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Lajpat Rai was essentially a pioneer of educational thought in modern India. He has usually been pictured as a political leader of outstanding stature and his role in politics and the national movement have been highlighted by biographers and scholars. In fact, his contribution to the sphere of education is much more concrete and unique. It was in this field that he was wholly focused, persistent, and far ahead of his contemporaries. Lajpat Rai is generally regarded as a freedom fighter of the top rank; his political views won acclamation of the nation and the world as well. What remained less known was his views on education.1 For Lajpat Rai education and politics were two sides of the same coin. Political development was dependent on education and education on the political framework. Lajpat Rai’s intensity of thought and action was much larger and consistent in education, rather than politics. Education was the main issue for him – the agent of social transformation and social as well as political progress. It was the major instrument in bringing about progress and long term change in society.

Lajpat Rai remained emphatic about the vital importance of education above all other issues. Education, according to him, was the most significant concern of the country. It was a ‘duty’, a ‘continuous social function’ and a ‘means of social efficiency’. Education was the ‘foundation of national greatness’ and a ‘national asset’. Children, believed Lajpat Rai, were the capital of a national and needed the best investment for their progress in the future. Education for Lajpat Rai was a link between the past, present and future and was in fact, the only path to the future.

Lajpat Rai’s ideas about education were constantly evolving. His initial response in 1888 was in fact, rather appreciative of colonial rule and the ‘illumination’ it had brought to ‘every’ Indian home through education. He believed that Indians were as educated as Englishmen and that society had

1. Manmohan Lal Lala Lajpat Rai A Votary of Secular Values in National Education. Farrukhabad: University News Bhartiya Mahavidyala 1993. 4
been transformed by the 'light of knowledge' that the colonial rulers had introduced.² He is almost 'thankful' to the British for taking India to a 'higher civilization'. Two decades later, he was very aware of the limitations of the existing system, he felt the need of 'all sorts of education at all costs' and, the need to push education was underlined by him at every opportunity. Education was seen as the 'salvation of India'. He did however, feel that 'some education was better than no education' although he did not approve of the colonial system he accommodated and adjusted with it. His writings in 1905 and 1908 reflect the disillusionment he felt at the absence of a good education system. Lajpat Rai himself identifies this change of opinion and places on record the 'positive harm' of a parasitical and retarding education in colonial India. His later writings are extremely critical of the contemporary education. He underlined the denationalizing, backward, uneven and divisive nature of education which enslaved Indian people. He had serious reservations about the system which did not produce 'independent, thinking minds' and 'honest living' as a good education should. The cause according to him lay with the nature of colonialism and the policy of the government. Lajpat Rai was unhappy with the education he himself had received. By the second decade of the 20th century, he was absolutely certain that a new system was required to replace the colonial one, a 'national' education that catered to the specific needs of the Indian nation. This evolution of educational thought was a gradual one. Lajpat Rai responded to the environment of education around him, understood its implications and then reacted strongly to its pervasive and negative influence for India and Indians.

Lajpat Rai's unconventional and non-conformist personality was partly an inheritance from his family. From his grandfather he learnt the ideal of hard work and a concern with religion through intellectual discussion, not ritual. The generosity, devotion of his grandmother and her domestic concern with her family and household left a deep impression on him. His father Munshi Radha Kishan acquainted him with the basics of Islam and imparted to Lajpat Rai a broader religious and intellectual outlook and persistent inquisitiveness. He followed his father footsteps in a thirst for knowledge and love of books.

² V.C. Joshi Lala Lajpat Rai Writing and Speeches Vol. I Delhi University Publishers 1966. 4

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Debate and discussion were well imbibed techniques of learning for Lajpat Rai. From his mother he acquired lessons in charity and consideration. Lajpat Rai's family milieu imparted to him a liberal, cosmopolitan attitude, ideals of charity and humanitarian work. His early experiences also gave him first hand knowledge of the colonial environment and the traditional norms of Punjabi society. Lajpat Rai's childhood provided the strong foundation necessary for his later social and education concerns.

Books and people played a prominent role in Lajpat Rai's life and helped to evolve his ideas and thoughts. Several books on a variety of subjects left a deep impact on his mind, specially those on history. Many well known personalities – in religion, politics and education, both in India and abroad gave direction to his thought. These varied influences heightened his social consciousness and responsibility towards society providing the stimulus for later action in social and political spheres. Lajpat Rai's short lived, association with social and political parties reflects his search for answers to important issues, in vain. His mind was not fulfilled by politics and social concerns alone. He wanted to bring about a social transformation. He was futuristic and invested in long term planning rather than immediate gains. Education, he knew was the key to that aim and he worked ceaselessly to meet this goal.

Lajpat Rai suggested a serious study of the pre-colonial system before attempting to prepare any blueprint for the future. He felt that the past could both 'inspire and guide' us in this exercise. At the same time he was also clear that a revival of the earlier education system was 'unthinkable'. Lajpat Rai seems to be caught in a dilemma on this issue. On the one hand, he was obliged to adopt a positively pro-Aryan, pro-Hindu, official attitude, courtesy his alignment with the Arya Samaj and DAV institutions. On the other, he personally sided with logic, reason and the 'best features of modern and global educational methods, creating a kind of duality and confusion in thought. As a result, his scattered comments on the ancient education system are contradictory, modified and selectively re-interpreted, presenting a lop-sided and incomplete picture of education in the pre-colonial times. He not just overlooks, but totally ignores the growth of education in the medieval period and the substantial contribution of the State at this time, despite his
later concern with State responsibility for education. He could in fact, have justified his stand on this issue by referring to the role of the State under the Sultans and the Mughals.

Lajpat Rai's perception of the earlier education system is biased and 'sectarian'. He equated 'Hindu', with 'national' and 'Indian' and thus, supported a highly discriminating system of education. He not only idealized the ancient institutions and the position of gurus but gave new interpretation to them. Lajpat Rai believed that the aim of education in the ancient times was to solve the problems of life, a role he attributed to the teacher and in sharp contrast to the traditional view of salvation and truth. Several contradictions also emerge in Lajpat Rai's writings – at one place he allocates Vedic religion as the foundation or basis of education, at another he feels that religion alone is not education. He claims free, compulsory, mass education existed in ancient times yet also states that there was no regular organization, that the 'Shudras were shut out from education' and that girls education was rather limited. At another place he upholds the significant contribution of the gurus in character building of pupils yet also maintains that the students had no independent thinking or actions, lacked discipline and 'blindly followed' the guru. It seems that Lajpat Rai was following a 'politically correct' stance in his attitude towards the past but not actually incorporating any of the basic features of the ancient education system in his own scheme later on.

In his own understanding education needed to be wide in scope, including science, modern languages, physical education, vocational training, mathematics and social studies. Religion and Sanskrit played a minor role in modern times in his scheme. He also felt that children should study in a real environment, with day to day issues and problems around them, not isolated from the world as in the gurukuls. Teachers should enable pupils to develop all their talent and abilities, and realize their full individual potential. Education needed to be free, compulsory and for the masses, an aspect which was the responsibility and duty of the state. None of these basic concepts of education existed in the ancient period. His understanding of the pre-colonial education pattern seems seriously warped, disjuncted and partial. It is extremely selective. Even the features of this education system underlined by Lajpat Rai in his various writings do not find a place in his later scheme of national
education. It must however, be placed on records that Lajpat Rai did not take up any complete discussion on this theme but his views are reconstructed from his scattered comments in his writings. In all fairness, he did not have any concrete opportunity to present his own opinion on the pre-colonial education system. Most of his comments in this regard are in a different context and ostensibly to meet several social and political responses to colonial rule.

Lajpat Rai’s critique of the colonial education system was severe and unrelenting. The contemporary education, according to Lajpat Rai, was inadequate and the government had done nothing to provide mass, compulsory education. They had seriously undermined higher education as well as vocational training and the colonial education had no value outside India. There had been a neglect of Indian languages and cultural aspects as well. The method of teaching was flawed and filled the pupils mind with facts instead of inculcating independent thinking. To Lajpat Rai’s mind the colonial structure of education was unfair, and marred by several significant problems and provided no path to development and progress.

He had a similar understanding where primary education was concerned. Upto 1906 he held the opinion that primary education was in a ‘good condition’ and the Government was contributing to the expansion of literacy. By 1917 he was disillusioned about the situation primary learning was in and believed that the unwillingness of the colonial authorities to spend on primary education was leading to its ‘worst condition’. He criticized the Government for following double standards between Great Britain and India, encouraging education in the former and discouraging the same in India. He also felt that the state of secondary education was inadequate and limited. Since the Government did not permit private enterprise to develop, by placing several conditions of them, it was handicapped by such obstacles. The State withdrew its support from higher education after the bureaucracy opposed it bringing a further deterioration within the education system, specially the Punjab region, he felt.

Lajpat Rai’s serious reservations about the colonial education programme made him highly critical of the system. He felt that the lack of creating sufficient funds for education was a major shortcoming of the
Government. This had a major negative impact on primary and secondary teaching. He underlined the void of technological and research facilities in the country. He was critical of the functioning of the Panjab University and pointed out that Indian languages were neglected, teaching methods were inadequate and the structure of the management was faulty. He did however, appreciate the efforts of private institutions like the DAV and the Aligarh Anglo-Oriental College.

Lajpat Rai was seriously concerned about the absence of a free, mass, compulsory education and placed this responsibility on the State. Lajpat Rai in fact, failed to see the positive features of the education system, specially the expansion of education and the introduction of several vocational schemes. He seems to present a partial and incomplete view of colonial education. He remains silent on the contribution of the missionaries, the indigenous schools and the education programmes of socio religious reform movement like the Dev Samaj, Sanatan Dharm and Singh Sabhas. He does not take up any serious discussion on the content of education nor does he offer any solutions to improve the situation. He also remains quiet on the issue of women’s education and does not identify its absence as one of the concerns of contemporary education. His critique of the colonial education seems to be coloured by his own interest in the Arya Samaj and he raises issues relevant mostly, from their point of view only. In short, Lajpat Rai demanded an Indian direction to education and a qualitative change for the future of the nation.

Lajpat Rai’s life long interest in education culminated in his concept of national education which was his blueprint for the educational future of the nation. This new scheme had been devised after thorough research and extensive reading of books and reports from England, America and Japan. His concept of national education was therefore, not completely original but had incorporated in an innovative way the major ideas in educational thought that existed in his world. Lajpat Rai was not the first leader to take up the cause of national education and he himself had remained active in the national education programme of the early 20th century. However, Lajpat Rai felt that the early ideas on national education were sectarian, limited and incomplete. Education according to Lajpat Rai should be geared towards the future and provide all round development keeping national ideals in mind.
Lajpat Rai's remarkable new plan for national education was an extensive one which covered several interrelated aspects of education. The aims of national education were salvation from ignorance, poverty and disease, inculcation of independent thinking and sense of responsibility and to fit children for the 'battle of life'. He visualized a scheme to be laid down by an All-India-Agency, Indian in structure and policy. He suggested that a common language – Hindustani – as well as major provincial vernaculars should be the medium of instruction. He further suggested the same text books, in easy language and conscious of national situation and religious sentiments, should be supplied by the government.

In his concept the subjects of study included besides the 3 Rs, history and geography, civics, drawing, hygiene, music, physical education with co-curricular activities. He did not identify Sanskrit or religious studies as an integral part of this scheme. His focus was on modern science, inculcation of patriotic spirit and vocational training. He was extremely concerned about the health and physical development of students for which he worked out some details in his scheme for national education. He also worked out a programme of cooperation between industry and education to fulfill the vacuum in the vocational sphere. Lajpat Rai however, failed to incorporate women and depressed classes or even adults into his scheme in any integral way. He accepted the traditional norms of society in this regard.

Lajpat Rai's formulation of a scheme of national education was seen as the basis for a mass education programme which was a corporate social responsibility. It was positive in its outlook and included the latest principles of education of that time. He assigned a significant role to the State in implementing this scheme. Lajpat Rai saw a close connection between family, school and society in an integrated approach towards education. He touched upon several important features that remain problematic even today. He had foreseen the problems of sectarian forces in education and believed that they could be negated by the positive force of national education. He believed in unity and peace, advocated the oneness of humanity, and the probability of global peace and a world culture, through his concept of national education. It was not a national but an international education.
The post independence education system in India is the outcome of a gradual evolution of the structure introduced by colonial system and the modifications made in the post 1947 phase. Since independence, efforts were made by the government, both at the level of the centre and the states, to improve education according to the requirement or need of the country and the people. A number of committees and education commissions were set up to study the problems in the educational sphere in depth and to make suggestions for improvement. Some of these problems existed from the colonial phase and inspite of the continuous effort, for improvement, there remain several problems that need to be addressed seriously. This is evident from the head lines in the newspapers like The Tribune, among others from time to time - 'Strike against fee hike'; ‘Dharna against compulsory attendance in the class’, (5th March), ‘Clash over exam dates’ (16th June) ‘stress on students over exams’ (20 June). The Tribune 22nd June 2004 writes ‘Government Commercializing Education’. ‘“Abhiyan” without “Shiksha” in Punjab Schools, (13th September), and ‘Waiting for teachers Punjab’s Primary Education is in a mess’ (15th September). ‘School Principal, staff booked for fraud’ (14th September) gives us an idea that the education system in India is faced with a crisis. The teachers too, are facing serious limitations with exceeding large numbers in classrooms, lack of proper facilities, low salary, early retirement age and other issues. These problems need immediate and serious attention to avert a crisis.

In the colonial period too, some efforts to ‘improve’ education were made from time to time. It was Wood’s Dispatch which realized the need of educating the people through the medium of the vernacular and the English language. As a result high school and college education made rapid progress in the second half of the 19th century. By 1857 Universities of Calcutta, Bombay and Madras were established and English had also become a medium of instruction. The British government laid down the principle of a similar education pattern in government and aided institutions. As a result, the use of vernacular as a medium of instruction was neglected, courses of study became too academic and little provision for vocational and technical
education was made. Private enterprise was virtually crushed and primary education was neglected up to 1880. By the late 19th century the missionaries, and private initiative also came forward to spread western education among the people. Educated Indians now stressed the need to correct the 'defects' of the Indian education system. The influence of Swami Dayanand and the militant attitude, policies and administration of Lord Curzon gave rise to the idea of 'national education'. Thus, from 1900 Indians started taking a keen interest in educational matters, as they responded to the new situation and the government educational programme. It was for the first time that Indians became conscious of the need for educating the masses. National leaders vehemently opposed the control of Indian education by Europeans and proposed a new scheme. From the last quarter of 19th century Indian leaders had began to condemn the official system of education and had demanded the Indianisation of education. Annie Besant, Sister Nivedita, Lala Hans Raj and Lala Lajpat Rai among others, emphasized on Indian control, Indian ideals, growth of Indian languages and development of technical and 'national education' and were partially successful.

During the early 20th century a committee, with Sir Philip Hartog as the chairman, had been eventually appointed to look into the various aspects of Indian education and suggest measures for improvement. This committee presented its report in 1929 and pointed out defects like wastage i.e. premature withdrawal of children from school; stagnation, this meant retention of a child for a period of more than one year in a lower class; low standards in university education, lack of industrial and vocational training and an unsatisfactory level of education for women. The committee was concerned about the future of high schools. It suggested a policy of combination in place of expansion, where stress would be laid on the introduction of diversified courses after the middle stage, industrial and commercial courses, and also training. They felt that the service conditions of teachers needed improvement. Attention was also paid towards raising the standard of university education and extending education to women. The suggestions made by this committee were not essentially different from the programme of national education presented by Lala Lajpat Rai.
The period from 1921-1937 represents a significant landmark in the history of education in India in the field of elementary education. A number of constitutional reforms and administrative changes were made and education became a provincial subject from 1937. The ministers in several provinces dealt seriously with the issue of education, large funds were made available, schemes for the expansion of primary education, the introduction of compulsory education and even adult literacy were initiated. The Wardha scheme of basic education was introduced and a fillip was given to physical and vocational education. The new constitution of 1937 strengthened the hands of Indian ministries and they launched novel plans for the reform and the expansion of education. In 1937 Abbot and Wood presented another report on the status of education and suggested that unemployment could be solved by industrial development and giving equal importance to vocational and general education. The Central Bureau of Education had been revived, on a recommendation made by the Central Advisory Board of Education in 1932. The old Education Department was revised as the ministry of Education in 1946. Lajpat Rai had also stressed this point but neither the government nor the Congress ministries showed any interest at this time.

Thus, between 1935 and 1947, the role of the Government of India in education was broadened and several functions like publication and co-ordination were assumed. The Government accepted in principle concurrent functions which included scientific research, technical education, propagation and development of Hindi, promotion of national culture and patronage to national art and ancient Indian culture, education of the handicapped, promotion and co-ordination of educational research, grant of scholarships, advanced professional and vocational training, central institutions for education and provision of free and compulsory education upto the age of fourteen. The basic problems however, remained and no due importance was given to the blue print suggested by Lajpat Rai and the future programme of education suggested by him was not acknowledged. The main elements of the concept of Lajpat Rai were addressed in these attempts, thus underlining the validity and necessity of these issues.
India underwent a transformation under colonial rule. This led to structural changes in administration as well as the social sphere. The new structure superimposed on the traditional, created as a result a ‘duality’ in education as in other areas. Thus, the colonial rule resulted in a partly traditional and partly modern educational pattern marked by confusion and complexity of structure. These structural inadequacies were expressing themselves most sharply in the sensitive sphere of educational underdevelopment. While the Pathshals, Gurukuls and madrashas continued to teach the ‘outdated doctrine of geocentricity’ as late as in the first half of the twentieth century, Macaulay’s educational system could produce only ‘graduated flunkies’.

While tradition was dying, modernity was powerless to be born. It is, no doubt, true that the anti-imperialist struggle for national independence inspired the search for alternative models of education; but perhaps, with the possible exception of the intellectual contributions of Rabinder Nath Tagore, Lala Lajpat Rai and Jawahar Lal Nehru, the tradition-modernity gap could not be satisfactorily bridged. Efforts were made to abolish untouchability and to spread education among the Harijans. The National Planning Committee, the All India Educational Conference and the Central Advisory Board of Education as well as the five-year plans were prepared by the Central, Provincial and State governments to address the issues of education in India.

After Independence education was dealt with separately and its importance was duly recognised. The Constitution no doubt played an active role in the field of education. According to the Indian Constitution, education is both a Union and State subject and the centre and the States both are

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3. Moonis Raza Aijazuddin Ahmad and Sheel C. Nuna School education in India: The Regional Dimension New Delhi: National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration 1990.13
responsible for its expansion and progress. While the Central Government formulated general policies and gave direction and aids, it has been the responsibility of the State Governments to implement and carry out those policies and provide education to all persons, living in the State. The States also discharged educational functions through voluntary organisations and local bodies, by giving them grant-in-aid and prescribing rules for grants-in-aid and thus, controlling their activities. After the 42nd Amendment Act, education has been included in the current list and the responsibility is shared by the Centre and the States.

After independence, education has been shaped to a great extent by social or national goals. As the University Education Commission of 1948 remarked "our constitution lays down the general purpose of the State and universities must educate on the right and provide proper facilities for

4. See Kuldip Kaur Education in India (1781-1985) Policies, Planning and Implementation Chandigarh: CRRID 1985. 34-50. The Union list contain 7 entries pertaining to education, state list contains only two and concurrent list has 6 entries relating to education directly or indirectly. Article 45 deals with free compulsory primary education and the provision of universal primary education. Article 29 relates to the protection of minorities and declares "any section of the citizens residing in the territory of India or any part thereof having a distinct language, script or culture of its own shall have the right to preserve the same and no citizen shall be denied admission into any educational institution maintained by the state or receiving aid out of state funds or grounds only of religion, caste, language or any of them. Our constitution stresses on the education of weaker sections of the people. Article 30 relates to the Rights of Minorities to establish and administer educational institution of their choice and the state should not discriminate on the basis of religion or language. Article 350-A relates to the facilities for instruction in mother tongue at primary state and provides the same. Article 350 B provides for the appointment of a special officer for linguistic minorities. Article 351 declares the responsibility of the center to develop Hindi as the national language. According to Article 15 for the education of women and children and weaker sections of the Indian community should have special provision. Article 46 promotes the educational and economic interest of the weaker sections of the people. On religious education Article 25 provides 'freedom of conscience and the right to profess, practise, and propagate religion'. Article 28 states freedom to attendance at religious institutions or religious worship in certain educational institutions. Thus, our constitution is providing us with a number of provisions to improve and expand our education. They provided higher education and research, union agencies and institution co-ordination, vocational education and technical training of labour, free and compulsory primary education, education of weaker sections of the people, instruction in mother tongue at the primary stage, spread of Hindi and religious education. Lala Lajpat Rai also spoke of these issues during his time and proposed many of these different elements for the improvement of education.

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educating a larger number of people. India thus, accepted the principle of equality of educational opportunity as a major social goal. The Planning Commission of India was set up in 1950 to plan for the whole country, for the most effective utilization of the country’s resources, both human and material. The basic objectives of all the plans have been for ‘providing sources for foundations for sustained economic growth, for increasing opportunities for gainful employment and improving their standard, and working conditions for the masses.’

The first five year plan set out to strengthen and improve higher education. The University Education Commission 1948 made a number of recommendations to improve the quality of education. The Planning Commission recommended the setting up of the University Grants Commission which came into existence in November 1953. The State Governments made their own programmes for university education. Expansion schemes involved opening new classes for new subjects – mostly sciences: provision for scholarship and research; gap between urban and rural areas was bridged to some extent and facilities for private study were provided. The second five year plan laid greater emphasis on different fields of education like basic education, expansion of elementary education, diversification of the curriculum at the secondary level, improvement of the standard of education at the college and university level, development of professional and technical education and development of social education and cultural programmes. During the second plan, for the country as a whole, the proportion of students taking science courses increased from 33 percent to about 36 percent. In some States, progress was specially marked, but there are others where there were still considerable lags.

The emphasis on education was stronger in the third year plan. The NCERT was constituted in 1962 for improvement of quality at the school level, and special emphasis was laid on science with provision for scientific

5. Kuldip Kaur Education in India 162
6. Ibid 63 78
7. Ibid 67
8. For detail see Moonis Raza Aijazuddin Ahmad and Sheel C. Nuna School Education in India The Regional Dimension and Kuldip Kaur Education in India

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equipment and appointment of science teachers. Assistance was given to colleges and universities for the development of special areas of scientific studies, such as geophysics, astronomy, astrophysics, applied geology, applied physics and animal genesis. Girls education was greatly emphasized. More scholarships and concession in regard to fees were provided for universities and colleges and the national scholarship scheme was instituted. Examination and research units were set up in some universities. However, clear-cut direction could not be given for the implementation of the plan.⁹

The Third plan continued by and large the schemes launched by the second five year plan. These included the establishment of social education institutions (Janata colleges) at various places, running of community canters, starting of youth clubs (like Gram Raksha Dal, Farmers’ Club), running Mahila Samitis in each development block, training of social education workers, organizing seminars, providing post-literacy facilities, setting up public libraries, producing and using documentary films and producing literature for neo-literates. Maharashtra started the Gram Shiskhan Mohim. Teachers, students and other educated persons offered their services on a voluntary basis and the expenditure was borne by the Panchayats. This was a model scheme for other state governments. The Central government strengthened the library service. Delhi Public Library was started in 1952, and State Government were given assistance to start State libraries.¹⁰ Delhi University started correspondence courses in 1962. The Universities of Mysore, Poona and Rajasthan also organized Adult Education Departments. The Indian University Adult Education Association was also set up. A new term, ‘functional Literacy’ come into existence.

The early five year plans brought about an expansion in education. Over the decade 1951-61, the number of students increased from 23.5 million to 43.5 million.¹¹ The total number of schools increased by 73 percent

⁹. Kuldip Kaur, *Education in India*, 64-65 ¹⁰. Thirteen states also had started district libraries. A Hindi encyclopedia (Hindi Vishva Bharati) in 10 volumes was published. Twenty workshops for training authors were organized.¹¹. The increase in the number of pupils in the age-group 6-11 was 79 percent, in the age-group 11-14, 102 percent, and in the age group 14-17, 139 percent. The proportion of children of children in these groups attending schools rose respectively from 43 to 61 percent, 13 to 23 percent and 5 to 12 percent.
increase in the number of primary schools being 63 percent, in middle schools 191 percent, and in high schools 128 percent. Progress in basic education at the elementary level was reflected in the increase in the proportion of junior basic schools and senior basic schools from 16 percent to 29 percent and from 3 percent to 30 percent respectively. Reorganisation of secondary education mainly took the form of conversion of high schools into higher secondary schools, establishment of multipurpose schools providing for a variety of courses, and expansion of teaching facilities both for general science and science as an elective subject. The All-India Educational Survey, which was undertaken during 1957-59, revealed important gaps in the distribution of educational institutions. Thus, for the country as a whole in 1957, about 29 percent of rural habitations and about 17 percent of the rural population were not served by any schools. In some states these proportions were very much higher.

Progress in establishing new schools during the first two Plans was relatively greater in respect of middle and high schools than in the case of primary schools. The proportion of trained teachers increased during the period 1951-61 from 59 to 65 percent in primary schools, from 53 to 65 percent in middle schools, and from 54 to 68 percent in high schools. These figures suggest that progress in providing trained teachers had not been on an adequate scale. There had been a large increase in the number of students in universities and colleges, the total enrolment for arts, science and commerce courses being 360,000 in 1950-51, 634,000 in 1955-56 and about 900,000 in 1960-61. The total outlay on education, including engineering and technological education, was Rs. 153 crores in the First Plan and Rs. 256 crores in the Second Plan and programmes other than those relating to engineering and technological education, are included in the Third Plan entailed a total outlay of Rs. 560 crores.

The Fourth Plan attempted to face three major tasks first, removal of deficiencies in the existing educational system and linking it more effectively with the increasing demands of social and economic developments, second

12. For details see http://shikshanic.nic.in-cd.50 years-/G-Z-7h-0Z7401
13. Moonis Raza Ajazuddin Ahmad and Sheel C. Nuna School education in India The Regional Dimension 10-11
the removal of internal stresses and strains and third, the extension of the
system in response to social urges and economic needs. The emphasis was
on free and universal primary education, elimination of wastage, and work
orientation of the curriculum gave special attention to vocational education
and science teaching. Emphasis was given to vocational, technical and
professional channels and extending facilities for science and post-graduate
teaching and research work. The quality of teaching was to be improved with
greater attention on the training of teaching and by increasing their salaries
and improvement in qualification. Greater emphasis was made for adult
education and production in Indian languages. Loans and scholarships were
provided on a large scale. In 1952-53 the Secondary Education Commission
was appointed by Government of India on September 23, 1952.

The fifth five year plan 1974-79 emphasised four trends of educational
development. They were equalization of educational opportunity for social
justice, co-ordination between various educational levels with employment
and economic development, quality improvement and co-operation of the
intelligentsia, including students, in social and economic development.
Thought was given to education from the primary to the university level. The
plan also stressed the professionalization of education at the secondary level.
It gives importance to the reorganization and improvement of curricula at
every stage of education. Priority was given to language development.\textsuperscript{14}

The Sixth Five year plan 1980-85 emphasized on eradication of
illiteracy, universal primary education and the introduction of job orientation
programmes. Physical education, games, sports, development of languages,
art and culture was also taken care off. There was greater emphasis on the
expansion of primary and secondary education and adult education while
higher education had been discouraged. The emphasis was on organizing an
information system for technical man-power. Efforts were made for the
qualitative improvement of text-books and the modernization of existing
facilities. Post graduate courses and research work in engineering and

\textsuperscript{14} Kuldip Kaur \textit{Education in India} 71. The Central Institute of Indian Language
(Mysore), the Kendriya Hindi Sansthan (Agra), the Rastriya Sanskrit
Sansthan (New Delhi) and the Central Institute of English and Foreign
Languages (Hyderabad) were further developed and strengthened.
technology were to be maintained at the existing levels. Experimental research projects and technical extension services were given greater emphasis.\(^{15}\) In order to accommodate the increasing number of students coming to the Secondary schools from Primary schools and also to reduce the additional recurring expenditure, the Government decided to apply the grant in aid formula applicable to secondary schools to there additional divisions also. So as per the new formula no grant was given for first four years, 20% grant given in the fifth year and 100% grant from the ninth year. Various schemes were implemented by the aided non-Government Secondary Schools which had laid pressure on the administration. The Government gave higher priority to setting up of two Sainik Schools in each Revenue Division.

In the seventh Five Year Plan 1985-1990 the main emphasis was on consolidation and optimum utilization of existing infrastructure and facilities; improving quality and standard of education; modernization of laboratories and effective management of the overall system. Vocational training courses were offered.\(^{16}\)

The goal of the eighth five year plan was human development. In this plan Early Childhood Education (ECE) was expanded by attaching pre-primary classes to selected primary schools. Voluntary agencies and other NGOs were encouraged and provided financial assistance by reorganizing the scheme of ECE. Primary school or alternatives to primary schools like non-formal centers etc were provided within a walking distance of 1 Km. Innovative programmes like Shiksha Karmi were expanded. Special efforts were made to increase enrolment rates and improve participation rates at the upper-primary stage especially in respect of girls. Quality of education was also improved. Special measures were adopted for the promotion of education of SCs/STs. Special incentives were provided to overcome social, economic and educational handicaps. A National Evaluation Organisation (NEO) was set up to undertake assessment of students. New secondary schools were opened. National Open School revised the Syllabi and textbooks for the secondary and senior secondary courses. Special attention was given to paramedical vocational courses. The thrust area during the eighth

\(^{15}\) Kuldip Kaur *Education in India* 71-72
\(^{16}\) Sixth Five Year Plan 1980-85 Planning Commission 1981. 359-60
five year plan was integrated approach to higher education. Its expansion, relevance in the context of changing socio-economic scenario and promotion of value education as well as strengthening of management system in the universities were the main focus.  

In the Ninth Five Year Plan, 16 schools were opened. Under other educational programme, the Department proposed various educational concessions like backward classes concession, free education to girls upto XII standard and free education of B.Ed. courses to girls students in the area where proportion of women-literacy is less, and concession to wards of ex-servicemen, wards of primary teachers, secondary teachers and other staff etc.

One of the basic objectives of the Tenth Plan was the complete eradication of illiteracy among the people in the age group of 15 to 35 years. The thrust areas identified for general education are – to accelerate the tempo of universalisation, to achieve universalisation of primary education, it is necessary that children in the age group of 3-5 years should enroll their names in the schools and attend the classes regularly. To achieve the goal of universalisation and for effective operationalisation of the primary schools, it was considered essential to establish *Balwadis* in the campus of each *Zilla Parishad’s primary school*. To reduce the drop-out rates among the students at primary level, a congenial atmosphere was created in the rural and backward areas by involving local bodies in villages, to educate the economically weaker sections of the society about the importance of school education, and to encourage the families of the weaker sections to send their children for primary education, were identified. Adult illiterates within the age group of 15 to 35 years and to ensure their participation in the total literacy campaign, and increase the tempo of adult education programme, motivation campaigns were organized.

Tribal and backward Sub-Plan area, encouraged involvement of cooperatives and factories functioning in the rural areas in the process of eradication of illiteracy among adults. The construction of two room units of primary school buildings was initiated under Operation Black Board.

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Programme. The Government started the scheme of book banks in primary schools to provide a set of books to the needy students. Free text books were provided to all the students studying in Standard I to IV of Zilla Parishad Primary School. A set of free uniforms and writing material was provided to all students belonging to the SC/ST category in standard 1 to 4. The Government of India provided extra resources, for accelerating the pace of educational development of the districts which are educationally backward, through the World Bank. Secondary education was by and large managed by private institutions and grant-in-aid paid on the basis of an approved formula.

The focus of the Government has thus, been on the universalization of education at primary secondary and higher levels, up gradation of syllabi and facilities and improving the standard of education in general. The five year plans have also been concerned with job orientation in education, co-curricular activities and the provision of grants and scholarships. One of the major concerns has been to identify gaps and structural problems in order to provide an educational programme for the masses. The government has also taken up the issue of providing text-books to the economically weaker sections. Adult literacy has also been one of the major planks of the planning commission. These issues had been underlined by Lajpat Rai in the early 20th century and he had grappled with these concerns for his entire life. Lajpat Rai had demanded mass compulsory education improvement in education at different levels especially higher and on the vocationalization of education. For almost a hundred year after his early responses we are still identifying the same problems. Lajpat Rai's concept of education also went into several additional aspects like health, patriotism which have not been given recognition even today. It seems that Lajpat Rai's solution to the basic problems in education need to be given a second look. The five year plans have not gone much beyond the understanding of Lajpat Rai.

In addition to the Five Year Plans the government has also set up a number of commissions to tackle the problems of education. In 1948-1949 the Union Government appointed the University Education Commission under the Chairmanship of Dr. Saravapalli Radhakrishnan, the eminent educationist who later became the President of the Indian Republic. The Commission was appointed to go into the various aspects of University Education in India and
suggest ways and means for its improvement and reorganization. The secondary level education was also reviewed by it with reference to those aspects that closely related to the university. It remarked, that ‘Secondary education is the weakest link in our entire educational machinery and needs urgent reform.’ It recommended higher salaries and better service conditions for teaching staff, the organizing of refresher courses, providing good books, library facilities and laboratories and workshops for teachers. It emphasized on the study of physical, basic environment science and value education, provided facilities for post graduate research and teaching, and proposed professional course like agriculture, commerce, engineering technology, and law. It criticized the existing system of education and suggested improvements in method of examination, of examiners paper-setting and organization of examination.

The University Grants Commission was set up in 1952 as a result of the recommendations of the Radhakrishnan Commission to consider the financial difficulties of the universities and provide them financial help. The functions of the University Grants Commission are the promotion, advice and co-ordination of university education, grants and financial assistance to Universities, review committees, assistance for research work, teachers/ students welfare, updating scientific equipments, book and journals. It also suggested some reforms in the examination system.\(^{18}\)

Under the Chairmanship of Dr. A Lakshman Swami Mudaliar, the Vice-Chancellor of Madras University a Commission was appointed to enquire into the position of secondary education and to suggest measures for its reorganization and improvement which submitted its report in June, 1953 and presented recommendations on almost all the aspects of secondary education. The major recommendations of the Commission were: installation

\(^{18}\) These recommendations include: Reducing the number of external examinations, minimizing the element of subjectively, encouraging rational understanding, to set one paper on one day, maintain school re. jords, final assessment on the results of the eternal exam's, one final examination, compartmental system, provision for qualifying additional subject. Defects in Existing system of education lack definite aim, not real text of student's knowledge, element of subjectivity, adverse effort on physical and mental health, adverse influence on methods of teaching, lowering of moral standards, adverse effort of division systems.
of higher secondary system; diversified courses; three language formula; emphasis on educational and vocational guidance; improvements in methods of teaching, provision of good text-books; modification in the system of examination; better teaching personnel; improvement in physical welfare of students; and building and equipment. The NCERT was established on 1st September 1961 to improve the quality of school education. It promotes and coordinates research in all branches of schooling, organizes pre-service and in-service training at advanced level, undertakes and organise studies, investigations and surveys relating to education and improves techniques and practices.

In 1964-66 the education commission popularly known as the Kothari Commission was appointed by the Government of India under the headship of DR. D.S. Kothari, the Chairman of University Grants Commission. The agenda was 'to advise the Government on the national pattern of education and on the general principles and policies for the development of education at all stages and in all aspects." The Commission studied the problem of education in India and submitted its report to the Education Minister of India on June 29, 1966. The Commission called for a drastic reconstruction of Indian education. On the recommendation of the Commission, the salary scales of teachers have been revised in most of the states. The Government has already implemented certain other suggestions and the efforts are still being made to implement the rest.19

Several other commissions have contributed to the development of education. The International Commission on Education (1971-72) to study the problems of the present day and to formulate a universal concept of education for the future. The main recommendations of the report are life long education, education as a mass movement, less formalities in institution, mobility and choice, pre-school education, basic education, broadening general education, maximizing vocational mobility, larger role of commerce and industry in education, variety of higher education, evaluation procedures, adult education, literary programme, self learning, educational technology,

new techniques, status of teachers, teacher training, and learner's responsibilities.

In 1977 the Ishwarbhai Patel Committee recommended alternative courses in Science and Maths, board-based general education, no home work, educational commandments, text books for class 1, III, IV and V, school hours of 2½ - 3 hours a day, productive work, providing options with no rigid academic year.

Dr. Malcom Adiseshiah Review Committee of 1978 planned a vocationalisation at the +2 stage and recommended its implementation at the secondary and higher secondary stages. It formulated, work – based learning, vocationalized courses in agriculture and related rural occupational areas and in managerial, commercial, health and other vocations. It proposed a flexible streaming of courses, with two broad components – general education spectrum and vocationalised spectrum. It recommended the preparation of suitable text-books to suit local needs and conditions, pre-service and in-service training of teachers to bring about proposed changes, proper identification and explanation of locally available resources where necessary provision for additional financial resources must be made.

In the National Policy on Education drafted in 1979, the highlights, were - twelve year school education, the medium of instruction at the primary stage, should be mother – tongue though facilities should be provided in schools for teaching English or a foreign language. A three-language formula was recommended, along with a vocationalisation of secondary education. The mode of evaluation should discourage memorization and should be comprehensive, according to this policy and there was need to narrow down the gulf between the educated classes and the masses.20

Since the distortions introduced into the educational system by the colonial power had far-reaching consequences, as they had in the case of economic processes, and as some of these still persist, poisoning the atmosphere of our academic endeavours, it may be worth while to identify some of the main characteristics of the educational system inherited by independent India. First, the system was quantitatively a miniscule with only a

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marginal section of the population within its area of influence. The literacy rate was low. In 1951 literacy was only 16.67%. Second, education responded to the needs of colonial administration rather than of socio-economic development. Third, the multi-level educational system was highly pyramidal. The transition rates from the primary to the middle, from the middle to the secondary and from the secondary to the higher secondary, were exceptionally low. Fourth, education at higher levels was concentrated in and around the port cities which were the headquarters of 'Presidency Universities'. Fifth, the socio-economic base of education was extremely narrow. The rural areas, had a minimal kind of educational facilities, the level of female education was particularly low. Sixth, education was essentially teaching, and not 'learning' oriented. Seventh, the educational system was intended to weaken the forces of national integration. Therefore the task before independent India was to remove the problems of the inherited structure of the educational system and transform it into a social force geared to self-reliant development. The task before India was quantitative expansion, to strengthen the linkage between education and the labour market, to universalize primary education, to vocationalize secondary education, to reduce regional disparities in the spread of education, to widen the socio-economic base, to transform the essentially teacher and teaching - oriented education into an essentially learning and learner-oriented education and to develop education to contribute to national integration, humanism and love for nature. All these elements of education had been identified by Lajpat Rai as the solution to the then existing problems of the education system. He had included universal primary education, vocalization, teacher taught relation, teaching of patriotism, and humanity in his proposed scheme of national education.

When we critically assess the advances made since independence we find the country is engaged in modernizing itself and building the largest and the most complex educational system in the world. There is a quantitative expansion of education and the gaps between different social groups and inequities have been narrowed. But there still exists a multi-level system of inequities among women and schedules castes. The national component in the Indian education system has been considerably eroded. The introduction
of the core national curriculum in the school system is still a dream. Regionalism, communalism, gender, prejudice and casteism are still reflected in the school text-books. “Hindu” period or the “Muslim” period of history still continue to haunt the history class rooms. In fact, the very content of history is under heavy debate. The system continues to be essentially teaching and teacher oriented. The learning process has yet not come to acquire the central focus of the school exercise. The creativity yet not been given attention it deserves. The examination system too needs to be reframed.21

Education as a process has been, and continues to be a unified field of study. Both quantitative analysis and qualitative judgments were studied from time to time by the schools, from scholars from different fields and with the commencement of development planning, India entered a new era of educational response. Despite the efforts made by colonial rulers and the Government of India through Education Commissions and Planning education is on the verge of collapse. The process of educational development can neither be homogeneous in regional spread, nor neutral to social formation. Although the planning process has tried to check these distortions and it is realized that ‘growth with equity’ is one of the major goals of social planning, inter-group and inter-regional inequities needs serious attention.

To measure the efficiency of education in India the following attributes of education- accessibility, availability, quantity, quality, equity, inter-connectivity and utility have been considered.22 The attribute of accessibility, means the physical distance between the school and the residence of a child and may be considered to be an important criteria in adjudging the efficiency of the system. The following distances has been considered walkable for various levels – Primary 0.5 km, Middle 2.00km Secondary and Higher secondary 4.0 km - accessibility relates to geographical distance. There are as many as 245 districts which suffer from poor accessibility. 99 among these 245 districts have three fourths of their population which is not covered by

22 . Moonis Raza Aljazuddin Ahmad and Sheel C. Nuna School Education in India The Regional Dimension 26-27

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schools located within the walkable distance.\textsuperscript{23} Availability is a function of the size of the school-going population. The areas which have difficult terrain features have quite often a low population with a relatively smaller number of children per school. 78.53 percent of population of all habitations was covered by primary schools, whereas in schedule caste habitations is only 62.40 percent.\textsuperscript{24} The utilization of schooling facilities has been measured, on the one hand by literacy rates, as the end product of the efforts put in by the formal, as well as the informal streams of the educational endeavour and, on the other and by enrolment rates reflecting the prevalent situation. Quality of education is of vital significance. The teacher-pupil ratio, the number of teachers as percentage of sectional posts and female trained teachers along with structure facilities, provides a stick yard to the quality of education. Interconnectivity is concerned with the flow of students from one grade to another. The output of each stage is an input into the next higher stage. The socio-economic barriers block progress and needs to be seriously dealt with.

In the present day, the educational development in Indian is characterized by glaring regional disparities. The physical and the social factors determine the accessibility of education and there is a need of an effective policy intervention. Availability reflects the demand for schools cut at the root of the objective of universalization of elementary education. Even the objective of universalization of elementary education remains a far cry though efforts were made to improve the quality of education but still the situation is far from good. Availability is the first necessary condition for the universalization of education and this should be treated as a major task and cannot be postponed any longer. There is a lack of infrastructure. Even today, schools do not have proper buildings, the teacher-pupil ratio is unfavourable, trained teachers are few and teaching posts remain unfilled. The basic amenities continue to be inadequate. In order to improve the quantity of education one should re-design the system in terms of content and teaching methods and provide basic amenities of life. The high drop-out rates at the elementary stage indicate that the system is too weak to retain the children in

\textsuperscript{23}. Moonis Raza Alizuddin Ahmad and Sheel C. Nuna \textit{School Education in India The Regional Dimension} 44
\textsuperscript{24}. Ibid 45
schools even at the initial stages of learning. There is iniquitous development of education and study reveals that despite all-round efforts to make education a viable input in economic development, the situation is far from satisfactory. There are social and economic factors which inhibit the uniform spread of education among the female children.

Lajpat Rai had identified similar problems more than a hundred years ago in the then existing colonial educational system. He pointed out the worst condition in the primary education, was discouraged by the secondary and higher education which was not according to the needs of the students. No encouragement was given to private enterprise. He, in order to overcome the problems in the education system proposed universal education and stressed on the role and responsibility of the State. He advocated vocational education for preparation to the battle of life. To Lajpat Rai the education system under the colonial rule was chronically lacking. He made some suggestions during his time to meet the then existing problems some of these proposals were broad in nature and encompassed expansion and vocationalisation in education at all the three levels primary, secondary and higher. The committees and commissions in the post-independence period have focused on these areas from time to time. They did not however, refer to the detailed critique of Lajpat Rai which highlighted several major problems in the pre-independence structure. The commissions also neglected aspects of patriotism, health and co-curriculum activity and close interaction of society with education as identified by Lajpat Rai. Lajpat Rai's basic features like an All-India educational agency, recognition to provincial vernacular and provision of text-books were covered in the new government planning. Lajpat Rai also underlined the necessity of proper training for teachers but this was only partially addressed by the government committees. However, some of the problems identified by Lajpat Rai as having bearing on the education were overlooked. Among there the issue of communalism, careful writing of text-books and importance to local and regional conditions were not given due attention. Lajpat Rai does not provide much detail into the implementation of these aspects but he does identify their significance to the educational structure. Lajpat Rai pointed out new direction in education through his concept of national education but there were not incorporated in the post-
independence period. It seems that Lajpat Rai’s solution to the basic problems in education need to be given a second look. The five year plans have not gone much beyond the understanding of Lajpat Rai.

III

Education is a life long process. There are basic and inherent problems in our education system which need a critical and analytical study. Primary education plays the most significant role in laying the foundation of a child’s physical, mental, emotional, intellectual and social development. “Primary Education is not concerned with any class or group, but has to cover the entire population of the country; it touches life at every point and it has direct bearing of the formation of national ideology and character than any other single activity - social, political and educational. Those of us who are concerned with the great work of primary education should, therefore, visualize its problems and objectives not in the context of the dark, dingy buildings but against the background of the ultimate ends and purposes”.

Wastage and stagnation is an evil which hampers the growth of education at the primary stage. A number of economic, social and educational causes are responsible for this situation – poverty, illiteracy of parents, conservatism, backwardness, defective curriculum and lack of facilities. Unimpressive teaching methods, lack of trained teachers, over-crowded class rooms, irregular enrolment, lack of homogeneity, defective examination system, physical weakness of children, irregular attendance are some of the issues faced in elementary education today. The problem of wastage and stagnation is very complicated. Yet, it is not unsurmountable. It can be solved by educating the parents, giving financial help, removing social evils, provision of part-time education, improvement of school environment and curriculum, provision of work experience, proper teaching methods and appointment of trained teachers, re-structuring examination system, provision of more schools, removal of heterogeneity, Parent-Teacher Associations and provision of Non-formal education. Though the problems of wastage and stagnation are


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acute, sincere efforts to implement the above suggestions will definitely bring positive results.

Secondary education plays an important role in training youth to take an active part in social re-construction and economic development of the country. The problems concerning expansion of secondary education are lack of awakening among backward classes and women, facilities for social education, limited fee concessions and lack of job oriented teaching. The measures for the expansion of secondary education, should include provision of part-time education and correspondence courses, expansion of secondary education for girls and specific categories, vocationalization and proper implementation of the national policy of education. The aims and objectives of social education should not be rigid and they should continue changing according to the needs of the society.

The curriculum should be related to society and should be designed following flexibility and variety keeping in view its utility for leisure. Curriculum organization should begin at the early school stage up to the higher level and a social curriculum should also be introduced. The problems related to textbooks such as imbalanced approach, unnecessary and irrelevant factual information, poor illustrations and biased one sided opinions negate the aims of education. Text-books need to be constantly revised and the issues resolved by reviewing committees, prescribing a reasonable number of books and ensuring neutral and secular approach. The teaching methods too are marred by uninteresting, mechanical and dull ways which are further hampered by lack of motivation and independent thinking and flawed examination system. Inadequate research and implementation in training methods can easily be overcome by conscious inculcation of desirable attitudes, stress on reality, clear thinking, practical knowledge and love for work.

There are major defects in the prevalent system of examination which is not really a test of knowledge and understanding but of memory. Such testing is not reliable and is unable to realise the aims of education. It actually leads to more degradation and deterioration in the method of teaching. Rational understanding is not encouraged, neither is weightage given equally
other activities. Several problems of evaluation and fairness leaves students confused and unhappy, leading to increased pressure on them.

Some problems are directly related to teacher training education as well. Training should aim at preparing the teacher for all aspects of education like focus on aims of education, psychological approach to the students, use of various techniques and devices to impart knowledge, organization of various activities and maintenance of records. There should be quality improvement of teacher education by re-orientation of subject knowledge, vitalization of professional studies, improvement in the methods of teaching and evaluation, revision and improvement of curriculum, and special courses for teacher training.

Vocationalization, as introduced in the education system, is rather inadequate and ineffective. The vocational subjects and their implementation in the mainstream pattern remain disjointed and unrelated to the future occupational possibilities. The vocational options are more like appendages than full fledged apprenticeship or training phases. A more realistic approach which fits the students for gainful employment after completion of school life is the need of the hour.

One of the emerging problems in our country is the seeming absence of moral education. The teaching of social, moral and spiritual values should constitute an integral part of our education and educational institutions to help us fight against the divisive forces of religious fanaticism and serve the county and humanity in the best way. There is no doubt that socially conscious people alone can direct society towards social, economic and national advancement. Every possible effort should be made to make all types of education available to the masses. There should be no gap between the education of boys and girls, or one social category and another. Gender bias could also be reduced by encouraging co-education. A properly structured co-education system would provide gender sensitization and a platform for accepted moral and social norms of society.

All these varied aspects of education were the concern of Lala Lajpat Rai as reflected in his writings and speeches throughout his life. He discussed the problems of education in the colonial period in depth and put forth solutions and suggestions to meet them. The problems identified by him were
not much different from those today and his answers to these problems could be incorporated in order to solve present day issues. Lajpat Rai was an active and enthusiastic educationist with his firm faith in nationalism as well as secular and scientific values which, he believed, formed the core of learning. In his opinion, education could be neither communal nor chauvinistic. His concerns with all-round development – both mental and physical – for each child remains one of the basic needs today. Lajpat Rai believed in balanced action, was in favour of careful and critical consideration, as well as broad and thoughtful planning. Spiritual heights were not the ideals of his educational philosophy. He believed that knowledge is universal and there was nothing national or foreign in human knowledge. Education was also non-sectarian and therefore, its pursuit was not possible along dogmatic lines of faith and religions. He wanted to modernize education in India. He was a great votary of modern Indian languages. His suggestion to restructure education according to the modern needs is no less valuable today. This is the time to call for "Learning to live, learning to learn, so as to be able to absorb new knowledge all through life, learning to think freely and critically learning to love the world and make it more humane, learning to develop in and through, creative work.

Dr. Zakir Husain, the President of India in his foreward to a new addition of Lajpat Rai’s *The Problem of National Education in India*, in 1966 states. " It is like a review of educational attitudes and problems of today. It is honest, forthright and objective. It is an example of the quality of a great and free mind that comprehends not only the issues which engage thoughtful persons of his own time, but are likely to be significant questions in future as well ...'. He was right, for even today, Lajpat Rai’s analysis seems relevant to meet the challenges in education and give new direction to education in the future keeping in mind the needs of our society.
Education in the United States

I think one of the elementary tests by which the civilization of a country or a nation should be judged is the importance which it attaches to the national care and education of its mothers and children. Most of the modern States of the West, at least all of the which are considered great now, recognise the national value of the child as distinguished from the value attached to it by the family and the parents. Hence most of them are elaborating laws and framing schemes to facilitate the birth of healthy babies and their development on healthy and sound lines after birth. There is nothing modern in the idea that the child is the father of the man and the citizen. The ideal is as old as the world. All the ancient civilizations of the world recognised it and the Hindu Smritis (Law-codes) attached great importance to the care and education of the child. The modern world is, therefore, in this respect, at least, following the track laid down for it by older and more ancient nations of the earth. In Europe and America, the idea is of comparatively recent growth. It has developed only within the last 50 years and it cannot be said that it has reached the height of development it is capable of. In ancient civilizations the need of education was based on religious and spiritual grounds. In the modern it is based on economic grounds. In the former case the guiding motive who the care of the soul; in the latter that of the body, individual and politic. In Europe the idea first materialised in compulsory school attendance laws. The object was to increase the intelligence and efficiency of the units of the body politic in the material and national interests of the latter. Some years ago the President of the British Association of Science, in the course of his inaugural address, remarked that national expenditure on education was even more necessary than that on the Army and the Navy. The safety and efficiency of the nation depended as much, if not more, on the former as an on the latter. The school is the manufactory of a nation. A comparison of the expenditure incurred by the great nations of Europe on education and on ornaments will disclose that the colossal growth of the latter has been followed by proportionate growth of the former. One competition has led to the
other and very properly, too. The objects of an efficient Army and Navy are power to acquire new territories and to defend those already acquired. The ultimate aim is wealth and glory. Success in the struggle for wealth and glory depends, as much, if not more, on efficient and thorough training of the mind of the nation as on the training of its body and muscles. Hence the great nations of the West have been vying with each other in their provisions national education. Germany was the first in the field. Its compulsory school attendance laws are more than a century old and at the present moment it is easy first in its educational activities and equipments. In Prussia more than 16.4 per cent of the population attend school. In all important German cities more than 99 per cent of the children (from 99.2 to 99.93) finish the eighth grade course (i.e., eight years schools course). In the United Kingdom, Scotland was the first in the field of compulsory school attendance and it still maintains its first position in educational efficiency. Similarly, much has been done in England. Wales and Ireland also, to bring them up to the level of Germany in educational efficiency. The United States have followed suit and to me it seems that the facilities for education in America are perhaps even greater and more profuse than in the United Kingdom. The educational problem in the USA is rather complicated by reason of the unceasing flow of comparatively uneducated and illiterate immigrants into the country. Yet educational achievements of America are monumental. In 1913 in a total population of about 97 millions with an estimated school-going population (of persons 5 to 18 years of age) of about 251½ millions, the number equally in schools was a little over 181½ millions. The development within the last 40 years may be judged from the following figures:

In 1877, the population of the United State of America was a little over 46 millions and the number of students enrolled was about 9 millions. In 1913, the number was 181½ with a population of 97 millions.

II

A complicated problem

The educational problem in the USA is seriously affected by the constant inflow of immigrants, by the Negro problem and by the problem of the aboriginal Indians. School attendance is not yet compulsory in some
Southern States where the Negro problem is the largest. The Negro publicists complain that the States do not give them sufficient facilities for educating their children; the schools are few; the school buildings inadequate; the teachers underpaid and overworked; the provision for higher and secondary education almost nil. Similarly the percentage of literacy among the aboriginal Indians is comparatively low, as they do not take to schools kindly and easily. As for immigrants, the number of immigrants admitted into the United States has been never below 500,000 since 1870. In 1914 it reached the colossal figure of 1,400,000. In some schools in Boston (Massachusetts), New York and Chicago the children of the immigrants speak so many as 25 different languages. In certain factories and workshops in these cities the number of languages spoken is even larger. The workmen employed do not understand each other except by signs; and sign-boards hung up in the premises as warnings or for other purposes are printed in as many other characters as the nationalities that are represented in the factory. Consequently the percentage of illiteracy in these big States is higher than in some smaller States which is higher than in some smaller States which are not so seriously affected by the annual influx of immigrants; although school attendance is compulsory in these States and the amount of money spent by these states on Public School education is colossal. The State of New York, alone, for example, maintains 11,642 Elementary Schools for a Total population of about nine million souls. The following table gives the details of the institutions directly administered by the State of New York:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Number</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Elementary Schools</td>
<td>11,642</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High Schools</td>
<td>948</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universities and Colleges</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional Schools</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nurses Training Schools</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fine Arts Schools</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manual Schools</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training Schools</td>
<td>136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indian Schools</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schools for Detectives</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business Schools</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public Libraries</td>
<td>513</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational and Agricultural Schools</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
III

High Education:
The development in higher education in the USA within the last 40 years may be judged from the following figures:

### High Schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1877 A.D.</th>
<th>1813 A.D.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Institutions</td>
<td>1340</td>
<td>13,445</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>6759</td>
<td>67,002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>98,485</td>
<td>12,83,009</td>
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</table>

### Universities and Colleges

<table>
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<th>1813</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Institutions</td>
<td>443</td>
<td>586</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professors and Instructors</td>
<td>4865</td>
<td>19858</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>66737</td>
<td>202231</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Schools of Medicine and Theology

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1870</th>
<th>1813</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Institutions</td>
<td>249</td>
<td>411</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professors and Instructors</td>
<td>1799</td>
<td>10019</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>16422</td>
<td>49081</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In 1913 altogether 564,460 teachers (not Professors and Instructors in Colleges) were engaged in the work of School education, of which 451,118 were women.

In 1913 the total expenditure incurred on school education was over 534 million dollars, that is, 1602 million Rupees or say 160 crores of Rupees. This is exclusive of expenditure on College education as well as on education imparted in special or professional or vocational Schools. These figures do not include schools maintained by private agencies.

The exhibit of the United States Bureau of Education at the Panama-Pacific International Exposition, San Francisco, puts the figure of expenditure on education which is under the review of the Department of 800 million Dollars, i.e. 240 crores of Rupees a year.

There are twenty Universities in the country which spend from a little over a Million Dollars (i.e. 30 lakhs of Rupees) a year to about 41½ million Dollars (i.e. one crore and 35 lakhs of rupees) each. The annual income of the
Harvard University is round figures is about 4400 thousand Dollars (equivalent to one crore and 32 lakhs of Rupees) and that of Columbia about 3800 thousand Dollars, i.e., one crore and 14 lakhs in Rupees. The number of students who receive instruction in these 20 Universities (omitting the minor ones) ranges from 3225 in the University of Missouri to 10884 in the University of Chicago. Three of these 20 big Universities are situated in the State of Illinois alone, claiming between them over 21000 students. Similarly there are three big University in the city of New York claiming between them over 17000 students. The State of New York alone administers 34 Universities and Colleges (exclusive of Columbia and other privately endowed Universities). Speaking of the 20 big Universities in the country, they employ a staff of from 242 to 716 Instructors and Professors each. The private endowed University of Harvard provides for 1052 subject courses and the State University of Minnesota for 1622 subject courses. The figures for higher education given above do not necessarily include the Technological Institutes and the other Vocational and Trade and Industrial Schools maintained by private endowments and private agencies which train and educate hundreds and thousands of students besides those receiving education in regular High Schools and Universities, nor do the figures include the numerous proprietary colleges and schools maintained by individuals or Associations for profit.

IV
Sources of funds for education

The funds for educational purposes are derived from the following sources.

(1) Federal Revenues
(2) State Revenues
(3) City Funds
(4) Private Endowments
(5) Fees

The Income from (4) in some places far exceeds the amount received from the first three sources. The Americans are most lavish in making fits and giving donations for educational purposes, and their gifts amount millions of Dollars.
The responsibility of the State

But what impress me most was the responsibility assumed by the Government for the education of every child born in the country, male or female. The co-operation of private agencies, individuals and corporations is welcomed but that does not relieve the Government of its duty and responsibility. The facilities provided by private agencies only supplement what is being done by the various State and City Governments in the performance of their governmental duty. For example, there are numerous private agencies in the country for child welfare. Their work begins with the care of would be mothers and extends to taking care of the child till he reaches the age of majority. The States maintains a Children's Bureau as an integral part of its Labour Department whose duty is "to investigate and report on all matters pertaining to the welfare of children and child-life", among all classes of the American infant mortality, the birth rate, orphanages, juvenile courts, desertion, dangerous occupations, accidents and diseases of children, employment, and legislation affecting children in the several States and Territories comprised in the USA. This Department has nothing to do with the Health Department, which is separate. It is maintained by the Federal Government as a Federal Establishment and is in close touch with all child-welfare agencies, public or private, Governmental or Municipal, in the different States and territories of the USA. The Federal Government maintains complete statistics of all children in the country, wherever born, with particulars as to their sex, age, race, nationality, parentage and geographical distribution. The children welfare agencies keep complete records of children born in their respective spheres of activity and follow them up from the date of their birth up to the date of their entering life as adults. These agencies provide for visits to would be mothers, giving them advice and help when needed with a view to the welfare of the child when born. Then after birth, these agencies teach the mother how to take care of the child. Lady visitors and nurses visit the homes and give advice to mothers free where the family is not in a position to pay. In cases beyond the capacity of the nurse, medical aid and advice of a superior kind is also provided for. Where the child suffers for want to sufficient food or unhealthy surroundings means are found to
remedy both. A complete and full history of every child is thus preserved and he is followed wherever he goes and whatever he does till he becomes adult. Before he arrives at the school going age he is looked after by vigilant eyes and every help is rendered to the parents in looking after his health and in bringing him up. Food, clothing, pure air, recreation, kindergarten lessons, health literature for the mother, medical aid, are looked after and provided for. The State and the City recognise these efforts, and, wherever needed or required, supplement them. As soon as the child reaches the school age, the State assumes the responsibility for his education. He must attend a public school. The education given to him is free. Some States and Cities find everything for him free of cost, books, paper, ink, slate, even food when he is insufficiently fed at home. During this time the State and the private agencies spare no effort to see that he receives proper education, is properly fed, clothed and housed, and that his physical and moral development is normal and sound. In case of abnormal children, called defectives, special arrangements are made both for their treatment and education. Special agencies have been provided by the State, cooperating with philanthropic organisations, to look after the moral welfare of school-going children. There are Inspectors invested with legal powers to watch children in the streets, in smoking and drinking saloons and in other similar resorts. When caught they are brought before juvenile courts and treated as parents would treat recalcitrant children. The object is not to punish but to reform. The State makes laws providing against children being employed in certain trades and industries or beyond certain hours whenever such employment is considered to be dangerous of detrimental to his healthy (physical and moral) development. There are regularly organised Associations or Leagues whose constant and sole duty is to watch the child labour laws. They keep a vigilant watch over legislation affecting child labour, suggesting measures or amendments or modifications in the interests of the children. Similarly a close watch is kept on child employment agencies including such needy parents as benefit from the labour of their children. Sometimes children have to be protected from their parents, if the latter would sweat them, or would maltreat them, as, for example, by employing them in dangerous trades or in immoral
vocations or by employing them for a longer number of house than the law
allows or when they neglect to feed or clothe them, and so on.

As soon as the child completes his child education he is looked after by
the agencies which help him in prosecuting his studies further, in fitting him for
some industry or profession, in providing means for the continuance of his
studies during leisure hours; in short in placing facilities or opportunities within
his reach by which he may further his prospects, make the most and get the
best out of himself. Schools and colleges follow their alumni in life and help
them by advice and otherwise in their careers throughout life.

All this is done by the State or by the State-aided Agencies or by
Agencies or by Agencies which have the fullest sympathy of the State. The
State and the Community recognise that the children of the nation are their
best and most valuable asset and that in the wise handling of the asset lies
their prosperity; that the State and the Community owe it to themselves that
every child should have the best training for the battle of life; that he should
have the best possible or the best available training to develop on healthy and
sound lines physically, intellectually and mentally; in short, that he individu­ally
should be able to make the most of his life and the State and the Community
should also get the best and the most out of him; and that this should be
achieved independently of the means and resources of his parents or of
himself. The State and the Community recognise that it is the birth-right of
every child born in the USA to receive all possible help from them towards
that end; that his obligations and duties as a citizen only begin after his birth­
right has been conceded to him. This leads us to vocational education.

VI

Vocational Education

The people in the United States are just now almost carry about
vocational education. The idea is to fit every child for some special occupation
or business in life. the whole superstructure of education is being more and
more built up on that supposition. The property and the wealth of a community
depend on the producing power of its members. To provide for the
development and increase of this producing power is then the business and
duty of the State and the Community. This is done in two ways, i.e., by
mechanical improvements and by improvements in the brains of the nation and by training every child to do the best he or she can in producing wealth. The object is individual prosperity as well as national prosperity. Every one must specialise for some trade or vocation of business or profession. He must definitely know his place in the national machinery and he must fit himself to fill that place to the best advantage of himself and the nation. This is achieved in various ways. Firstly, each child must receive kindergarten instruction. Kindergarten school are provided for by the State and are free. Then each child is given a certain amount of manual training as a part of his general education. The legs and hands must get as much training as his mind or memory. Drawing and modelling is a necessary part of each child’s education. Then he must receive his elementary instruction in some trade. It may be carpentry, smithy, book bindery, shee-making or something of that kind in the case of boys; sewing, cooking, domestic economy (including washing table plate, laundry, table laying, attending on table, decorating a house, keeping rooms neat and didy etc.) in the case of girls. Gardening is taught to both. Mathematics is a part of general education. After completing his eighth grade course every child has to decide or those looking after education have to decide whether he will prosecute his general studies in the High School and then in the College preparatory to his receiving special or technical instruction in the business of his life or whether he will go in, at once, for the latter. If he chooses the latter course, then he must choose his vocation and join an institution which gives instruction in that vocation. Here he receives both kinds of education, general and vocational, but with special emphasis on the latter. A child entering life after his elementary course, i.e. only after eight years of school life, must remain an unskilled labourer unless and until he learns a particular trade or a particular vocation. Formerly this was mainly done by apprenticeship in different trades. Now this is being done in schools and colleges. The best and the highest interests of the nation demand that the number of children who enter life immediately after finishing the elementary school education should be the lowest possible and that every child should be trained to be a skilled labourer, or an artisan or a handicraftsman. Between the elementary school educated and unskilled labourer and the highly finished product of technological institutes or Universities, there is another class
trained in educational institutions which give specialised instruction to the
majority of the nation's boys and girls in different vocations. These are called
vocation schools, or trade school or business schools or industrial schools or
agricultural schools. Every kind of conceivable industry or trade or business is
taught in these schools. The Agencies engaged in this work are State, State-
aided, and private. The Federal Government and different States are
spending colossal sums of money in furthering the cause of vocational
education. everything possible is being done to fix it on the mind of the nation.
In the Educational exhibited placed by the Federal Department of Education in
the Panama Pacific International exposition at San Francisco I found the
following exhibited in big capital letters as indicating the mind of the United
States federal Government on the subject:
(1) The State that fails to educate, dooms its children to industrial
subjugation to these States that do education. More than once have
nations lost their land for lack of education. Shall we prepare our
children to hold this land?
(2) Shall we equip an Industrial Army?
The School, the University, the Laboratory and the workshop are the
battlefields of this new warfare. The weapons which science places in
the bands of those who engage in great rivalries of commerce leave
those who are without them, however brave, as badly off as were the
Durweshes of Omdurman against the Maxims of Lord Kitchener. Shall
our children be Industrial Durweshes?
In order to emphasis the need of vocational and industrial education
the Congress of the United States has sanctioned the following scale of
grants for furthering the cause of vocational education in the country
from the federal Revenues:
(1) Towards the salaries of Teachers and Directors and Supervisors
of Agricultural Education in 1916. $ 500,000
(2) Towards the training of Agriculture, Trade, Industrial and Home
Economic Industries in 1916. $ 500,000
Towards the salaries of Teachers of Trade and Industrial Schools in 1916.

In the case of (1) and (3) this grant is increased by 250,000 every year till it reaches the figure of 3 millions in 1924, i.e., about a crore of Rupees. That figure then becomes an annual recurring figure.

Similarly in the case of (2) the figure is raised to one million in three years and is then to be maintained as an annual figure.

This is in addition to or besides what the States and Cities are doing or are expected to do in the coming years. This is the contribution of the Central Government alone.

Too much of a good thing: Some people are so alarmed at the growing popularity of the Vocational education as to consider it necessary to sound a note of occasional warning lest too much of a good thing in that line undermines the spirit of democracy which underlies the educational system of the United States. Only the other day Dr. Wheeler, the President of the University of California, an eminent educationist and a man of very great influence and position in the American world, made the following remarks in a speech he delivered at the convention in San Francisco of the State Teacher's Association. He said:

"I am wondering, too, whether this most recent zeal of 'vocational training', with all the possibilities of good, may not respond to the spirit of caste and minister to it. As such it surely bears within it the seeds of sin and destruction, does it propose that the life occupation of a child shall be determined for it early in life? That means that children shall follow mainly the credits of their parents. It is the old device of monarchical aristocratic Europe for committing the young to manual and industrial pursuits. It is the old derailing switch which can be relied upon to shunt the children of labouring classes out into the labour field at the age of 12 and shut them on from the open road to highest attainment, even though they have the talent and the will for it. That is not democracy. It is just the opposite. Democracy is the matter of free opportunity, a fair field and equal chance. The teaching of a vocation to young children, furthermore, does not provide them with an equipment which
will be available in the handicraft and industries of real life. It is misleading in making them think it does. The instruction of later years is another thing.

At the very heart of present day belief in education is our people’s faith in the common schools. They have developed pari passu with our democracy. Our people are persuaded that the maintenance of our peculiar institutions of popular government is depended upon their existence, and the full and the successful working of these institution upon.

VII

Some special features of the American system:

There are some special features of the American system of education which require mention.

(1) That in the United States, there do not exist any special schemes for the sons of the wealthy people. In this country there is no aristocracy of birth, I mean, as recognised aristocracy. The United States Government covers no titles. But it is not in the nature of things that there should be no grades among men. The United States have men who are possessed of fabulous wealth. Its Rockfellers, Carnegies, and Morgans can purchase Empires. Yet their sons are educated in the same schools in which the sons of the ordinary day labourers learn their ABC. The expression "public school" carries a different meaning in this country from what it does in the United Kingdom. The British Public School is meant for the sons of the aristocracy-meaning thereby the aristocracy of birth and the aristocracy of wealth. Etos, Harrow and Rugby are places reserved to the education of the sons of the aristocrats. There expensiveness alone excludes the possibility of a commissioner’s son receiving for the education of the sons of the aristocrats. In the United States a public school means a school open to all classes of the public and maintained from public funds, where all grades of American society received their instruction in the three R’s. The only special classes of schools are the schools for the children of Negroes, the Indians and the Defectives, or the religious schools maintained the denominational organizations.
Another special feature of the American system is that a very large part of the school education is in the hands of women. Most of the grammar schools, i.e., the eighth grade elementary schools are almost exclusively staffed by women. Even in the High Schools, the women are on the whole in a majority. Out of a total of 564,560 teachers employed in schools 451,118, i.e., over 4/5ths are women. Some people object to this preponderance of women in the teaching profession. A German professor at the University of Harvard thinks that this is likely to affect the manhood of the nation. He seems to think that large or almost exclusive contact with womanhood in the most impressionable part of a boy's life is likely to make him more soft than stern, which is not desirable in the larger interests of the nation. So far there are no signs of any lack of sternness in the manhood of the nation; on the other hand, signs of sternness and vigour are clearly visible in the womanhood of the country. There can be no manner of doubt that the women are the best teacher for young children. They know how to win their affection and esteem. They enforce obedience by love. The discipline maintained or enforced mainly by fear of the rod, brutalises as well as bemeans human nature. We find ample evidence of that in India.

That the American boys and girls read in the same schools and colleges from the kindergarten upwards. This is again a matter on which there is some difference of opinion among educational experts. The preponderance of opinion, however, is in its favour. At every University where I have been, I have made that a special point of investigation. I have been assured everywhere that the mixing of girls and boys in the same classes tends to refine the manners of the boys and adds to the dignity of the girls; that it inculcates habits of self-control in both; and that it adds to the pleasure of studies. The United States perhaps stands alone among the great countries of the West in the extent and the manner of enforcing this practice and I do not think there is any ground for saying that sexual relations are more loose or undesirable in the United States than in Great Britain or Germany. The United States certainly turns out of larger number of lady University
graduates than any other country in the West and the women of the country make a material contribution to the wealth, prosperity and culture of the country. In fact, so far as the last is concerned, one begins to feel that the woman is perhaps the great contributor of the two. The social and philanthropic activities are mostly guided, controlled as well as carried on by women. The Head of the Government Bureau for the welfare of the chlordane is a woman – a very able and a very sweet woman. Similarly religious and ethical activities are mostly in the hands of women. Men are generally busy in making dollars. The women also contribute their share in that business and religion, ethics, charity, social science, philanthropy are very largely dominated by women. The founder of the Christian Science Church was a woman and that church is very powerful and influential in the country. Most of the heads of the social settlements in New York, Chicago and other places are women. In the Theosophical and Vedanta movement also it is women who take great interest. Among the writers on the questions of the day one finds a good number of women. In the libraries, in lectures, and other centres of culture one finds a preponderance of women. The prohibition movement owes a great deal to the influence of women and so does the movement for the segregation of prostitutes and the abolition of the "red light" districts. In short the women play a great and a noble part in the life of the country, and this in spite of the fact that a very large number lead a frivolous and a purely gay life. But in this respect men are no better than women. That is due to general social conditions.

That the American educational institutions are centres of social life. School buildings are freely used for social functions and public recreations, and the various States and City Councils take special interest in developing such a use of school and college buildings. The school gymnasiums and play grounds are open to the public on certain terms and under certain conditions such as may not interfere with their use by the school children. The halls and other parts of the buildings are freely lent for lectures, recitations, concerts, dances and other similar functions. The Education Department is expected to report on
the progress of the movement from year to year. The provision for public recreation is considered to be an important duty of the Education Department, and I intend to describe in detail what is being done in that respect in one city as an instance of the interest that is being taken in the matter by public bodies.

(5) The games that are most popular in American schools and colleges are even more risky and dangerous than those prevailing in England. Some of them resemble very much the games that were popular in rural Punjab in pre-British days. Inter-school and inter-collegiate games and competitions constitute a very important item of American life and attract hundreds of thousands of spectators, may be millions, at times.

(6) The American schools and colleges give very possible encouragement to self-supporting boys and girls. The authorities take interest in them and allow them to complete their education by instalments. For example, a student may work for six months to earn money in order to enable him to study the next six months and so on. Thus a very large number of students prosecute their studies, who, otherwise, would never have been educated. The students are given jobs in the schools and colleges to earn their board and tuition fees, where the latter is charged; they are paid for works done in workshops; they attend at table at dinner time; they seep and clean rooms; they work on play grounds and in the garden, etc. The best part of this is that such students are not looked down upon either by the staff or by their fellow-students. The fact of their doing some menial jobs in order to earn their tuition fees, etc., in no way interferes with their studies in the school, on the play ground or in social functions. Their position among their fellow-students depends solely on their personal merits and not on the position of their parents.

(7) But the very best part of the American Educational System is the government of the students. All schools and colleges are little republics in which the internal affair of the student community are governed and administered by officers elected by themselves. Every year the students of each Department elect their officers and also a council which regulates all matters relating to discipline. All complaints of
misconduct or misbehaviour are reported to them and their decisions are reported to the head of the Department for necessary action. Theoretically, the Head of the Department may or may not act on the recommendation of the students' council but in practice he must. The President of a University or a College can interfere with a decision of the students' committee no more than the King of England can with the decision of the Cabinet. As I am writing an instance of this kind has just happened in the University of California. The Student's Committee has convicted a student of an attempt to steal and has recommended his expulsion. The student has appealed to the President for a rehearing. The President has told him to put in his appeal. Several Professors told me that the President cannot set aside the decision of the Committee. He, however, in consultation with the Faculty, which consists of the whole body of Professors and Assistant Professors in the Department, may recommend a rehearing, if he thinks that the case deserves a reconsideration.

Another special feature of American institutions consists in the personnel of the Controlling Agencies. Every University is controlled by a whole-time President, who is a paid officer and attends college just as other Professors do. The University is managed by him in consultation with the faculty but in most matters his decision is final. He in the case of the State Institutions. The Presidents of the American Universities wield the greatest possible influence in the public life of the country. The present President of the USA is a late President of the Princeton University. Under the President are Deans of the different faculties and the Heads of Departments. Most of the Deans are whole time officers who do not teaching; the Heads of Departments, however, take classes. Each subject constitutes a separate department, for example, the Department of Political Science, the Department of Sociology, the Department of Chemistry, of Agriculture, of Mining, and so on. The Heads of Schools are called Principals. Very few principals, if any at all, do teaching work. The whole of their time is devoted to contract personal relations with the teachers and the students, to cooperate with the parents in looking after and advancing the interests
of the students both in and out of school, in seeing visitors, in creating interest in the school in the community and in general administration.

VIII

A typical Recreation Department

I propose to close this paper by an account of the activities of the Recreation Department of the City of Oakland, California. This will show what interest the State takes in the physical development of its citizens and its children.

Recreation Department, City of Oakland, California

Oakland is known as a city of homes schools, churches, factories and commerce, but when the day’s work is done her citizens may turn to abundant opportunities for pleasure and recreation.

The average adult has from six to eight hours per day of leisure time. That is, one-fourth to one-third on one’s lifetime. A large part of this time is given over to amusement, recreation and play of various sorts. Children spend even a greater part of their time in this way.

Healthy and normal play and recreation make for better and more efficient citizenship. Play is the important and vital part of a child’s development, and some form of recreation is also necessary to the adult, if he is to achieve his maximum power. Even the old horse when turned out to pasture, plays and frolics and returns to work with renewed spirit.

Oakland may well be called the City of Playgrounds. The Oakland Recreation Department maintains thirty-eight playgrounds and recreation centres the year round. Thirty of these are school-yard playground and eight are large park recreation centres. In addition to the playgrounds for children, may sports and pastimes are provided for the adults. The recreation grounds are becoming more popular every day. Tennis, baseball, football, volleyball and folk dancing are the favourite sports for grown-ups. Social central buildings are available for club meetings, lectures, entertainments and dancing. Each recreation centre or playground is in-charge of trained supervisors whose duties are to lead and protect the children in their play and to promote and organize games, sports and other activities for all patrons of the ground.
All of these opportunities are under the management of the Board of Playground Directors and are free to the public. Good behaviour is the only password. The following are some of the principal activities to be found in the recreation grounds:

Athletics: Both informal and organized athletic games of all kinds are provided on the playgrounds. A number of baseball leagues are conducted and any boy who wishes to, man engage in the national game. There are ten public courts in Oakland, which receive constant use during the leisure hours of the people. The courts are frequently used for exhibition and match games by expert players.

Several basketball courts are provided at each playground and leagues organized in which as many as five or six teams are entered from a single playground. Volley-ball is a new game but during the past year has become very popular. During the fall season football is given much attention.

Field and track meets are frequently held during the spring session. Classifications, events and leagues are provided in the above sports so that any amateur may enter, regardless of age.

The following is the yearly athletic schedule of the Oakland playgrounds. Participation in these events is open and free to all:

Section 1. The games, sports and athletic events on the playgrounds shall be classified as follows:

(a) Major Sports – Baseball, track and field meets, soccer football, swimming, tennis, volleyball, German bat ball, hand ball.

(b) Minor Sports – Basketball, rugby football.

Contestants in the minor sports shall be classified according to weight:
while contestants in major sports shall be classified as follows:

Bantams: 12 years of age : 4 ft. 5 in. in height.
Midgets : 13 years of age : 5 ft. in height.
Intermediates : 15 of age : 5 ft. 5 in. in height.
Juniors : 17 years of age : 5 ft. 10 in. in height.
Seniors : Under 21 years and no height qualifications, or older by agreement.

Section 2. Playground games, sports and athletic events, in accordance with the seasons, shall be played as follows:
1. Spring sports shall start the 15 of March and end with the close of school, and shall include:

Baseball: To begin the first Saturday in April.

Individual athletic tests: To be conducted from March 15, until the holding of the track meet.

Track meet: To be held in the latter part of April.

2. Summer sports shall start with the beginning of the summer vacation and end with the opening of school. Baseball, Tennis tournament.

3. Fall sports shall start with the opening of schools and close with the beginning of the Christmas vacation.

Swimming meet - Last Saturday in August.
Handball tournament - September 1st
Rugby football - September 1st
Basketball - For the 80, 95, 110 and 120 pound classes to start October 15th.

4. Winter sports shall start with the Christmas vacation and end March 15th.

Soccer football
Basketball for the 130, 145 and unlimited classes.

This schedule applies to the large formal leagues only. Literally hundreds of other varieties of games are played all the year round.

Gymnasium. Outdoor gymnasium apparatus is provided on nearly all the playgrounds. Here the supervisors instruct on the rings, bars and in tumbling, wrestling etc.

Manual Training. On several of the recreation ground opportunities for boys’ and girls’ occupation work are offered. Model building, clay modelling, basketry and raffia are principal branches taught.

Small Children’s Department. Supervisors are required to teach a great number of circle, singing and running games for the benefit of small children coming to the playgrounds. Story telling hours are occasionally held when professional story tellers from the Oakland Library Department comes...
and entertain the children with tales about adventures, fairies and folklore. The sand box is always in evidence and is well patronized by the little tots.

**Folk Dancing.** Folk dancing is an important department for girls and small children. Almost every day on each playground classes are held and the children learn to dance the folk dances of the old and new world.

**Clubs.** A favourable method for handling groups on the recreation ground is by organizing them into clubs for various purposes. There are outdoor women’s clubs for the mothers, older sisters and friends of the children, groups of Campfire Girls for girls between twelve and eighteen years of age, Blue Bird groups for girls under twelve, boys’ clubs formed for numerous purposes, and dramatic clubs.

The clubs are organised with a president, secretary and various committees and are responsible for their own activities with such assistance as may be given them by the supervisors.

Any person may join a club by vote of the members, or a new club may be organized when a large enough group is formed.

**Field Houses.** The field houses on the various playgrounds are equipped with shower baths, dressing rooms, toilets, lavatories and lockers. Clean towels are supplied for the shower baths. There is also maintained on each playground a supply of athletic materials, such as baseballs, footballs, basketballs, bats and games. These supplies are issued to the patrons very much in the same manner as books are issued from the Public Library, except that all supplies must be used on the playground and must be returned before closing time each day. All these facilities are free to the public.

**Recreation Centre Buildings.** Several recreation centre buildings are maintained by the department and are equipped with halls, game rooms, committee meeting rooms and dressing rooms. These buildings are used for club meeting, dramatics, entertainments, games and social purposes. Free permits for the use of these buildings may be obtained by any responsible organization which will comply with the rules and regulations.

**Municipal Boat House**

The new municipal boat house and recreational activities on Lake Merritt have recently been placed under the control of the Board of Playground Directors.
The boat house is equipped with row boats, sail boats, canoes and large whale boats for use for crew rowing. Lockers and mooring privileges are provided owned boats. An excursion launch is in operation and makes regular excursion launch is in operation and makes regular excursion trips around the lake.

During the month of October 1914 (the second month of operation of the boat house) 11,119 persons went out in boats. Of this number over half the rides were practically free being in the form of crew rowing for school boys and girls and the balance in private boats, of which there are now 107.

**Aquatic Sports**

The chief source of interest in acquitic sports on Lake Merritt is due to the introduction of the crew rowing in the twelve - Oared navy whale boats. These boats, 28 to 30 feet long, are used in the navy for rowing practice and for racing. They are the lightest and more graceful model and yet exceptionally sea-worthy. A number of these were purchased by the City of Oakland at public auction from the Mare Island Navy Yard and placed on Lake Merritt a few months ago.

It was not long before various clubs and schools took advantage of the facilities. The boats are provided with coper air tanks to ensure perfect safety and are very steady because of their size thus being adapted to school going. The inspiration of team work in twelve persons pulling at the oars at the same time was responsible for the rapid gain in popularity of this sport.

Crews were formed from the following schools and clubs:


High Schools – Fremont, Oakland, Berkeley, Polytechnic and University High Schools.

University of California, Mills College, Miss Horton’s School, Miss Barnard’s Kindergarten Training School.

Playground Crews – deFremery, Mosswood and Bushrod Women’s Outdoo Clubs, Allendale Girl’s Crew, Popular Street playground Crew, and Bonita Club.
Working Boys and Girls Crew – The Spartan Club Alerts, Moasswoods and Y.M.C.A.

Some of these schools and clubs enumerated are represented by a number of crews, which gives some conception of the number to date who are receiving the benefit of this wholesome outdoor activity. In order to stimulate the interest in this sport regattas are held on the lake on the last Saturday of each month.

**Festivals**

One of the most interesting activities in the play grounds is the preparation and production of festivals, pageants and celebrations. Every national holiday, such as Independence Day, Washington's Birthday, and Admission Day, is celebrated with suitable ceremonies at each playground.

In the six months of the year 1915 this department maintained 38 grounds, and spent about one lakh and thirty thousand Rupees in the maintenance of these grounds and about a lakh of Rupees on their improvements. During these six months well nigh seven lakhs of persons attended these playgrounds. The City of Oakland is by no means one of the biggest cities of the United States.

The ideal aimed at can be gathered from the following standard laid down for each locality by the Federal Bureau of Child Welfare and exhibited at the Exposition.

Public play and recreation demand four centres.

1. Play Retreats for each city block for mothers and children under 7.
2. Play Centres around grade schools of boys and girls.
3. Athletic and game centres under Public Recreation Department for older boys and girls.
4. Social Recreation Centres for evening recreation of older people.

Every Government in Europe and America insists on states and cities making ample provision for public play grounds and recreation centres. The smallest school has a play grounds and a gymnasium. Public parks, public baths and public swimming tanks abound in every part of the most crowded cities like London, Berlin, Paris, New York, Chicago, etc., and the Cities and States have spent millions of Pounds and Dollars in making them and keeping
them in good condition, but a Public Recreation Department in perhaps a special feature of American life.

IX

A Warning

The preceding account of education in the United States might lead my readers to suppose that America must be a paradise on earth, entirely free from sin, poverty, squalor, immorality and physical degeneration. By no means so. So far as sin and immorality are concerned America has as much of it as any other community on the face of the earth; poverty and squalor perhaps she has less; physical degeneration perhaps the least. The fact is that considering the elements which make up her population she might be very much worse but for the care she takes in looking after the education and moral and physical welfare of her children. Her educational system is her saving and well might the other communities of the world take a leaf out of her book if they want to improve the intelligence, the morale and the physique of their people. The children of a nation are her capital and in the proper investment of that capital consists her property and life.

10th May, 1915

P.S. there is at least one state in the United States where they have abolished examinations altogether. Students are promoted and transferred from grade to grade, from school to school and from school to University on the Certificates of teachers. No examination are held. Certificates of graduation are, however, issued. I have omitted from this article all mention of education among Negroes, education among the aboriginal Indians and education in dependence. These I propose to deal with, in separate articles.
APPENDIX-IV

Education in Japan

Writing in the London Times Baron Dairoku Kikuchi, President of the Imperial Kyoto University, remarks that “education is regarded as one of the most important function of the State”.

The readers will those note that the whole of the exiting educational system in Japan has developed within the last 50 years. the progress as reported below is remarkable.

The school system

The Japanese school system, like that of other civilized countries, is of three kinds, viz., general education, special education, and technical education. In the wide sense of the term, special education includes technical education, but as the education which prepares farmers, mechanics or merchants has many points which are peculiar to itself for the sake of distinction, it has been placed in a separate category. Each kind of education is divided, according to grade, into primary, secondary, and higher education.

General education aims at giving the knowledge and training essential to everybody. It does not pretend to prepare pupils for any particular occupation.

II. Primary Education

The schools of primary grade which impart this general education are called elementary schools. It is intended that to these schools all the children of the nation, irrespective of position or difference of circumstances, should resort, in order to obtain the knowledge and training essential for everyday life. In this particular, the system of education resembles that of the United States of America, rather than those of European countries.

Baron Kikuchi sums up the whole question of Elementary Education in Japan in the following few sentences, which we cull from the “London Times”:-

At the base of the whole educational system lies the Elementary School. Below this there is the kindergarten, to which children may be admitted at the age of three until they become of the school age; but the kindergarten cannot be regarded as forming a part of the national educational system.
The object of elementary education is defined in the first article of the Imperial Ordinance on Elementary Schools as follows: "Elementary schools are designed to give to children the rudiments of moral education and of civic education, together with such general knowledge and skill as are necessary for life, while due attention is paid to the bodily development.

Elementary schools are divided into ordinary and higher schools, the two being however, often combined in one school building. The ordinary elementary school course extends over six years and is obligatory on every child, who must enter at the beginning of first school year after it has completed its sixth year of age. Every local community is bound to make necessary provisions for the free education of every child within its jurisdiction, and to see that parents send their children to school. Exemptions from compulsory attendance can be granted by the headman of a local community on grounds of physical disability, absolute poverty of parents & c. The higher elementary school course may extend over either two or three years, at the option of the local authorities. A small tuition fee may be charged.

We have italicised some words in this quotation. The Elementary Schools impart an education which aims at the intellectual moral and bodily development of children in such wise as to fit them for their place in society as members of the nation.

Schools and scholars according to the figures for the 40th statistical year of Meiji region:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1893</th>
<th>1903</th>
<th>1906</th>
<th>1907</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>74.8</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>98.2</td>
<td>98.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>40.6</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>94.8</td>
<td>96.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>58.7</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>96.3</td>
<td>97.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In 1907 there were 69 normal schools, with 12,290 male and 4,412 female pupils.
The courses of instruction in the ordinary elementary school are:-
Morals, Japanese Language, Arithmetic, Japanese History, Geography, Science, Drawing, Singing, Gymnastics, Sewing and Manual Work. Japanese History, Geography and Science only commence in the 5th School year and sewing in the 3rd. The reader will observe that in these schools no foreign language is taught and that lessons in singing and drawing are given from the very first school year. In the Higher Elementary Schools, agriculture, commerce and English language are added to the subjects of instructions mentioned above.

School attendance: The period of Schooling begins on the next day after the child reaches the 6th year of its age and expires when it reaches its 14th years. the method of enforcing attendance is typically oriental.

The Mayor or headman has to make an investigation concerning the children living in his city, town of village who will reach the beginning of the school attendance period by the month of April of the following year, and he has to make a list of them by the end of the year, where the school year begins in September he must have ready by the end of June his register of children who will reach the beginning of their school period in September. The guardians of such children are then notified beforehand of the day on which they must send their children to school. The names of such children, and the day on which they should enter the school, are communicated to the school director concerned, who prepares a school register in which to enrol the names of those children entering school at the beginning of the school year, while an attendance register is also made, in which the daily attendance of the children at school is recorded. When any of those children whose names have been given by the headman do not enter the school within seven days after the day appointed for their entrance, the school makes a report the upon to the headman in charge. When children belonging to the school absent themselves for seven consecutive days without good reason, their guardians must at once be notified thereof, and be instructed to make the children attend. In case their absence continues for another successive seven days, the headman in charge must be notified thereof. On receipt of such notification, the headman impresses upon the guardian the necessity of making the children enter the school, the matter is reported to the
superintending authorities. On receipt of such report, the district headman (Guncho) on behalf of the town, or village headman, or the local governor on behalf of the mayor, makes a fresh pressing demand that the children shall be compelled to enter or attend school.

Fees: - As a rule no fees are charged in ordinary Elementary schools. The number of schools in which tuition fee had not been entirely abolished by the end of 1907-08 was not more than 4 per cent of the entire number of such schools. Sir Lewis Dane, Lieutenant Governor, Punjab who, the other day, read a sermon to the manager of the Sardar Dyal Singh College Lahore, deprecating in a way the step they had taken to remit fees in the Primary Department of their school, may note and digest the fact.

**Popular control of Elementary Education**

In the discharge of school business belonging to the public corporation, as well as that of the state by the mayors of headmen, their special auxiliary agent is the educational committee. This committee must have among the members male teachers of the city, town, or village elementary schools. The duties of the committee consist of assisting the mayors, the city council, headmen of towns of villages, heads of schools union, and urban district headmen or their substitutes, and in stating their views in reply to inquiries or matters relating to school attendance, school equipments, estimates of current expenses, tuition fees, stock fund, adjustment of the course of instruction, number of school years, establishment or abolition of supplementary course, & c.

**School Discipline**

The school discipline is intended to be a means of instilling into the minds of the children the principles of good conduct and this by example and practice.

**III. Secondary Education**

Middle Schools: - Next to the Elementary Schools come the Middle Schools.

At present there is but one kind of middle school for the purpose of imparting a higher general education, and serving at the same time as a stepping-stone toward the attainment of a still higher education. Equal attention is paid to literary culture and to the practical studies, while care is
taken not to go too far in the direction of a strict mechanical uniformity. Although rules have been made regarding the standard courses of study and the principal points to be noted in teaching, the introduction of more or less alteration or modification is permitted to each school and some subjects, as for instance, law and economics, and singing, may be omitted entirely, and the hours allotted to them may be appropriated to other studies. In the supplementary course the inclusion is permitted, as optional studies, of such subject as are connected with the industry of the locality.

In the matter of admission to these schools no distinction is made. Secondary education being directly connected with compulsory education, it is made a fundamental principle not to admit anybody, regardless of distinctions of rank or position, unless he had passed through the ordinary elementary school course of six years, or is in possession of attainments equivalent thereto; and when the number of applicants is in excess of the number required, the choice of students is determined by comparative excellence of character and scholarship.

The subjects taught in these Middle Schools include Morals, Japanese Language and Chinese Classics, Foreign Languages, History, Geography, Mathematics, Natural History, Physics and Chemistry, Law and Economics, Drawing, Singing and Gymnastics. The foreign language taught in these schools is English, German or French. Much importance is attached, says the official reporter, to the Japanese language in which lies the foundation of the national sentiment, and to the classical Chinese, which having furnished the beginnings of the Japanese enlightenment is closely connected with the thought of the nation. At the same time the importance of the modern foreign languages and mathematical and physical sciences is duly recognised and never allowed to be lost sight of.

The Object of Training

The object of training combined with discipline lies in the realization of the principles of the middle school education, which concerns itself little with the amount of knowledge imparted as compared with bringing into exercise what small amount of knowledge has been already acquired, so as to cultivate a habit of reflection and sound judgement. In art studies, the object aimed at is that all the students should be given practice, not too much time being
given to mere discourse, or lecturing on the part of the teacher; and a restriction is placed on the mere exercise of mechanical memory by pupils, proper scope being given for the expression of thought in their own language, so that they may state their own individual views from their own special stand-point. Much importance is, therefore, attached to the fostering of the power of observation not a mere superficial observation, but a seeing into the internal relation of all those parts which together form the whole.

**History teaching**

And as regards history the following directions are given:—“In teaching history it shall be the chief aim to make clear the peculiar points in our national constitution by showing the pupils when come all the social changes, the decline and prosperity of a state—especially with reference to the process of development in our country”.

**Physical culture**

Physical culture is given not solely with the object of strengthening the bodily frame of the pupils, but also with the aim of preventing them from falling into inactive and idle habits. With this aim in view encouragement is now given in most schools to such exercises. In training, too, the hours for gymnastics were increased in the 19th year of Meiji (1886); and in addition to common gymnastics, military drills were made a part of the regular lessons, by which means it was hoped that a martial spirit would be aroused and bodily growth be promoted, while habits of order and discipline were being fostered. Then, as extra exercises, on the one hand, such games and sports were adopted as are in vogue in Europe and America, while, on the other hand, the military arts of old Japan were added. In this way a thorough disciplinary training was established. Judo (the art of self-defence) and Kendo (fencing), military exercises of our samurai from the most ancient times in Japan, in particular, were encouraged, not merely as an accomplishment but as a help towards maintaining the national spirits, these exercises having had much to do with the development of bushido Japanese chivalry. Our present day middle schools teach these exercises as optional subjects; while in some schools regular lessons are given in either one or the other of these exercises. Swimming, too, is encouraged and taught as a good summer exercise.

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Connection between home and school

A constant communication is kept up between the home and the school in regard to the state of progress of each pupil. Says Baron Kikuchi in the "Times":

In Japan co-education stops at the elementary stage; in secondary and higher education boys and girls who is to receive higher education ceases the elementary stage of education at the end of the six years' elementary school course and enters a secondary school, which is a "middle school" in the case of boys, and for girls the "girls' high school". A middle school course is of five years' duration.

The figures at the end of 1907-08 were as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School Type</th>
<th>No. of Schools</th>
<th>No. of Pupils</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Middle schools</td>
<td>285</td>
<td>110,876</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girls' high schools</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>39,917</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher normal schools (for men)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>975</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher normal schools (for women)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>365</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

IV. Higher Education

We have taken the following from Baron Kikuchi's account of the higher education as published in "London Times".

Boys who desire enter Imperial Universities must after leaving the middle schools attend a "higher school", where they have to take a three years course preparatory for the University; thus a student is necessarily over 20 years of age when he enters an Imperial University. There are at present eight higher schools admitting about 2,000 pupils annually; but as there are each year about 9,000 candidates for competitive examination for entrance, so that the Imperial Universities obtain a number of highly qualified students.

There are two Imperial Universities, one in Tokyo and one in Kyoto, besides two more in course of organization, the one in the north-east, having its centre in Sendai, and the other in the south-west, in the island of Kyushu, having its centre in Fukuoka. There are six "colleges" or faculties in the Imperial University of Tokyo – viz., colleges of law (having courses in law, economics, and commerce); of medicine (having courses in medicine and pharmacy); of engineering (having courses in civil engineering, mechanical engineering, marine engineering, naval architecture, technology of weapons,
electrical engineering, architecture, applied chemistry, technology of explosives, and mining and metallurgy); of literature (having courses in philosophy, history, and literature); of science (having courses in mathematics, astronomy, physics, chemistry, botany, zoology, geology, and mineralogy); and of agriculture (having course in agriculture, agricultural chemistry, forestry, and veterinary surgery.

In Kyoto there are four “colleges”, science and engineering being taught in one college, besides the medical college in Fukuoka, which is to be a part of the south-western University, but is at present affiliated to this University, while the course in agriculture is as yet wanting. Courses in law and medical colleges are of four years’ duration, in others they extend over three years, so that students are over 24 and 23 years of age respectively at the time of graduation. Students may after graduation remain and prosecute post-graduate studies in the University. There are 182 chairs in Tokyo and 130 chairs in Kyoto, although they are not all actually filled at present by full professors. Assistant professors and lecturers are appointed to occupy some of them temporarily.

Special Colleges

Those who do not wish to go on to Imperial Universities or who cannot do so for want of means or ability may enter “special colleges” or “technical special colleges”. Special colleges are colleges of law, medicine, pharmacy, literature, and languages, history and philosophy, theology, fine arts, music, & c., where many of the subjects are the same as in “colleges” of Imperial Universities, but necessarily of a lower grade for the students come directly from secondary schools, and are consequently not so well prepared. So-called private “universities” belong to this category; they have often preparatory courses of their own, but students when admitted are generally not equal in capacity to those of Imperial Universities, being mostly those who are unable to enter the higher school.

The number of Graduates

The number of students who have graduated from the Imperial Universities is already over ten thousand. These person, in following various professions and occupations, have been putting what they learned into
practice, and have thus contributed much towards the progress and
development of the Japanese nation.

V. TECHNICAL EDUCATION

A great deal of attention has lately been paid to technical education, by
which we mean chiefly education in technology (engineering), commerce, and
agriculture. Technical schools are of several grades; thus we have a course in
commerce in the law college, and course in various branches of engineering
and agriculture in respective colleges of the imperial University of Tokyo,
while there are courses in engineering in the science and engineering college
of the University of Kyoto. Below this we have “technical special colleges”,
into which students are admitted directly on graduation from middle schools;
such are the technological colleges of Tokyo, Osaka, Kyoto, and Kumamoto,
the agricultural colleges of Morioka and Kyushu, the commercial colleges of
Tokyo, Kobe, Nagasaki, Otaru, & c. All of these are central government
institutions, having a course of three to four years, and there are likewise a
few colleges maintained by local communities and by private endowment.

TECHNICAL SCHOOLS – CLASSES A AND B

Besides these, which belong to the higher education grade, there are
technical schools of secondary grade, with a course of three to four years, too
which pupils are admitted from higher elementary schools or from the second
year of middle and girls’ high schools; these institutions are called technical
schools of Class A. Below these, again, there are technical schools of the
Class B to which children are admitted on completion of the ordinary
elementary school course. Besides those there are also technical
supplementary schools (continuation schools, night schools, & c.) for those
who cannot attend regular schools.

Before the war with China, in 1894-95, there were but few special
technical schools in Japan; but since then there has been a great demand for
the services of intelligent young men possessed of higher technical education,
owing to the sudden increase of all kinds of undertakings. The government
has, accordingly, paid great attention to the question of an increase in the
number of schools of this kind, and in the 36th year of Meiji (1903) issued a
Special School Ordinance placing all schools of this kind under control of the
regulations contained in this ordinance.
Since the war with Russia, in 1904-5, there have been such developments in our industrial world that the demand for the service of intelligent young men has become even still more pressing, and the number of special technical schools has increased accordingly.

The number of special technical schools and technical schools now in existence is as follows:

**SPECIAL TECHNICAL SCHOOLS**

Technical schools – 9 (of which 2 are not yet opened).
Agricultural schools – 3 (of which 1 is not yet opened).
Commercial schools – 6 (of which 1 is not yet opened).

**Total** 18

**TECHNICAL SCHOOLS OF SECONDARY GRADE**

Technical schools 32
Agricultural schools 78
Commercial schools 61
Nautical schools 11
Marine products schools 9

**Total** 190

**TECHNICAL SCHOOLS OF PRIMARY GRADE**

Apprentices' schools 76
Agricultural schools 92
Commercial schools 17
Marine products schools 6
Those in which two or more than two distinct courses – as for instance: commerce and agriculture, or industry and commerce – are established 10

**Total** 201

**SUPPLEMENTARY TECHNICAL SCHOOLS**

Technical schools 227
Agricultural schools 4,497
Commercial schools 190
Marine products school 94

**Total** 4,908
OBJECT AND COURSES OF STUDY

The object of the higher technical schools is to give those intending to engage in agricultural, technical and commercial pursuits, a more advanced knowledge of arts and science. The subjects taught in these schools are as follows:

In the special agricultural schools: agriculture, forestry, and veterinary medicine; in the special technical schools: mechanics, dyeing, weaving, ceramics, applied chemistry, electricity, marine engineering, naval architecture, architecture, civil engineering, mining and metallurgy, designing, and brewing; in the special commercial schools: practice in all matters connected with commercial undertaking.

The special technical schools, classified according to the subjects taught, are as follows:

- Dyeing: 3
- Weaving: 3
- Ceramics: 2
- Applied chemistry: 2
- Mechanics: 5
- Electrical mechanics: 1
- Electrical chemistry: 1
- Electricity: 2
- Marine engineering: 1
- Naval architecture: 1
- Architecture: 3
- Civil engineering: 2
- Mining and metallurgy: 3
- Designing: 2
- Brewing: 1
- Commerce: 5
- Agriculture: 2
- Forestry: 2
- Veterinary medicine: 1

As regards schools of marine produce, there is no yet one.
The total number of the students in the special technical schools is 5337 of whom 272 are foreigners. Among these latter the Chinese and Koreans are by far the numerous. Then there are technical schools of secondary grade which aim at giving education to those intending to engage in business.

The different kinds of this class of school are :- Technical schools, agricultural schools, schools of sericulture, schools of forestry, schools of veterinary medicine, marine products schools, commercial schools and nautical schools.

The subjects taught in the regular course are morals Japanese, mathematics, physics, chemistry, drawing and gymnastics in addition to the subjects belonging to the respective technical courses of study and practice. Beside these, other subjects may be added according to the circumstances of the locality. The subjects taught in the preparatory course are morals, Japanese arithmetics, geography, history, science, drawing, and gymnastics. English may be added.

Distinguished according to their different courses of student, these schools are as follows :-

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TECHNICAL SCHOOLS</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Civil engineering</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wood work</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metal work</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mechanics</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mining</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Naval architecture</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dyeing and weaving</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lacquer work</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ceramics</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Applied chemistry</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrial fine art</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Painting and designing</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Embroidery, artificial flower making, and sewing</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
AGRICULTURAL SCHOOLS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Veterinary medicine</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sericulture</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forestry</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture and forestry</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zootechny</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

MARINE PRODUCTS SCHOOLS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Marine products</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

COMMERCIAL SCHOOLS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Commerce</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NAUTICAL SCHOOLS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Navigation</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineering</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

STUDENTS

There are at present 34,675 students in these schools. Classified by the kind of school, there are 4,957 in technical schools, 10,509 in agricultural schools, 16,803 in commercial schools, 1,826 in nautical schools, and 580 in marine products schools.

The number admitted in the 41st year of Meiji (1908), was 14,127; classified by the kind of school the students are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Technical schools</td>
<td>2,158</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural schools</td>
<td>4,684</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commercial schools</td>
<td>6,539</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nautical schools</td>
<td>457</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marine products schools</td>
<td>289</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

EQUIPMENT

Technical schools of secondary grade like the special technical schools, have attached to them workshops, or school farms and forests adapted to the standard of the school, where the students receive practical lessons. Implements, machines, and other requisites are provided, practice and theory being thus busily taught at the same time.
TECHNICAL EDUCATION OF A SPECIAL KIND (PRIMARY GRADE)

The title "Technical Education of a Special Kind is not officially recognized; but a technical school of primary grade may be established in some way appropriate to local conditions. The qualifications for admission and the standard of the courses of study are very different in different schools, and all these schools are accordingly grouped, for purposes of descriptions, under the head of Technical Education of a Special kind, apprentices schools being also brought, for the sake of convenience, under this head.

OBJECT AND COURSES OF STUDY

The object of the apprentices schools is to instruct those intending to become workmen, in arts and sciences so as to fit them for the adequate performance of their work, while the object of the technical school of a special kind is to impart to those intending to engage in business the knowledge of arts and sciences needed for their various callings.

The subjects taught in the apprentices' schools are morals, drawing, mathematics, general science, Japanese, and gymnastics, in addition to those subjects which are directly connected with their occupations and practical work; but other subjects required by local circumstances may be added, while, on the other hand, any subject save morals and those bearing directly on occupations, may be dropped or made optional.

These schools of a special kind, classified according to the subjects bearing directly on occupations, are as follows :-

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Wood work</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metal work</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mechanics</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dyeing and weaving</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lacquer work</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ceramics</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paper making</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bamboo work and printing</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Embroidery work, artificial flower making, and sewing</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The subjects of study in the technical school of primary grade are morals, Japanese, mathematics, general science, and gymnastics, in addition
to those subjects, which have a direct relation to occupations, and practical work. Other subjects, made desirable by local circumstances, may be added, and, on the other hand, any subjects except morals and those having a direct relation to occupations, may be dropped.

These schools, classified according to subjects having a direct relation to occupation, are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sericulture</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture and forestry</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marine products</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commerce</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrial arts</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

STUDENTS

The total number of the students in these schools is 15,975 of whom 5,448 belong to apprentices schools, and the remaining 10,527 to technical schools of primary grade. The number admitted to these schools in the 41st year of Meiji 1908 was 10,250; classified by the kinds of school, they are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School Type</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Apprentices</td>
<td>3,532</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical schools of a special kind</td>
<td>6,717</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

GRADUATES

The present position of those who graduated from these schools in the 40th year of Meiji (1907) is as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School Type</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Apprentices</td>
<td>266</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical Schools of a Special Kind</td>
<td>1,018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engaged in business</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entered other schools</td>
<td>311</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engaged in teaching</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government officials</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Died</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>513</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Technical Schools of a Special Kind</strong></td>
<td><strong>1,516</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
EQUIPMENT

The equipment of these schools is the same as that of the technical schools of secondary grade, but of a more restricted kind.

VI. TECHNICAL SUPPLEMENTARY EDUCATION

OBJECT AND LENGTH OF COURSE

The object of supplementary technical schools is to furnish persons engaged, or about to be engaged, in various branches of business, with the knowledge and skill essential to their respective occupations, and at the same time to give supplementary lessons in general education; in other words, the technical subjects are the soul and centre of the instruction, while supplementary lessons in general education are given at the same time. To accomplish these two aims at one and the same time is the chief object of the supplementary technical schools, and they differ in this point from other schools in which either a general education or a technical one is given.

The length of the courses and school periods are not fixed by any regulations, and these may thus be determined by local conditions or by consideration of the time most convenient for the taking of lessons by the students. There are consequently some schools which are open in the daytime, before or after the elementary school hours. Others are open in the evening, and there are others still which are only open during the winter months. Furthermore, there are some in which the lessons are given on Sundays and other recognized holidays.

The length of the school course, again, is different in the different courses or even for different subjects in the same course, in some schools the length of school year is fixed. In a word, in the organization of these schools, the variations are numerous.

The total number of the students in supplementary schools is at present 192,148 and the number of graduates is 38,617 most of whom are engaged in business at their respective homes. The reader must have noticed what an extensive and ample provision for technical education has been made by the Japanese National Government for their people. This accounts for their predominance both in peace and war.
VII. FEMALE EDUCATION

Of greater interest to us Indians than male education is the development of female education in Japan. The following remarks as to the history of female education in Japan will, we are sure, be read with great interest throughout India.

The education of women in Japan is of ancient origin. From the earliest period of her history there have been many women of talent and accomplishment who left immortal works behind them. But female education in general consisting chiefly of the fostering of feminine virtues, such as gentleness, chastity, & c., together with the teaching of domestic management and no specific educational agency like that for males being established, with woman everything was done at home, so that female education, is must be confessed came very far-behind, as compared with that provided for males.

In the antique period the social status of women was very high; but after A.D. 284 (944 of the Japanese era) when Chinese letters and learning were brought over to Japan, women, under the influence of Chinese ideas, were placed on a lower level than men, and taught to obey, they attended chiefly the domestic duties at home. As far back as A.D. 552 (1212 of the Japanese era), Buddhism was introduced. This religion looks down upon women as subordinate beings deeply immersed in sin. Thus, by the two influences of Chinese confucianism and Indian Buddhism, women were reduced to a condition of subjection. Not only were they degraded in social status but they were humiliated in spirit. Furthermore, it being thought that learning would be detrimental to feminine virtue, women were taught only such things as domestic management, etiquette, manual work, & c., so that in spite of the general advance of enlightenment, female education remained inconsiderable and made little progress until the beginning of the seventeenth century of the Christian era. Although during the Hei-an Period (about the tenth century) female education among the upper classes flourished for a time, and the period was distinguished by the appearance of many female genius of undying fame, this was quite an exceptional state of things. In the Kamakura Period (about the 12th century) there began to appear what might be termed “female bushiodo” (the way of brave woman). According to this a woman once married should lay down her life rather than allow her chastity to
be infringed upon. This was considered the chief point of feminine virtue. A practical education for the needs of everyday life was held in esteem – a distinguished feature of this age that should be carefully noted.

Consequently in the Yedo Period (17th century) secular education attained a climax, and advocates for female education appeared in large numbers. It then became the general fashion throughout the upper and lower classes in general to make girls learn reading, composition, penmanship, & c., with the addition in some cases of female etiquette, music, incense-burning, flower-arrangement, tea ceremony, & c. However, the education of those days consisted principally or moral culture, so that many books of precepts for women appeared, of which the most widely known was that which is handed down to us as written by Kaibara Ekiken, a leading light among our educationists of modern times. It goes by the name of Onna Dai-gaku (Great Precepts for Women). It teaches women according to the principle of Chinese Confucianism, to have reverential love and modesty, to preserve their chastity, to observe propriety of language and department, and to esteem as merit in women the exhibition of virtue as wife and mother. The leading principles of female education in the Tokugawa period can be best learned from this book of precepts.

Such was the state of female education before the Meiji era.

Figures for Girl’s schools (Primary) :-

During the year 1907 (fiscal) the girls’ attending elementary schools numbered 2,541,549 (against 3,172,113 boys, being at the rate of 96.14 per cent of girls of school age (boys being 98.53 per cent). Comparing the yearly increase, as is shown by 91.46 per cent for 1904 93.34 per cent for 1905, and 94.83 per cent for 1906, it becomes evident that the increase in the rate will grow still greater in the years to come. When this is compared with the number of boys attendances of so remote a date as 1877, we see that the attendance of girls was something more than one-third, and in 1893, about one-half. This goes to show that the rate of increase with girls is something remarkable. Things being so, many new elementary schools for girls are now in the course of construction, quite apart from those for boys. The number of girl graduates from elementary schools during the fiscal year 1907 was 498,443, of whom 70,286 were graduates of the higher elementary course, (in
the ordinary elementary course, school period was at that time fixed at four years, children of six years of age being admissible, while the higher elementary course extended over two to four years, children being admissible after graduating from the ordinary course). The number of elementary school teachers was 122,038, of whom 27,656 were females.

The development of girls high schools of late years has indeed been remarkable; notwithstanding which, the number of pupils, for example, is but little more than one-third the number of boys (111,436) in the middle schools, so there still remains much room for development. Besides the girls' high schools, there are some schools of a similar nature to them, of which 8 are of public establishment and 93 of private establishment, with 13,000 pupils and 2,700 graduates.

The subjects of study include domestic management, music, gymnastics and sewing. Some Japanese girls are now performing wonderful feats of gymnastics in London Society Theatres. The following remarks about the general woman movement in Japan are full of interest and instruction. The foretell the potentialities of the great movement.

For a Japanese woman to bestow filial love upon her father and mother, or her father-in-law and mother-in-law, to be chaste and true towards her husband, to be obedient to her elders, to be zealous in the discharge of her domestic duties, to bring up her children with tender love, never sparing any pains for their sake – to be and to do all this was to display the characteristics of a Japanese woman.

During the recent wars with China and Russia, there were many praiseworthy incidents of women encouraged their sons of husbands, and of ladies of all ranks giving every help and encouragement to the soldiers at the front, all displaying the true characteristics of the typical women of Japan.

That in spite of the possession of such fine qualities, continually nourished by historical inspiration, the women of Japan had so long been denied the means of developing their knowledge was undoubtedly one of the greatest of our social defects. But now that there has been so great an advance in the right direction not only has there been a great increase in the number of schools and the number of students, but great improvements have been made in the quality of the education provided for women.
One of the striking features of the case is the great increase in the number of journals and magazines published relating to women and their home-life. The fact that the best amongst them have a larger circulation than any other journals and magazines published in Japan, is of itself enough to show how female education is spreading in Japan.

Nor is it the intellectual side only of female education that is advancing, but the progress of women's physical culture as well as their knowledge of the laws of health in general is also worthy of notice. In school they perform various gymnastic exercises and take part in out-door sport. The school girls in Japan wear, most of them, a peculiar sort of plaited skirts called hakama, and wear shoes, too, instead of wooden clogs, permitting a quickness of movement and freedom in walking which all tends to help their bodily growth.

The recent development of education fitting girls to follow some calling is a feature worthy of special notice, but it must not be too hastily assumed that this shows a tendency of women towards taking to earning and independent living.

Our population is according to the latest statistics, about 26,750,000 males against 25,960,000 females, being at the rate of 97 females to 100 males; and the fact that living is comparatively cheap here, makes marriage easy, there being but few women of marriageable age who remain single; so that we can say we have not yet reached the days when women are compelled to lead an independent single life.

The recent growth of professional and industrial education for women is chiefly owing to the increasing demand for women of ability as mistresses of households - a necessary consequence of the general progress of civilization and enlightenment. But judging from the present state of things there can be little doubt but that the problem of women's life will arise, along with other problems at some future date.

Some of the principal occupation in which women in Japan are engaged at present are as follows: school teaching, needle work, manual crafts midwifery, nursing of the sick, medical practice, communication business, banking and clerking, shorthand writing, music, fine arts, editing newspapers and magazines, factory work, mental labour, etc. By far the
greatest number are engaged in agriculture, sericulture, and other forms of productive industry.

In a country like ours where women make it their principal business to attend to their households the amount of public work undertaken by woman is naturally not large. There are, however, more than ten school – such as special schools for girls, higher girls' schools and similar schools as well as girls technical schools, & c., which are managed and conducted entirely by women.

Of women's educational societies, besides the one called Dai Nippon Fujin Kyoikukai (Japan Ladies 'Educational Society) composed of Ladies belonging to the upper classes in Tokyo, there are also such societies as the Ladies’ Society for the Reform of Manners, Ladies Sanitary Society, & c. One of the ladies societies was formed at the time of the late war with the object of helping our armies at the front by giving relief to the surviving families of our dead and bringing up their orphan children. It is called the Patriotic Ladies’ Society, preside over by a Princess of the Imperial Family and having members over 784,000.

Akin to this there are other societies such as the Army and Navy Officers Wives Association, Voluntary Nurses’ Association, & c.

Women's activity, moving in corporate unison and for public purposes, is just beginning to make itself felt, and this with ever-increasing earnestness.

CONCLUSION

This practically brings us to the end of the story of Japan's recent marvellous progress in education.

The other departments of Japan’s educational activity not noticed above are art education department, normal education department, education of the blind and the deaf and the libraries, museums and educational societies. Art education is specially directed towards the preservation of national treasures and towards the continuance and maintenance of national ideals in art. Normal education aims at the regular training of teachers for the different kinds of schools mentioned above. Education of the blind and deaf is now becoming an essential feature of the educational activities of every civilised State. And if facilities for the education of its people are a test of the high water-mark of civilization in any State, then surely Japan is entitled to a
high position among the civilized States of the world. The only dark cloud
overshadowing this brilliant horizon is the new imperial spirit which has found
evidence in the subjugation and annexation of the minor struggling nationality
of Korea and in the dealings of Japan with China. It is, however, too early to
pass any judgement on this phase of the life of Japan. We can at any rate
hope for the best.