035) and under the Madras University amounts to 1,898 out of a total of 2,786 candidates of all races and creeds. In the year, 18,317 candidates appeared at the matriculation, of whom 8,866 (or 54.5 per cent.) were successful (see appendix VII).

The Calcutta University again heads the list with 6,174 candidates and 4,341 passes. In the examination which took place just after the close of the quinquennium, no less than 8,866 candidates appeared. The percentage of success is also highest in that university, being 70.3 against 51.6, 50.4 and 42.0 at the universities of the Punjab, Bombay and Allahabad. The matriculation for the Madras University has become almost extinct, owing to the popularity of the school leaving certificate. There were only 782 candidates in 1912, with 164 passes—a percentage of success amounting to only 21.0. In the same year no less than 7,372 candidates appeared in Madras, Hyderabad, Travancore and Cochin (all within the jurisdiction of the Madras University) for the school leaving certificate. The numbers of those who took the bachelor's degree in different subjects are—in arts 2,415, in science 250, in law 1,063, in medicine 159,* in engineering 45, in teaching 114, and in agriculture 22. It is not possible to compare these figures with those of former years, because similar figures have not previously been collected. A comparison for British India is possible; but (especially as it includes colleges and schools not directly connected with universities) will more conveniently figure in the next two chapters.

Expenditure.

141. The total expenditure shown in table IV was Rs. 15,87,470 as against Rs. 10,38,312 in 1906-07. The expenditure is largely met from fees (such as examination fees), which amount to Rs. 9,72,286. Other private sources contribute Rs. 4,41,658, and government grants Rs. 1,73,526. This is a case in which the form of general table IV (otherwise convenient) is found faulty, because the current expenditure of universities is ordinarily less than the income, and balances available for buildings or investment are thus accumulated. The income and current expenditure of the universities for the last year, as shown in university reports, etc., are as follows:

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rs.</td>
<td>Rs.</td>
<td>Rs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Calcutta</td>
<td>12,86,676</td>
<td>7,13,372</td>
<td>4,93,304</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bombay</td>
<td>2,05,714</td>
<td>1,59,543</td>
<td>46,171</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madras</td>
<td>2,37,591</td>
<td>2,14,043</td>
<td>23,551</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punjab</td>
<td>2,33,007</td>
<td>2,01,027</td>
<td>31,980</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Allahabad</td>
<td>1,66,510</td>
<td>1,25,749</td>
<td>37,761</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>20,19,301</strong></td>
<td><strong>14,16,734</strong></td>
<td><strong>6,32,567</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The receipts in Madras have been depressed by the loss of matriculation fees. To balance this, government gave, in the year 1911-12, Rs. 23,500. This sum is shown in the statement above. The accounts for Calcutta, Allahabad and Madras include as expenditure Rs. 2,42,000, Rs. 40,000 and nearly Rs. 10,000 respectively on investments. These are not shown in the statement above. The expenditure shown in general table IV includes the capital cost of buildings, libraries, etc.

142. With the new conditions brought about by the Act of 1904, the financial circumstances of universities changed. Previously their only charges had been the pay of a few salaried officers and the cost of conducting examinations. These were covered by examination fees. The increase in their administrative functions which the Act entailed, the new responsibility of inspection, and the added task of instruction, created new calls on the

* Including licentiates.
university exchequers. It was also deemed desirable to pay the travelling expenses of fellows and syndicate-members (who had previously defrayed the cost themselves). Still more important was it to enable colleges (particularly aided colleges) to meet the new requirements which the Act and the resultant regulations threw upon them. Accordingly in 1905, the Government of India announced a recurring grant of five lakhs of rupees to be continued for five years. Of the total of 25 lakhs, 11½ lakhs were allotted to universities for administration, inspection, travelling charges, the purchase of land and the erection of buildings; 13½ lakhs were given to Local Governments for the improvement of colleges. These grants have enabled universities to pay their way and (a desirable result) to accumulate balances for capital expenditure. The grants to Madras and the United Provinces were made permanent before the expiry of the five years. They were renewed to other provinces for a further year, then (with a slight modification) for three years and finally made permanent with effect from 1911-12. Furthermore, in 1912, grants of 16 lakhs non-recurring and 2.55 lakhs recurring were made to universities. The total of the recurring grants to each province and university is shown in tabular form.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Province and University</th>
<th>Grants of 1912 to Universities</th>
<th>Total recurring grants</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>for Colleges</td>
<td>for Universities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rs.</td>
<td>Rs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madras and Madras University</td>
<td>30,000</td>
<td>35,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bombay and University of Bombay</td>
<td>43,000</td>
<td>10,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bengal and Calcutta University</td>
<td>1,10,000</td>
<td>20,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Provinces and University of Allahabad</td>
<td>40,000</td>
<td>40,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punjab and Punjabi University</td>
<td>20,000</td>
<td>10,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastern Bengal and Assam</td>
<td>50,000</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Provinces and Berar</td>
<td>10,000</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>3,15,000</td>
<td>1,35,000</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Thus the grants made to universities (exclusive of those made for the benefit of their constituent colleges) have amounted since 1905 to Rs. 16,00,000 non-recurring and from Rs. 1,35,000 to Rs. 3,90,000 recurring. In addition Rs. 45,000 recurring was given in 1912-13 towards the proposed university at Dacca. No grant was given in 1905 to Burma, college education in that province being on a small scale. But since the close of the quinquennium grants have been made for a university at Rangoon, as well as at Patna, and further provision has been made for Dacca, while new capital grants have also been given to other existing universities.

143. The subject of the utilisation of these grants will be a matter for the next quinquennial review. All that is here necessary is briefly to indicate the part which they will play in developing the schemes to which allusion has already been made. At Calcutta the capital grant is to be utilised for examination halls, a law hostel and books and furniture for the university library, the recurring grant for the foundation of two university chairs termed the 'George the Fifth Professorship of Mental and Moral Science' and the 'Hardinge Professorship of Higher Mathematics,' for an additional allotment to the university law college and (as an experimental measure) for the appointment of university lecturers. A portion will also be used for the maintenance of a laboratory in connection with Sir T. Palit's gift of fourteen lakhs for science teaching. Furthermore the university out of their own funds are founding a professorship of Indian history and antiquities. The Bombay University have proposed improvement of the library and buildings for post-graduate students, the engagement of eminent professors from abroad to lecture during the cold weather and the institution of inter-collegiate M.A.
Improvement in buildings. The most striking proposal from this university, however, is the temporary appointment of an expert educationalist of wide experience from England for a fixed time to visit the affiliated colleges and advise on higher courses and the selection of professors and lecturers. No decision has yet been arrived at on the utilisation of the grants to Madras. The most important proposals of the Punjab University are the erection of a suitable building for the Oriental College and of hostels for the students of the Oriental and Law Colleges, the establishment of two lecturerships to be held by specialists of Europe or of India during the cold weather and the improvement of the staff of the Oriental College. The grants for Allahabad will be used for the establishment of a library and of a hostel for law students and the creation of chairs in Indian history and economics. The proposals had at the time of writing been sanctioned for all the universities—save those from Madras which have not yet been received.

Publications. The Calcutta, Madras and Punjab Universities issue publications intended to be studied as a part of the prescribed course. At Calcutta these comprise English, Sanskrit, Arabic and Persian selections, Sanskrit and Arabic grammars (these are selections and grammars for the matriculation, intermediate and B.A. examinations) and a number of selections of leading law cases. In 1910-11, the university appears to have made a substantial profit from the publication of these works. The Madras University has published selections in English, Sanskrit and vernaculars for the matriculation. The Punjab University publishes Arabic and Persian selections for the intermediate and B.A. Lectures, theses, etc., are also frequently published and sold.

Libraries. Each university is gradually acquiring a local habitation worthy of its position. Calcutta has long had its impressive Senate House in College Square. During the period under review it has added the Maharaja of Darbhanga building, which accommodates the library, the law college, offices, etc., as well as examination rooms to seat about a thousand candidates. The building cost nearly six and-a-half lakhs, to which the Maharaja Bahadur contributed two and-a-half lakhs, government about two lakhs and the university the remainder. An adjoining plot of land has been purchased at a cost of a lakh and-a-half and a building has been erected for a law hostel and examination halls. The cost will be four lakhs, to which the Government of India has contributed three lakhs. Sir T. Palit's recent gift of property worth fourteen lakhs will permit of the erection of university laboratories for practical examinations and research work.

At Bombay the convocation and the meetings of the senate are held in the Sir Cowasji Jehangir Hall, which was made over to the university in 1875; the library and the Rajabai Tower date from 1864 and were the gift of Mr. Premchand Roychand. Madras has a fine Senate House; the library is located in a portion of the Connemara Public Library. At Lahore, the only university building was the Convocation Hall till, in the last year of the quinquennium, a convenient library was built, with a reading room above. Allahabad had no buildings of its own, and utilised those of the Muir Central College; but a fine Senate Hall (costing nearly six lakhs of rupees) has now been erected and was opened just after the close of the period.

The principal capital requirements of the universities are buildings for the colleges under their management, hostels for the residence of the students, especially those of the law colleges, and library-halls. At the end of the quinquennium the Government of India distributed a grant of sixteen lakhs of rupees which will assist in removing some of these wants.
fair sum in hand. The books are at present in the Connemara library. It is proposed to erect a separate building. The Punjab University has not only housed its library, but, with the help of the earlier imperial grant, has doubled the number of volumes, while 7,500 volumes (including the Percival collection—the gift of Mr. H. M. Percival, lately a professor in the Presidency College) have been presented. The University of Allahabad possesses no library worthy of the name, but is about to spend a considerable sum out of the imperial grant on this object.