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Psychology influences Pedagogy

By

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To some extent, people are unanimous in their opinions on the statement that psychology has played and is still playing a very important role in shaping the ever-advancing modern pedagogy. At the present juncture it is rather difficult to ascertain the rightful place of psychology in the educational doctrines of the past and the present. It is immensely useful to quote the words of Ross in this connection : " Psychology occupies a prominent place in the educational theory of to-day, and it is not easy to over-emphasise the contribution it has to make."

However, to find out the actual relationship of psychology and pedagogy, it is imperative interpret certain standard definitions of education and psychology scientifically and suitably correlate them with each other to ascertain the real depth of relationship.

According to Charles E. Skinner: "Education is a phase of the social process which is fostered by society for the purpose of fitting its members for life in the group." Psychology studies the human mind in its working in relation to society ; it is thus a social science. And since education is a social process, it is the function of psychology to bear a close relation to it.

According to Raymond : " Education is the process of development which consists in the passage of a human being from infancy to maturity, the process whereby he gradually adapts himself in various ways to his physical, social and spiritual environment." If we take such a comprehensive view of education, we can at once see that no one is qualified to undertake the sacred task of educating the children, who is ignorant of psychology—the science that studies the laws that underlie the growth and development of human personality and points out the limits of curbing the undesirable and cultivating the desirable traits.

According to a functional definition, education " is a process by which the knowledge, character and behaviour of the young are shaped and moulded so as to produce a recognised type of behaviour in the adult." While, in the words of Macdougall, an eminent psychologist, " psychology is the study of the behaviour of man so far as it is mentally conditioned and can be interpreted in psychical terms." A critical evaluation of the above definitions makes it crystal clear that psychology has an important bearing on educational theory as well as its practice.

In the words of B. N. Jha, education is interwoven with psychological findings, and has to depend on them for what it does, and how it is done. As Arthur Coladarci puts it: "Psychology represents

the empirical foundation of education—it represents the scientific basis of education."

These days educators and educationists are unanimous on the point that psychology is a great help in the active pursuit of the teaching profession and so occupies a pedestal of esteem in the firmament of educational theory. In fact, it is the science on which the art of teaching is based. It is the mission of the educator to have a grasp of psyschlogy, because, if he is ignorant of it, he does not know the very basis upon which he is to erect the edifice.

A critical scrutiny of the existing data reveals that this close interdependence between psychology and education has led people to expect too much of psychology. Such exaggerated expectations are foredoomed to failure, because it is only recently that the science of psychology escaped from the clutches of speculative philosophy and took to the experimental scientific method. To lean, beyond certain limits, on such a science yet in the embryonic stage is to lean on a broken reed. It is rightly said that the omega of psychology is but the alpha of pedagogy.

Psychology has played a very important role in shaping modern pedagogy. If we scrutinise the historical records, we get a glimpse of the extent to which psychological findings have revolutionised the existing pedagogic doctrines. The child is no more a sinful creature. Nor is he a little angel. A child is, in fact, a child and nothing more. We have to provide only a healthy environment for his proper growth and development. The old dictum, "Spare the rod; spoil the child," has disappeared. Now we believe in the maxim: "Respect the individuality of the child, and you will make him good." The doctrine of faculties or the theory of formal discipline has been proved faulty and erroneous. The basis of curriculum construction is the social needs and not the so-called disciplinary values of certain academic subjects. Findings and research have pinpricked the myth of 'Transfer of Training'. A close analysis reveals that psychology and education have mutually influenced each other. Educational problems stimulated psychological research, and in its turn, psychological findings enabled educators to improve faulty methods and to correct wrong notions. Moreover, they shook off the educator's dogmatism, conventionalism and traditionalism and enabled him to adapt his techniques to the laws of mental growth, besides helping him to help himself in 'sifting the wheat from the chaff.'

In short, the interest in child study, the new psychological method of teaching, the emphasis on making studies as much pleasant and pleasurable as possible, the various maxims of methodical procedure, the growing desire to respect the personality of the child, the substitution of milder modes of maintaining discipline for the harsh and stern ones of past ages, the conception of education as a process from within and not an accretion from without, the conviction that the child's mind contains seeds of knowledge which require only facilities for growth and development, and above all the paedo-centric tendency in the education process—all testify to the fact that psychology has profoundly affected the theory and practice of education.

Psychology does not help in stipulating the aims of education, because aims come under the domain of philosophy and ethics. However, it is of substantial help to ascertain the extent of the limit of achieving those aims and objectives, and demarcate ways and means to achieve the stipulated aims in a short span of time successfully. The contribution of psychology is varied and manifold, and in fact psychology and education are sister studies that have progressed hand in hand since times immemorial. The imprint of the influence of psychology is visible in tvery sphere of education, and now we realize, to quote the words of Sir John Adams, that "schools are not knowledge

shops and teachers are not information-mongers."

In the end, while concluding the present article, I feel bound to quote the words of Drever that portray the influence of psychology on education and depict their interrelation to an appreciable extent: "We can settle hardly any essential and vital question in education, except in a merely academic way and without reference to practical problems, independently of the science of psychology."

Middle Childhood and Early Adolescence

By

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Mr. Havighurst and his associates have made very systematic approaches in the organisation of curriculum experiences in terms of an age period (See *Human development and education* by R. J. Havighurst). They have tried to chalk out the developmental tasks, which must be accomplished by children within a broad period of time, if they are to grow and have successful subsequent experiences. Our object here is not exactly that. We shall try to show here the growth and development of the child in body and mind, and incidentally his attitudes towards social groups and institutions in the two aforesaid broad divisions of life.

According to many psychologists, the period covering 6 to 10 years of age has been accepted as middle childhood. In this period, approximately by the end of the fifth year, the child's personality is crystallized. From this time forward, the individual always remains a unity. The personality of the child may afterwards be elaborated by experience and environment, but it will retain the patterns fixed by the child's original interpretation of life and the scheme of apperception built upon it. "Struggling within the incalculable compass of his potentialities", says Adler, "the child, by means of trial and error, receives a training and follows a broadly defined path towards a goal of perfection that appears to offer him fulfilment. Whether he struggles actively or remains passive, whether he rules or serves, whether he is sociable or egotistical, brave or cowardly, whatever be the variation in rhythm or temperament, whether he is easily moved or apathetic, the child makes his decision for the whole of his life and develops his law of movement in harmony, as he supposes, with his environment. He conceives of this environment and reacts to it in his manner. The course towards the goal differs in every individual, varying in countless details." (See Adler's *Social Interest*—Page 75).

The child starts losing his baby or milk teeth at about this time, and acquires the first two teeth in the permanent set which are commonly called the "six-year molars". Much of the bulk of the brain and the spinal cord has been attained in the preceding period. Languages and motor skills are attained at the age of approximately six in many countries. Reading seems to increase more than learning from this period. Mr. Maier in his experiments has shown that the percentages of subjects who could show reasoning increased from 71% at six years of age to 100 per cent at age eight (See Maier, N.R.F.—'Reasoning in children', *Journal of Comparative Psychology*, Baltimore, Vol. 21, 1936.) Emphasis, therefore, according to him should be laid

upon increased practice in reasoning than on the sheer associative learning characteristic that emphasizes memorization.

The child by 7 years is more or less independent. He has no longer to depend wholly on his mother or elderly people for feeding or dressing. He has learned to make his own terms with life. Before this stage, the child was intimately connected with his mother—his weal or woe depended on her satisfaction or dissatisfaction. But now it is no longer possible for the child to gain every satisfaction in life from his mother. The earlier frustrations and disappointments have now to be met on a more solitary basis. He is now able to satisfy many of the conflicts between desires and possibilities, haves and have-nots, to some extent independently and in his own way. The ways in which such conflicts arise, are dealt with in detail by Freud in his various works like *The Ego and the Id, Civilization and its discontents, Instincts and their vicissitudes* etc. The powerful instincts with which human beings are born develop at this period and at adolesence. The instinct of self-preservation, and the herd or communal instinct are marked at this stage. Small and simple problems like 'Will he go out for play or not,' 'Will he abide by the orders of his mother or not,' confront him at this stage, and he solves them often according to the dictates of his super-ego which is the moral or judicial branch of personality. It represents the ideal rather than the real, and it strives for prefection rather than for reality or pleasure. The super-ego which has to do with the socialisation of behaviour and the development of conscience develops out of the ego as a consequence of the child's assimilation of his parents' standards regarding what is good and virtuous and what is bad and sinful. By assimilating the normal authority of his parents, the child replaces their authority by his own inner authority. The child learns that he not only has to obey the reality principle in order to obtain pleasure and avoid pain, but that he also has to behave according to the moral standard of his parents.

In this period, it should be the look-out of parents and teachers to see that the child learns physical skills necessary for ordinary games, building a wholesome attitude towards oneself as a growing organism, learning to get along with age-mates, learning an appropriate masculine or feminine social role, developing the fundamental skills in reading, writing and arithmetic, developing concepts necessary for everyday living, developing conscience and morality, achieving personal independence and developing attitudes towards social groups and institutions.

The period covering the age 10—13 years is marked by a rapid growth and by the appearance of secondary sex characteristics. The social relationships between boys and girls are altered in this period. Lehmann and Witty made comprehensive studies of the play-interests of children. They found that play-activities of children reached their peak at the age of about ten and a half. The girls in their survey spent more time in sedentary play, while the boys chose games involving much activity. (See Lehmann, H.C. and Witty, P.A.—*The psychology of play activities*) The play with dolls by girls changes from dramatic household play to an interest in clothing and sewing. Studies indicate that girls tend to give up play with dolls, as they become pubescent.

In early adolescence, tensions and conflicts flood his life in an unprecedented way. The sexual instinct, present from the birth (according to Freud), but hitherto existing in a vague, diffuse and but dimly perceived form, and lacking until now the full development of the physical means for its expression, now dominates the emotional life of the child, who now vaguely understands that he is no longer a child, depending solely on his parents for the fulfilment of his desires. This is the most turbulent and unhappy period of his life. He seems to be sandwiched

between idealism and morality on the one hand and will and urge on the other. The call of adolescence knocks loudly at the gate of his life, but the magic casement of the enchanted palace is not yet open. He is on the border line—the gates of childhood are slowly and imperceptibly closing behind him. He is puzzled and bewildered by his feelings and emotions.

On the physical side, the child is showing many of the physical characteristics indicating a maturing of the sex functions. There are rapid changes in the testes and in the ovaries, and important changes in balance between male and female hormones.

Teachers and parents are to know these facts and prepare their children for the battle of life accordingly.

University Finance in Britain

By

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In the remote past, universities have paid their way out of their own resources. The older universities and some of their colleges received, down through the centuries, benefactions from many wealthy individuals or corporations who desired to perpetuate their names in this way or to associate themselves with the promotion of higher learning. At first, the civic universities of England were financed by private benefactions from local people and by grants from civic treasuries. In the present century, benefactions, sometimes on a princely scale, have continued to flow into the coffers of the more fortunate of these institutions. Others, however, have not been so favoured.

Their former freedom of financial control from outside developed in universities a spirit of independence, which still endures, and a belief in academic autonomy, which has come to be a main article in the academic creed. To-day, one of the questions which frequently vexes those responsible for the running of universities is how to maintain this prized independence in an age when the university can no longer live on its own.

ENDOWMENTS AND GRANTS

The income of British universities at the present time is made up from a variety of sources. These are by no means of equal value and they vary somewhat in importance from university to university. The income derived from endowments is, generally speaking, deplorably small. In so far as this type of income is brought into general funds, it amounts on an average for all the institutions now receiving parliamentary grants to a mere 4.3 per cent. of the total. It is probable that in the future this small figure will become even smaller. This is a situation which university people view with profound regret. Universities would like to build up their endowment funds, for the greater these are, the freer they will be from undesirable external influences.

The University Grants Committee in its annual statement places donations and subscriptions in a separate group. These consist of sm ll, frequently *ad hoc*, gifts or subscriptions given to the university. They are of slight importance in the general income account, amounting to 1.6%.

Far more important than these are the grants received by the universities from country and borough authorities. In so far as local grants are concerned, each has its own recognised region. For example, that of Bristol consists of the City and

County of Bristol, the Counties of Gloucestershire, Wiltshire, Somerset and part of Dorset, together with the Cities of Gloucester and Bath. At one time, it was feared by university people that these local authorities might become the chief source of university revenue, and that in consequence they would demand a direct and controlling influence in university administration. If this occurred, it would mean the end of university autonomy. As things have turned out, however, this apprehension has proved to be groundless. During the past thirty years, the value of grants received from local authorities has grown very slightly and amounts to only 3.6 per cent of the income.

By far, the most important item at the present time is the sum annually granted for recurrent purposes by Parliament. In the year 1953–54, it amounted on an average to 70.5 per cent of the total. It seems fairly certain that it will increase in the years to come. Here again it was feared that, if these grants became too large, the independence of universities might be threatened, but more of that later. Fees of all kinds amount to 12.0 per cent, and all other sources of revenue to 8.0 per cent.

COMPLEXITY OF ADMINISTRATION

It now remains to indicate how this money is spent. The efficient running of a modern university requires skill, efficient management and foresight. Unless money is to be squandered, the university must have a well trained secretariat, and those in charge of the administrative departments must be people of outstanding capacity. In fact, they are usually men who could easily command far higher salaries in industry than those they receive in university service. Fortunately, they appear to feel that there are compensating considerations which attract them to university life. Bearing in mind the complexity of university administration and its many ramifications, it is greatly to the credit of the administrators that the average cost of the service amounts only to 7.3% of the annual expenditure. It should be emphasised that this is an average for university institutions receiving parliamentary grants, but that some have reduced the cost under this head to about 5%. This is indeed an achievement of which universities should be proud, and it is an example which many great charitable and other organisations might seek to emulate with advantage.

MAJOR ITEMS OF EXPENDITURE

As might be expected, and as is right and proper, the largest single them in the annual cost sheet of the universities is departmental maintenance. This includes the salaries of the academic staff, the wages of laboratory and other staff, superannuation charges, and all the other day-to-day expenditure connected with teaching and research, excluding extra-mural activities. Departmental maintenance amounts to 69.4% of the total annual expenditure.

The maintenance of buildings and the upkeep of property of all sorts is a costly business. The figure given for this in the latest statement of Returns from Universities and University Colleges to the University Grants Committee is 12.7%. There are also several smaller items which need not detain us here.

In addition to grants for recurrent purposes, the University Grants Committee has given very substantial aid in recent years to the programme of new buildings which universities have been forced to undertake by reason of the great increase in student numbers. In many instances, the support has amounted to 100% of the extra cost involved, and without it universities would have found it impossible to carry out this expansion.

STATE ASSISTANCE

From time to time during the past century, Royal Commissions were appointed to look into the affairs of

universities, but otherwise they were left to their own devices and the national exchequer was not concerned with them. But, alas, that happy, easy-going state of affairs no longer exists. Down to 1914, such grants as were made by the Government were very small even in the restricted budgets of those days. In the main, they consisted of monies given to the universities by the Board of Education to cover the cost of training teachers. Each year the Board reported to Parliament on these grants, but no one was bothered about them very much, for they were so small. During the past 35 years, however, university costs have increased with bewildering rapidity. Already, by the close of the 1914–18 war, it was plain that these institutions must look to the central Government for financial assistance, if they were not to be crippled. As their importance was by that time recognised by the nation at large, this situation was accepted.

It was in these circumstances that the University Grants Committee was first appointed in 1919. Its terms of reference were general and simple. The Committee was: "To inquire into the financial needs of University education in the United Kingdom and to advise the Government as to the application of any grants that may be made by Parliament towards meeting them". This Committee was a small body, largely composed of academic people, with an official chairman and secretary. Indeed, the first Chairman himself had at one time been a professor. He was succeeded by a former vice-chancellor, and he, in turn, by another ex-professor.

When the University Grants Committee came into existence, it was very much suspected by the eager champions of university freedom. Some of them foresaw in the existence of this body all sorts of dire disasters. State grants were in themselves dangerous, though where the universities were to find their money, if not from the State, none of these critics was able to divulge. The simple fact was that there was no alternative. "He who pays the piper", they declared, "would indubitably wish to call the tune". "The universities will become mere State institutions with no life or independence of their own," and so on and so on. But these prophets of gloom were wholly wrong.

SPLENDID WORK

The first parliamentary grant amounted only to £16,000. In 1948–49, it had grown between £13m. and £14m. In the last year for which figures are available, it was over £26m. Since it was first appointed, the Committee has been considerably enlarged and now contains about 20 members. Mainly academic in composition, this body has shown itself down through the years to be wise and just, and as ardent to defend academic freedom as the most zealous university teacher. At the present time it deservedly enjoys the entire confidence of the universities, including those who by nature are suspicious of officials. Recently, its terms of reference have been extended, and indeed it is surprising that this did not occur earlier, but they are still very general. The Committee is: "To enquire into the financial needs of university education in Great Britain; to advise the Government as to the application of any grants made by Parliament towards meeting them; to collect, examine and make available information relating to University education throughout the United Kingdom; and to assist, in consultation with the Universities and other bodies concerned, the preparation and execution of such plans for the development of the Universities as may from time to time be required in order to ensure that they are fully adequate to national needs."

The University Grants Committe is unique, for, without fear of contradiction, it can be said that its like exists nowhere else in the world. It is to be hoped that it will continue its splendid work, enjoying as it does the full support of Parliament and of the universities. Certainly, this is what university people devoutly trust may occur.

Problems Regarding Evaluation of Academic Achievement

By

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In the last issue of this journal, I dealt with various fields of evaluation. I made it explicit that academic achievement is only one of the fields of evaluation. Physical development, character development, and social development are the other no less important fields. Unfortunately we have been ignoring these three fields and have been laying undue emphasis upon the academic or scholastic achievement. Even in that field, we have not been successful in measuring achievement, due to faulty methods and incompatible tools. We have been depending upon essay-type tests only. Attempts have, however, been made to supplement these tests with new-type and oral tests. There have again cropped up numerous difficulties before the teachers, while they made sincere attempts to have an all comprehensive programme of measuring academic achievement.

There still remain some problems regarding the proper application of the new tools. Some of the major problems confronting teachers with regard to the evaluation of pupils' academic achievement are explained below, and some suggestions—not final—are given for the solution of these.

I. The Problem of Promotion

Should promotion be based on one annual examination, and if. not, what should be the criteria? Hitherto one annual examination at the end of the year determined the case. Public examinations used to be held at the end of the primary, middle and high school stages. The Secondary Education Commission (S.E.C.) has rightly recommended the abolition of all the public examinations, except one at the end of the secondary school course. Even in such public examinations, due weightage should be given to internal house-tests held periodically, and the records of such tests maintained. Except this one external examination, at the end of the Higher Secondary Course, all the examinations should be internal. In such internal examinations, assessment should consist of (a) terminal tests, essay-type, objective and oral, and (b) measurement of day-to-day class-work, home-work and laboratory or practical work.

The teacher may use symbolic marking for purposes of convenience, but in the long run these are to be converted into numerical scores, while combining the results of each test. The combined score of all the tests can be considered to be reliable. Besides academic work, for purposes of promotion, due regard should be paid to participation in co-curricular activities, and the physical condition of the pupils. For the benefit of a pupil who is backward in only one or a few subjects, the system of compartmental passing should be adopted instead of letting him fail altogether. For instance, a pupil who gets not less than 40% in the aggregate but fails in not more than two subjects should be allowed to reappear in these subjects at subsequent examinations. Again, special reasons for failure should be searched out. If the deficiency can be made up easily, detaining is useless and harmful. It could have been very useful, if the system, namely, 'streams of subjects" followed in some Western countries could be adopted here. A pupil may read English with one speed and in one grade, and may read mathematics or any

other subject in another grade, just in accordance with his previous achievement. A pupil may be advised to change the subject and take up an alternate option, if he displays continued backwardness, or special coaching in that subject may pull him up to the mark. In the final examination of the Higher Secondary Course, it is a national waste to fail even 25% candidates. In order to minimise this waste, those who obtain lesss marks in one or many subjects should be declared successful, but a separate kind of certificate should be given to them bearing the detailed marks of each subject, in order to make the distinction between those who have passed normally, and those who have been below normal. Or else, the system now followed in England should be adopted. There should be two types of courses—elementary and the advanced. Pupils poor in various subjects can pass the examination of the elementary course, and they can be declared successful in it. Those who have passed the advanced course may proceed for higher education. Not all the students prosecute higher studies. Hence the system of two types of examinations, one for the advanced course, and one for the elementary course, will check the national waste.

II. Problems Regarding Internal Assessment.

The importance of internal assessment has been recognised by all. But teachers are reluctant to prepare regular records as long as the public examinations continue. When the University authorities, the employers and the general public recognise and give weight only to the certificate bearing the stamp of the University, School Board or any other Governmental examining body, the teacher's internal assessment does not get any recognition at all. Then what for should he labour? For this reason, it may be asserted that internal assessment should receive due recognition. This is possible, if some weightage (at least 25%) be given to internal assessment in the final public examination also. The examining bodies must demand the record of pupils about the periodic tests from the headmaster, and must strike the average of the marks obtained during the whole course. These marks should be added to the marks obtained in the external examination. The teachers' labour will thus be rewarded. It is for the examining bodies to see that uniformity is maintained in different schools in the scores of the internal assessment. It might be that a particular school is too geuerous or too strict in awarding marks in the internal assessment. A comparison of the scores in the internal and the external examinations of all the candidates of the school can be made ; 10% divergence in the two averages can be condoned. But beyond that, modification must be made in the internal scores in order to bring these nearer the external scores. The internal scores of scholarship cases should be verified properly. The 25% weightage to be given to internal assessment is suggested only for the present, while we make a beginning in this direction. As the internal assessment is found more and more reliable, more and more weightage can be given to it. An ideal state of affairs would be, when honesty and uniformity prevails to such an extent that each headmaster would test his students himself even in the final class and would issue his own certificate For the present, it would be in the fitness of things, if the University authorities or the examining bodies would issue certificates containing along with the external scores a summary of the results of the internal assessment attested by the headmaster. Or else, the headmasters should be allowed to issue certificates containing the scores of the internal assessment, as well as general remarks about the pupils. This certificate should be given equal recognition with the certificate issued by the public examining body.

The system of internal assessment demands extra labour on the part of the teachers in maintaining the records and holding periodic tests regularly. At

present, the teachers are already burdened with all sorts of teaching and clerical work. Besides delivering lessons in the class-room, and working about 40 periods a week, the teacher is required to supervise games and other extra-curricular activities, correct piles of note-books, complete registration work, write diaries, conduct correspondence regarding the school, meet parents and attend to special school tasks assigned by the headmaster (e.g., to be in-charge of library, admissions, scouting, school-projects, school clubs and societies etc.). Besides all these activities he has to realize dues from the students. Under these circumstances, when the work-load is so high, he is reluctant to accept another huge task of maintaining records of internal assessment.

To solve this problem, all clerical work hitherto assigned to the teacher should be assigned to a whole-time clerk. It should be the business of the clerk to realize dues, maintain accounts, type notices, maintain the record of admissions and withdrawals, keep a record of the attendance of the pupils, and do all sorts of clerical work, where no technical knowledge of teaching work is required. Being rid of all clerical work, the teacher's work load is minimised, so as to enable him to attend to the most important task of internal assessment. Each teacher should be responsible for maintaining regular records of internal assessment of the subjects he teaches to various classes. A teacher may be kept in over–all charge of the house-tests and internal assessment. His teaching load should be lessened to compensate for the additional labour involved.

III. Essay-type Tests.

The essay-type tests have low validity and low reliability. The following points need consideration for increasing their validity and reliability.

(a) *Increasing validity*—(i) The paper-setter should examine the objectives of testing in the particular subject and should take notes of the portion of the syllabus completed. (ii) The length of discussion on each question should be decreased. (iii) The number of questions asked should be fairly large. (iv) Free choice should be given, and where there are different sections of the curriculum (e.g., Hindu period, Muslim period and British period in Indian History), choice should be limited to each section separately. (v) Questions should be clear and thought - provoking. Notes and guides should be discouraged. (xi) Questions should be distributed throughout the whole syllabus.

(b) *Increasing reliability*:—(i) Each question must be valued. (ii) Thorough instructions should be given to the examiner, even with regard to the points of the answers to each part of the question and the value thereof. (iii) The examiner or scorer must read the material from the text, and make a mental note of the points of each answer. (iv) The examiner should follow a good system of scoring. He should note the points omitted and deduct the marks for that from the total marks of each question. He should add up the total backwards and forwards to check the totalling mistakes. He should score one question through all the papers, and then proceed to the next. (v) The headmaster, or a head-examiner must look at the uniformity maintained by different teachers or sub–examiners, and should check up subjectivity and irregularities in scoring.

IV. New-type Tests

(a) One of the problems acout new-type tests is how to print such tests and meet the cost. Schools may not have enough finances to print such tests in addition to the essay type tests. It is suggested therefore that the rate of fee for printing or examination charges

realised from the pupils should be increased. This increase is amply justifiable, viewing the importance of such tests. A number of schools may join hands in printing the same objective tests and administer these simultaneously, and thus minimise expenditure. In reality, these tests should in no case mean more expenditure. Usually two question papers are set in each subject. Instead of having both the papers as essay-type, one of the question papers may be essay-type and the other new-type. For instance in English, the essay-type question paper may consist of questions on prose, translation, paraphrasing, letter-writing and essay; while the new-type question paper may contain short-answer questions on grammar, vocabulary and spelling. Again, two or three short new-type tests can be combined and administered at the same time, as these consume less time.

(b) Trained personnel are required, who are adept in preparing such tests. Special training courses in constructing, administering and scoring need to be held in different districts for the benefit of the teachers. Model papers prepared by specialists or training colleges can be made use of.

(c) The final examination at the end of the school-course is usually essay-type. The teachers therefore ignore new-type tests. There is still need for creating public opinion in favour of new-type tests, so that the examiners of public examination make free use of objective types of questions. To begin with, some new-type questions can be included in the question papers. Slowly and steadily, the attitude of teachers who are orthodox-minded will be modified.

V. Oral Tests

(a) A large number of pupils or overcrowding in classes discourages the teachers in holding an oral test. It is suggested that the teacher should hold tests of pupils by teachers on different convenient dates in his free time. Class discussions should also be counted as tests.

(b) Equal weightage to oral tests cannot be given in all the subjects. Greater weightage should be given to oral tests in languages. Mental arithmetic should form an integral part of arithmetic tests, and 20% marks may be reserved for it. Similarly, practical work and *viva-voce* in science subjects should govern not less than 25% of the total. It must be remembered that not all the aspects of a particular subject need to be tested orally.

VI. Home Work

(a) The huge amount of correction work overburdens the teacher. He can simplify his task by following the suggestions given below:—(i) Give home-work only with regard to that which has been taught in the class. (ii) Give less home work, but give regularly, and also correct it regularly. Assign a particular period in the class sometimes for written-work. (iii) Correction should be graded. All types of mistakes need not be pointed out at tne same time.

(b) There is lack of reading material in the schools, so that teachers cannot give assignments freely. Full guidance should be given and necessary literature provided to the pupils to enable them to accomplish the assignments without unnecessary hurdles.

VII. Maintenance of Records

The S.E.C. has recommended the maintenance of cumulative records of each pupil by the class-teacher, which will include not only the personal data of the pupil, but also his scholastic attainments, health report, personality traits and participation in activities. Proper evaluation requires the proper maintenance of record of achievement in each field. Now there are certain problems regarding the same.

(a) Firstly, there is the question, who should shoulder the responsibility of undertaking this task. The subject teachers should record the achievement of pupils in their subjects, and hand over these to the class-teacher, who will be responsible for the integration of the records of each pupil. Proper files on standard forms should be maintained about each pupil and kept in the office, so that these are accessible to all the teachers.

(b) How should these be filled up? The teachers should make regular entries in the columns of the forms at the time of a particular event or test. Records of written work may be kept by the teacher and entries made monthly or fortnightly. The file must be progressive, to which sheets can be added from time to time.

(c) In the case of migration of a student from one school to another, the record should form a part of the transfer certificate; otherwise the record will remain incomplete in one school. The record should go with the pupil from class to class and school to school.

Personality Traits

By

SHAMSUDDIN, M.A.,M.Ed., Dongargaon, (Dist., Durg, M. P.)

It is most objectionable that educational guidance of children should depend wholly on personal opinions which are not checked at all. This needs correct checking of intellectual and non-intellectual characteristics of the personality of the child, which may include qualities of temperament, attitudes, social adjustments, and the breadth and the strength of interest. The Norwood Report has also emphasised this. It suggests that whatever may be the basis of selection for Universities, we would pick out "the boy (or girl) who is not a natural student but is of reasonable intellectual capacity, interested in ideas, theoretical or practical, without being good at examinations; of strong personality and character, able to take the lead and an asset to common life."

No sensible person will deny the above assertion. If a school has to justify its existence as the principal agency of educating the youth of society, it should also affect other vital aspects of the students' personality than the intellect. Our schools present a very disheartening picture in this respect.

On an enquiry, only 4% of the schools have answered the following question in affirmative: "Do you *have any register which keeps the records of the students' personality traits?*"

It is obvious that our institutions exhibit no interest in this respect, which in fact is the main part of education. Even the 4% of schools, which claim to maintain records of personality traits, do not possess any separate form. In the progress report form of the Government institutions, there are three columns, namely:

1. Conduct in school,
2. Progress in studies, and
3. Progress in games.

These columns are reported to be regarded as the contents of personality traits by the above 4% of schools. This sort of practice might more satisfy their qualms of conscience than serve the purpose for which such records are usually maintained. The items mentioned above are very general and broad. It will be difficult for a teacher to make in it any

significant remarks, which may be useful in an educational guidance programme.

A form like this should contain scope for recording objective ratings on some essential qualities such as self-confidence, sociability, courtesy and consideration for others, emotional control, sense of responsibility, initiative, habit of work and leadership, etc. Unless there are some such varied and detailed data, it is not possible to form a picture profile of an individual's personal assets and weaknesses.

With such nominal forms and inexperience or indifference to their importance, it is natural that other follies follow. Entries are made at random by class teachers subject to their whims and impressions collected without any studied observation. This method of marking is not suitable. Apart from inaccuracy, only a global impression is given. Particular qualities and defects are not brought to light. Similarly, they do not fix any definite times when these records are to be filled in. As a matter of fact they should endeavour to find out every trait of every individual pupil minutely and then should fill them up. Then only their real purpose can be served. At the end, an attempt has been made to prescribe a form for the purpose, and systematic methodology for filling it up has been discussed below.

PERSONAL DATA SHEET

A personal data sheet is very valuable. If it is properly and accurately maintained, it will be very helpful in managing the student. It aims at giving a glimpse of the pupil's personality, which for convenience of study and record has been split into four areas :

1. Physique and Health.
2. Mental and Scholastic.
3. Character Traits.
4. Vocational and other interests.

In order to see to what extent he brings his personrlity to use, a credit chart has been included in the above record form. It will indicate the sources which have not been tapped yet, for whatever reasons. This record form needs :

1. Use of Mental Tests.
2. Use of rating scales.

Over and above these, it requires a good amount of psychological skill and insight to put together all the information gathered under various heads into a meaningful whole and to interpret it.

It is therefore suggested that without fixing any time it should be made ready for reference by the end of the student's first year in school. This will facilitate guidance ln the subsequent school career.

School

Name..... Section.....

Address..... Personal data sheet Age.....

Class.....

Physique and health

	A	B	C	D	E	Health habits	
Appearance						Teacher's Remarks	
Physique							
						School Doctor's General Remarks	

Mental and Scholastic

ITEMS.	Date of testing.	Age Norm.	Class Norm.	Pupil's starting. Age.	Pupil's starting. Class.	Remarks.	School Subjects Specially Liked.	School Subjects Particularly Disliked.
Intelligence								
Library aptitude								
Scientific aptitude								
Practical aptitude....								

Personality traits

	A	B	C	D	E		A	B	C	D	E
1. Energy						6(a). Cooperativeness					
2. Perseverance						7. Initiative					
3. Sociability						8. Domination & submission					
4. Self-confidence						9. Sense of responsibility					
5. Friendliness						10. Courtesy and consideration for others.					
6. Trustworthiness						11. Emotional control					
						12. Habit of work					

Hobbies.

Activities in which he spends his leisure time.	His accomplishments.

Vocational information.	Credit chart.
1. Parent's ambition and plans:—	1. Class Captain
2. Personal ambition	2. Library Secretar y
3. Special aptitude (Test Result)	3. Trips
4. Psychologist's Remarks	4. Gathering
	5. Class function
	6. Editor or writer
	7. Cadet
	8. Prizes, certificates won
	9. Any other position of responsibility held by him

Studies in Kingship—Russia

By

Prof: T. K. VENKATRAMAN, M.A., L.T., Madras.

Many of the rulers of Russia seem to have specialised in ferocious barbarity. The Tsar was held in such veneration that even the highest dignitaries of the church were considered unworthy to crown him. They crowned themselves. Ivan IV, rightly called Ivan the Terrible of Russia (1544–1584), had begun to reign even as a child of three. He was bred by wicked courtiers who diverted him from state business by teaching him cruel and dissolute amusements. He had a body guard of ruffians who carried out all the tortures he commanded. Corpses would lie in the streets, for none dared bury them. He caused the death of his eldest son by a blow from the iron-tipped rod that he always carried with him. He spent days in secret torture chambers. One of his monstruous practical jokes was to invite guests to dinner and then pour scalding soup down their necks.

Peter the Great of Russia (1672–1725) was the son of a second wife of Tsar Alexis, and there are strong doubts whether Alexis was his true father. His elder sister, who was regent before he came to the throne, had a lover. Though a king of tremendous energy and foresight, Peter was a slave of his uncontrolled passions. He has been described as dirty and drunk for days. He was also revengeful and cruel to an incredible extent. When the Streltsi (the hereditary bodyguard) rebelled, his venegeance was fearful. He personally beheaded some rebels himself. He revelled in tortures to force his subjects to obey his orders. He forced Russians to smoke. He forbade the wearing of long dresses, and the guards at the gates of the towns had strict orders to cut short the garments of any one which hung below the knees. He forbade the wearing of beards and himself clipped the beards of some of the nobles with his own hands. Even his orders regarding religious worship were obeyed by his subjects, for 'the risk of eternal damnation after life was less immediate than the certainty of being broken on the wheel, if the Tsar was disobeyed.'

He ordered St. Petersburg to be built in a marshy and unhealthy site. The damp ground, the evil smell, the constant danger of floods from the Neva and the prevalence of malaria subjected to untimely death many workers who built the town and the people who resided in it. The nobles again and again fled back to Moscow, the old capital. But the Tsar sent soldiers who brought them back each time. The Tsar's height of cruelty was reached when, suspecting his own son and heir, he tortured him in prison, and probably himself presided over his execution.

The horrible scene at the beheading of his mistress, which is described by Stephen Graham in his *Peter the Great*, leaves a doubt whether he was not subject to sexual madness. It is said that, when the Tsar arrived in Prussia in 1717, he was accompanied by 400 ladies. The memoirs of Wilhelmina, sister of Frederick the Great, state that "nearly all these creatures carried richly clothed babies in their arms and, when asked if they were theirs, they replied that the Tsar had done them that honour." His practical jokes were also barbarous. On a New Year's day, he forced one of his most sedate ministers to dress himself like a Patriarch, made him drunk and suddenly overturned him with his chair, laughing uproariously.

His grandson, Peter III, (1728–1762), was half-mad. His wife came to the

throne after murdering him as Catherine II (1729–1796), Peter III spent his days in drinking, alternating with interminable military parades of his servants, playing with tin soldiers and arranging mock battles in which enormous powder was wasted. He was openly unfaithful to his queen, Catherine, who perhaps secured his murder and then ascended the throne. This empress, Catherine II, was notorious for her looseness. When she was sixty, she had lovers of twenty. She punished a maid who revealed her love intrigues by sending six soldiers to scourge her on her nuptial night. The husband was forced to witness the gruesome sight of drops of her blood and bits of her flesh flying about in all directions. An English doctor who vaccinated her was made a Russian peer and given a pension for life. One of her lovers was Count de Boigne, who later was general of the forces of Mahadaji Sindhia.

Tsar Paul I (1754–1801), son of Catherine II, was a ruthless tyrant. Every day would see the issue of decrees even more ridiculous than those issued before. One man was imprisoned, because, when he kissed the Tsar's hand, he did not appear to show sufficient respect. A horse, which stumbled when he was on it, was starved to death. Even his wife was placed under arrest many times. He was also full of vanity. He had a snub nose. So, none would be taken into his regiment or guards, unless he had a snub nose. The fact that his coins did not contain his head was explained by his people as due to his ugliness.

In the time of Alexander I of Russia (1778–1825), a secret police system and a rigorous censorship suppressed all popular movements. The administration was arbitrary and inefficient. The judges were corrupt and ignorant. Men and women were jailed promiscuously on mere suspicion. The peasants were subjected to the knout frequently. The knout is an instrument consisting of a curved leather thong bound with a wire thread, which is attached to a handle. A hook is fitted at the end. Each stroke would tear away a long, thin strip of flesh. Yet the emperor held himself the champion of the principles of the Gospel. The scheme of the Holy Alliance, for which he was responsible, proclaimed high-sounding humanitarian and evangelical principles. Metternich called it 'a loud-sounding nothing', and Castlereagh regarded it as 'a sublime piece of mysticism and nonsense'. When the Tsar attended the Congress of Vienna, he shocked by his morals "even that not very strait-laced society." But even lectures delivered in the Russian Universities had to be accompanied, however, by pious doctrines. Thus, a professor who taught mathematics, reminded his class, that, in a right-angled triangle the square described on the hypotenuse would be found, with the help of God, equal to the sum of the squares described on the other two sides.

When Nicholas II succeeded to the Russian throne in 1894, he proclaimed his resolve to 'preserve the principles of autocracy as firmly and unswervingly' as his father, Alexander III (1845–1894). Such was the Russian reactionary regime that even the calendar remained Julian and not Gregorian, till the Bolshevik Revolution. On Sunday (notorious as the Red Sunday, because of the blood that was split), January 22nd, 1905, an orderly and peaceful procession of workers moving to the Winter Palace to present a petition to the Tsar was brutally fired on by the police.

This Tsar was associated with the monk, Rasputin, who held services where men and women danced in an atmosphere impregnated with benzoin. Then, lights would be extinguished and the monk would cry, "Let your bodies sin," and indiscriminate licence followed. Like Richelieu, he needed an atmosphere of heavy perfume to excite him.

Education and Employment

By

T. N. RAO, B.A., L.T., Dip. in S.Edn., Hyderabad.

The aim of education is the over-all development of an individual by drawing out the faculties of mind and body in healthy and progressive channels. 'A sound mind in a sound body' is always a good maxim to be remembered in education. Towards the development of the individual and adjustment to changing conditions of society, our schools and colleges and other educational institutions are working untiringly under experts and turning out year after year thousands of educated men and women. After the advent of freedom, schools, colleges, and universities have increased rapidly and various branches of learning and specialised courses have drawn different groups of young men and women for doing service to our country after the completion of their educational career. Graduates in science, mathematics, economics, history and politics, technology, medicine, languages music, art, and commerce, are pouring out of the portals of our university colleges and adding to the educated population of the teeming millions of our country. In spite of the heavy expenses involved in the educational courses, there has been a great rush for admission to these courses, and admission itself has become a problem for parents.

But why all this glamour for education? Is every educated youth of our country getting suitable employment, consistent with his qualifications, capacity and taste? The simple answer is 'No'. Every parent, rich, middle class, or poor, spends his money on the education of his sons, hoping that they will come up to his expectations and be of use to themselves and the family. But in these days of high cost of living, higher education has put so much strain on the financial resources of parents that, when their children complete their educational careers and come out into the broad world, they find themselves poor and helpless. To add to this, marriages of daughters in particular, and other family obligations and comitments have ruined several families and left them with nothing to fall back upon except the university or school leaving certificates in the hands of their sons, who seem to be the only hope to them for solving the problems of life.

This deterioration in the economics of parents, has driven youths of our country on job-hunting campaigns, which again involve the parents in further expenditure or indebtedness. After several trials and battles with "no vacancies", only 20% of our educated youths can secure some kind of job, in many cases not consistent with their qualifications or talents. The rest of 80% of youths have to remain idle and without jobs of any kind. This has swollen the number of educated unemployed in our country. Day by day, this number is growing to an appalling extent, far out of proportions, and employment has become so difficult that even graduates, experts, specialists and technicians have been obliged to remain idle without suitable jobs or undersell their services for undeserving jobs with meagre returns just for their very sustenance. This has robbed our country not only of the valuable services of its youth but also the young men themselves of self-confidence and efficiency, and it has degraded the value of his education. I have seen well educated young men, knocking about from place to place, from office to office and craving or begging for employment of some kind, in the most abject manner, only to be confronted, by the haughty demeanour and unwelcome questions of the employing bosses, or the curt replies of "No vacancies." This is the miserable

position of the educated youth of our country. Such conditions are not in existence anywhere else, neither in America, nor on the Continent of Europe, nor in Russia or Japan.

Idleness is a rust of the mind. It is one thing for a rich youth to remain idle; but it is a matter of struggle for existence for the youths of the middle and poorer classes. I have already stated in my contribution on 'Education and Travel', that the well-to-do youths of our country, in case they cannot employ themselves suitably, should undertake wide travel all over the world, and improve their culture and knowledge. Or they will do well to start social welfare organisations and do social work in towns and villages for the good of our country. Others also may join these organisations and do social service to the country, at least till they get suitable employment. Mr. Gulzarilal Nanda, Union Planning Minister, in his recent address at Delhi for an integrated plan for social work, said: "There lies throughout the country a vast quantity of idle man-power which has to be tapped, trained and put to proper use". Idleness, particularly in educated youths, is a wastage of knowledge and talent; and in the strain of the Planning Minister I may say here that there lies throughout this country a vast quanitity of brain-power also which has to be tapped and put to proper use. So the problem of the educated unemployed assumes paramount importance, and requires urgent solution by our Government.

With a view to secure employment to candidates and to do justice in the matter of selections to various jobs, our Government have instituted Employment Exchanges, State Service Commissions, Union Services Commission etc. Even in these well-intentioned institutions, there is considerable difficulty in getting one's name registered; and candidates, even after passing successfully through these agencies, have to be rotting in the waiting lists for years together before they are employed. The educated unemployed are a bane to the country, and they do not contribute to the well-being of a welfare State. The Government, by solving this important problem, can to a large extent mitigate the evil of strikes, pen-down strikes, hunger-strikes and discontent, both among employees and non-employees as well.

India is a rich country; but it is full of poverty-stricken people. This is really paradoxical. Unless and until this scourge of poverty is banished once for all, there is no hope of progress for our country. The only way to remove poverty and make people prosperous is through careful planning and development, stepping up production, rapid industrialisation, removal of illiteracy and ignorance and social inequalities, and provision of employment to every man, woman and child in this country. All the above-mentioned items are embodied in the Second five-year plan and large sums of money are allocated for the purpose under each head. It is left for us to cooperate with the Government in making this stupendous plan a great success. Let us all learn to labour and to wait. Our Motherland expects every one of us to do his duty.

Basic Needs of a Basic School

By

M. Nagasubramania Iyer, Papanasam

The starting of basic schools and the conversion of non-basic ones are already on foot. The principles enunciated are already commendable and would have immense potential value, if they are to be understood and followed faithfully. About 40 items of 'Plan of Work' are to be selected by each basic school in five grades to suit the needs of each locality. The teachers, from the lowest and the highest, being new to the job cannot be expected to follow the plan, unless they have proper guidance initially. The mode of handling the craft-centred subjects grade-wise in a concentric plan may be prepared for about 100 'Plans of Work' by really efficient hands and published for sale. This would be a nucleus for the teachers to act upon.

From what I am able to see, there is almost nothing that is taught in training schools and in the attached model schools, except spinning, weaving and cooking—all in a perfunctory manner not adding to improvement or insight. Non-observance of closely following the time - table would only lead to indiscipline. From personal experience, I know that most persons discharged from the basic training course are ignorant of arranging for a flag-hoisting ceremony, of the several registers that are to be kept in elementary schools, or at least of how to talk in a proper way befitting a teacher. Proper selection of teacher trainees with increased stipends so that they may have square meals, and reducing the training period itself to one year and intensive training closely following the time-table would have a salutary effect in improving the trainees in all ways. By a careful arrangement, the trainees may be made to prepare 'Plans of Work' individually on different lines at the rate of one a month to be subjected for scrutiny. They may be asked to coin questions and sums in the several subjects. Mass preparation of meals and the cleaning of utensils may be dispensed with. Squatting on the bare floor at school or in the dining hall seems to be a rule rather than an exception. Each of the trainees should be provided with a plank or a mat to sit on, with a suitable desk for writing.

To aim at quality teaching and quality conduct of the classes, it is necessary to have proper selection for training. To facilitate right growth, there should be a *viva voce* and a written test among the candidates aspiring for training. It should be made a rule that they possess a definite attainment in spinning with the *takli* or the *charka* already as a condition to qualify for training. *Ambar charka* training may be given to batches of students during the training period itself. Stipends to trainees should as a rule be paid within the 10th.

Our Educational Diary

By

'PEPYS.'

16—8—58. Mr. Basheer Ahmed Sayeed, Judge of the Madras High Court, presiding over the conference of the correspondents of colleges affiliated to the Madras University, suggested that the authorities should also come to the aid of those in charge of higher education and help promote University education. He said that the delay in the disbursements of grants should also be avoided. He stressed the need for raising the salaries of the teaching staff. The following are some of the important resolutions passed by the Conference: (i) Revision of grants-in-aid code governing grants both by the State and the Central Governments. (ii) The State Government was asked to contribute 25 per cent of the increased expenditure on the new pay scales. (iii) The Union Government was requested to give liberal, interest-free loans towards the construction of hostels. (iv) It was suggested that the Pre-university course should be continued in the colleges and that it should not be attached to schools. (x) Another resolution pleaded for representation of the managements in the University bodies viz., syndicate, senate etc. *Itwas suggested that students of the locality should be given preference in the matter of admission and that students should not be admitted from places where other colleges functioned.*

[The last recommendation might be adopted with great benefit both to the students and the colleges. What we really find is, while mofussil colleges have ample accomodation to spare, students simply rush to the already overcrowded colleges in big towns. Again, if students of the locality were admitted, there would be more personal contact and supervision over the students by the professors. It would be the next best thing to residential colleges, which are not within our country's means It will also lessen —if not cheapen— the cost of higher education.]

20—9—58. Speaking to the old lady students of the Ethiraj College, —their pardon for using the word 'old'— Rajaji suggested that instead of the present dull convocation, each college could have its own convocation over which members of the Sydicate might preside. As it was, the present annual convocation had become a dull, meaningless routine. Such small convocations as he suggested would be more family-like and more useful, he said.

25—8—58. An international seminar on Education was held at New Delhi and lasted for a fortnight. Inaugurating the seminar, Dr. K. Shrimali said that the task before the educational administrators was to work out a synthesis of scientific and spiritual values. The school curriculum, he said, would have to effect a harmonious fusion of the modern science and ancient culture. The 'puzzling problems' before them were the high percentage of illiteracy coupled with low economic resources, cultural diversity leading to sectarianism, and the need for developing a national language. There could be no single and uniform blue print in matters of education. Every country and region had to work out its own system of education, best suited to the genius of the local population. Dr. K. G. Saiyidain said that education must strive with conscious intent to promote international understanding and peace and enlarge the area of understanding and goodwill between races and religious groups and classes and nations and states.

1—9—58. Sri K. Lakshmana Sastri, writing in *The Hindu*. dated 1-9-58,

on the spread of Sanskrit education, recounts the excellent work done in this direction by Sanskrit enthusiasts like Sri K. M. Munshi. The Council of Sanskrit Education is functioning in Hyderabad and this has been recognised by the Union Government. It is also proposed to start a Sanskrit University in the South, and for the purpose liberal endowments in the shape of buildings and lands have been made by Raja Madanagopal of Saincher and the daughter of the late Maharaja Sir Kishen Pershad Bahadur. The Council has till now established 25 *patasalas*. On the first of September, a ' Veda shastra patasala ' has also been opened to impart education in all the Vedas in the traditional method. It is proposed to admit students from the South and the North in equal proportions and award liberal scholarship to the students, part of which will be accumulated in a bank and will be given to them at the end of their twelve-year course of study. For this laudable purpose, 1000 acres of lands on the banks of the Godavari have been donated by the philanthropic couple, Rani Indumati Devi and Raja Venkat Rao Limbekar, jagirdar of Parbhani District. It is proposed to gradually develop the present Central Sanskrit College at Alwal into a traditional Sanskrit University for the South.

x x x

3—9—58. Mr. K. Kuruvilia Jacob has suggested that a Text Book Research Bureau should be started for setting standards in the preparation of text books. He pleaded for improving the technique of examinations so that the assessments might be reliable. He referred to the draw backs of multi-purpose schools and said that the " bias " course should end with S.S.L.C. stage and technical courses beyond that stage should aim at vocational competence. Mr. Jacob congratulated the Government on postponing their policy of nationalisation of text books. He pointed out in this connection how one of the Government-sponsored English non-detailed text books abounded in mistakes of all sorts. Sri T. P. S. Varadan complained of the hardships caused to school children, as many schools had to close to enable public examinations to be held in them. They had however no objection to their premises being used for this purpose during holidays.

9—9—58 The Conference of Secretaries and representatives of State Boards of Secondary Education on Examination Reform has recommended the following measures to implement the programme of examination reform:—(i) Provision of teachers to participate in the evaluation workshops organised by the examination unit for the production of test materials. (ii) Incorporation of new tpes of questions in the external examinations with reference to selected objectives and in different stages. (iii) Such schools should be notified in advance. (iv) The setting up of a State Examination unit. (v) Organisation of suitable research on problems relating to evaluation and curricular construction.

Dr. Bloom, who participated in the conference surprised his audience, by telling them that, while in India the University student spent rarely four hours daily in the college, the British student spent eight hours per day there.

[Dr. Bloom's information ought to make our educational authorities think furiously, viz., how they allow the students to waste their precious youth, which is also a potent cause for the general indiscipline in colleges and universities]

EDITORIAL

Objective Tests in Madras

The Government of Madras have passed orders withdrawing objective tests from the S.S.L.C. examination. It may be remembered that the new type tests were introduced into the S.S.L.C. examination in 1950. As the result of the experience gained in their working, they are now being given up. Frankly, none interested in sound standards of education will shed any tears at these tests bidding farewell to the S.S.L.C. examination. It has been widely felt that one of the important factors contributing to the fall in standards is the new-type test.

In his presidential address at the Headmasters' Conference at the Madras Christian College High School on September 2nd, Sri Kuruvilla Jacob explained the reasons behind this decision of the Government. It was found that the essay questions, which still formed more than half of every question-paper, tended to become short-answer questions. (Apparently, the new-type questions 'corrupted' by their presence the essay-type ones.) "The value of the essay-type, which calls for organisation of thoughts and arguments and clear expression," said Mr. Jacob, "was gradually neglected."

Another reason mentioned by Mr. Jacob is even more interesting. It was presumably forgotten that the objective types of tests required special skill and care in preparation. This means in other words that they really tended to lower the standards, as was generally suspected. A carefully prepared battery of new-type questions may not lower standards. But they will test only information and intelligence, and not the power to organise thoughts or to express them clearly. However, badly prepared new-type tests are apt to make the examination a farce.

Mr. Jacob added that there was no provision for a statistical analysis of the results of the S.S.L.C. examination to show how the tests had been functioning. By and large, therefore, the S.S.L.C. Board must have felt that the new-type tests were not functioning properly. And few will object to their decision to give up a hasty experiment. As a substitute for the new-type tests, it is proposed to provide a large number of short-answer questions covering a wide range of the syllabus. This would eliminate the possibilities of random guessing and imperfect articulation, which were encouraged by the new-type tests as they were worked in Madras.

The moral of it all is that we should make haste slowly. We may well await the results of the study that the Government of India is making about the entire structure of examinations and bring in any reforms that may be necessary step by step. In the circumstances, the Madras Government have taken a wise decision.

An Abridged Classic

For some years past the Government of Madras have been in the habit of bringing out departmentally some non-detailed text books in English for the S.S.L.C. examination. This year, an abridgement of Sir Walter Scott's *Quentin Durward* was so brought out. Unfortunately, its preparation and printing appear to have been very carelessly done. In a note to the press, Sri T. K. V. Rajagopalan, Secretary of the Tanjore Town School Secondary Teachers' Association, has drawn pointed attention to its many imperfections. The printing of 'Edward VIII' as the then King of England in the place of "Edward IV" is one such glaring error. He adds that he was able to detect 72 mistakes from a rapid reading of the book. Mr. Kuruvilla Jacob notes about 100 mistakes in language apart from innumerable mistakes in punctuation.

This is a grim warning, we believe, about the perils attendant on the nationalisation of text-books. Standards are bound to suffer when the Government text-books are assured of a monopoly in advance. We may add that similar errors, though not to the same extent, have been noticed in other Government-sponsored books. Once in the S.S.L.C. text-book for detailed study in English, a lesson was said to be extracted from the *Hard Times* of Dickens, when it was from another story altogether. Again, in the departmental notes prepared for the S.S.L.C. detailed text, Sarojini Naidu's reference to Brindavan in association with Krishna was taken to be an allusion to the Brindavan Gardens at the Krishnarajasagara dam near Mysore. It is better that the Government does not enter into the business of text-book making, unless it can spare for it infinite care and set up very high standards.

Indoctrination?

Towards the end of August, Mr. V. O. Abraham, on behalf of the School Managers' Association of Kerala, presented a petitition to the President of India, appealing to him to consider the seriousness and consequent danger of indoctrination of the children of the State with the Communist idealogy.

The memorandum observes: "The text-book, which should be a mirror of truth and beauty for the teacher and the pupil, has been turned by the Kerala Government into a tool of party propaganda. Most of the books have been so written as to discredit faith in the Supreme Being, in the existence of an immortal soul and in the need of an ethical way of life. At the same time, the authors of these books have been at great pains to present a charming picture of the materialistic conception of life, and of States, institutions and organisations built upon the foundation of a materialistic philosophy of life.....Such books are not at all in tune with the culture and traditions of a country like India where, down the ages, the main stream of life has been running with the current of godliness and spirituality. Such books, consistently used in our schools, will inevitably cut asunder the rising generations of the country from the rich cultural inheritance of our glorious past."

The indoctrination of children has been a cardinal article of creed with the Communists ever since Lenin saw its value. And no party in power can be expected to give up the opportunity offered by nationalised text-books. The Kerala petition therefore should be taken as a plea against nationalisation of text-books and viewed in a larger context. The protest that it makes is valid outside Kerala also. In Tamilnad, there is a growing tendency in Tamil texts to encourage irreligion and fan the flame of parochial loyalties at the expense of the unity of India. The complaint is sometimes made that, in Maharashtra, text-books which give a glowing account of Shivaji are discouraged. Such instances may be found, we are sure, throughout the length and breadth of India. The Congress and other idealogies are also trying to get into text-books.

Of course, text-books cannot be written in a vacuum. They are bound to be influenced by the climate of opinion and feeling in the country. But ruling parties will do well to impose some self-denying ordinances on themselves. The first of these is to encourage freedom of thought by giving up all schemes of nationalising text-books. Then controversial social, political and religious topics should be avoided, as far as possible, in text-books. No attempt should be made to suppress facts, but opinions, unless universally acceptable, may be kept in the background. Children must be left to learn their values from their family and the community.

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