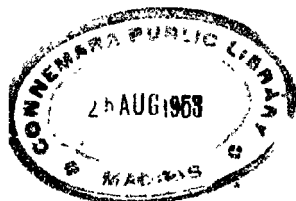


Universities in Britain



S. R. DONGERKERY

UNIVERSITIES
IN BRITAIN

Foreword by

LORD CLYDESMUIR



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To my Wife



Foreword



The writer of this book has done a great service not only to students in India but to readers throughout the world who are interested in university education.

Mr Dongerkery, who has been Registrar of Bombay University since 1931, has had a distinguished scholastic career, and his studies at first hand of university life in Europe, and particularly in the United Kingdom, have proved of much value to students of many countries. His earlier publications include *Universities and their Problems* (1948), and *Universities and National Life* (1950).

This volume reviews the growth of university life in the United Kingdom and discusses present trends with great clarity and perception. I was particularly struck by the chapter which deals with the effects of World War II, and I commend the author's conclusions to readers.

It gives me much happiness to write this foreword owing to my association with Mr Dongerkery during the years when I was *ex officio* Chancellor of Bombay University, when I formed a high opinion of his ability. As an old 'Oxbridge' man of the years before World War I, I agree with Mr Dongerkery that though many changes have come since those days which seem now far off, the university as an institution plays a greater part than ever in British life and is a strong and healthy plant.

CLYDESMUIR

Braidwood, Scotland

6 November 1952

25 AUG 1958

Preface

I had long cherished a desire to visit the British universities, with a view to acquainting myself, at first hand, with their organization and administration, and making personal contacts with their teachers, students and administrators. I was, therefore, very happy when I received a letter from the Secretary of the Association of the Universities of the British Commonwealth, in the beginning of September 1950, informing me that the Executive Council of the Association, at its meeting held in New Zealand, had decided to award me the Imperial Relations Trust Travelling Fellowship for 1950-1, for the purpose of visiting the universities of the United Kingdom. This fellowship, by enabling its holders to travel from one part of the Commonwealth to another and acquire knowledge of institutions through visits and personal contacts, provides unrivalled opportunities to university administrators, not only for strengthening the ties that bind together the different countries constituting the Commonwealth, but also for enriching the cultural experience of the highest educational institutions of these countries by the exchange of ideas and knowledge of existing conditions. Speaking for myself, I was able with the help of this fellowship, which was available to India for the first time since the awards commenced, to establish valuable contacts with university administrators and teachers in the United Kingdom, besides obtaining much useful information about their day-to-day work and acquainting them

with the problems of the Indian universities with which I was familiar.

I visited all the British universities except three, the universities of Eire and some of the university colleges. The London office of the British Council very kindly prepared a well-planned programme for my tour, and at almost every place I visited their local representative met me on my arrival and helped me with information and advice. I cannot adequately express my admiration for the efficiency of this great organization, and my gratitude to its enthusiastic officers, whose courtesy and willingness to assist in every possible way I can never forget. I was received with the same cordiality by everyone I met in the university world: Vice-Chancellor, Principal, Registrar, Secretary, Professor, Tutor, Librarian, President of the Students' Union. I wish to thank them all for their courtesy and kindness to me, and for the valuable time they spared in showing me round, answering my questions, discussing with me the problems that faced them and how they tried to solve them, and supplying me with information on matters in which I was interested.

At the International Universities Conference, convened at Nice in December 1950, I had an opportunity of meeting some of the Vice-Chancellors whom I had not been able to meet during my tour around the British universities, and of renewing my acquaintance with those I had previously met. I must not omit to mention the courtesy which the Executive Council of the Association of the Universities of the Commonwealth extended to me by inviting me to attend

their meeting in London as an observer. It was when the Vice-Chairman of the Council, who presided at this meeting, referred to my presence, and suggested that the Council would be interested to know what impressions the British Universities had made on my mind, that I first conceived the idea of recording those impressions, not only in the report which I was in duty bound to submit to the Council, but in the more permanent shape of a book. I am thankful to the Council for the permission which they readily gave me to incorporate in the present book the material included in the report which I later submitted to them.

There are many books dealing with the British universities, written by foreigners as well as by British writers. So far as I am aware, however, till now no book on the subject has been written by an Indian author. Even if this were my only excuse for writing the present book, I would not hesitate to advance it in self-defence. But I think there are so many useful lessons to be learnt from a study of the organization and administration of the British universities by those who are interested in university education in India that the views of one who approaches a study of those universities from the Indian angle may be of interest to teachers, students and university administrators in this country.

I lay no claim to have dealt exhaustively with the British universities. I did not intend to do so when I sat down to write this book, because it would not have been possible to do so without making a detailed study of the history and development of each of the universities, a task which

would take several years, and it would have required a book at least five times the size of the present volume to embody the results of such study. This book is an attempt to bring out the salient features of British universities which strike a visitor to those universities. I have tried to treat the subject in a broad and general way by taking the several aspects of university life and education in the United Kingdom, and dealing with them rather than with the history and working of individual universities, although I have discussed the characteristic features of some of the universities when dealing with their constitutions or methods of work, but this was mainly for the purpose of comparison or contrast. The universities of Eire do not strictly fall in the category of British universities, but their nearness to, and historical connexion with, those universities cannot be forgotten because of the turn of political events. Besides, for all practical purposes they are associated with the universities of the British Commonwealth, and are admitted to the privileges to which members of the Association of the Universities of the British Commonwealth are entitled. It would have been a pity not to mention them in the present book. I, therefore, feel that there is ample justification for not omitting them from this account of the British universities.

The writing of a book such as this cannot but place the author under a heavy obligation to earlier writers who have told the story of the British universities in their own way. While it would be next to impossible to try to assess the extent of my indebtedness to each book that I have had occasion to read or consult (and their number is large),

I wish, in particular, to mention a few which, more than others, have proved helpful to me. I would place Flexner's *Universities, American, English, German* (Oxford University Press), which has become a classic by now, at the head of this short list. Sir Charles Grant Robertson's book *The British Universities* (Methuen & Co. Ltd), representing the views, and embodying the experience, of one of the ablest university administrators of the twentieth century in the short space of less than ninety pages, and Bruce Truscot's *Red Brick University* (Faber & Faber Ltd), as stimulating as it is intriguing with regard to its author's identity, are two of the more recent books which no writer on the British universities at the present day can afford to pass by, especially when discussing the position and role of the civic universities in the national life of England. Apart from the latest calendars and handbooks, which I collected during my visits to the several universities, the *Year Book of the Universities of the Commonwealth* (Bell & Sons) which was my vade-mecum throughout my tour, has furnished me with most of the facts I needed for the writing of this book. I must not omit to make special mention here of the *Handbook to the University of Oxford* (Oxford University Press) and the little book of Dr S. C. Roberts, published under the unassuming title of *Introduction to Cambridge* (Cambridge University Press), which have furnished me with authoritative information relating to these two ancient seats of learning. Since the development of the British universities during the last thirty years has been inextricably bound up with the policy and activities of the University Grants

Committee, it is well-nigh impossible to say anything about the phenomenal progress of university education during this important period in the life of these universities without dipping now and again into the illuminating reports of the Committee, which would rank high in any collection of university literature, not only on account of the authority with which they can claim to speak on university problems but also because of their intrinsic literary value.

I am deeply indebted to Lord Clydesmuir, a former Chancellor of my university, for the readiness with which he agreed, at my request, to write the Foreword to this book. I must also acknowledge with thanks the help I have received from Dr Douglas Veale, C.B.E., LL.D., Registrar of the University of Oxford, Dr S. C. Roberts, LL.D., Master of Pembroke College and a former Vice-Chancellor of the University of Cambridge, and Dr Charles R. Morris, LL.D., Vice-Chancellor of the University of Leeds, who went through the book, in its galley-proof stage, and made valuable suggestions. In fairness to them, I should add that no responsibility can attach to them for any blemishes in the book, as the final and sole responsibility for its contents is mine.

S. R. D.

Bombay

1 December 1952

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THE UNIVERSITY SCENE

The progress of the university movement in the United Kingdom is marked by a striking lack of continuity. Looked at through the long vista of eight centuries, the university landscape presents very uneven features. At the far end, at no great distance from each other, stand the ancient Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, both of medieval origin, like two towering peaks dominating the entire scene. At the near end, separated by a distance of seven centuries, the modern universities, numbering about a dozen, form a homogeneous cluster of smaller peaks. The monotonous stretch of low land lying between these two ends is relieved by the Scottish universities, which combine to make a group of four peaks of middling height, with distinctive features. A fifth peak, Trinity College, Dublin, lies in their neighbourhood, but, on a closer view, it reveals an unmistakable resemblance to the twin peaks at the far end.

Although continuity, in the sense of a regular process of development, is conspicuous by its absence in the growth of the British universities, in relation to the social, intellectual and economic conditions in which they took their rise, the universities of Great Britain bear witness to two distinct influences or trends in national life. The influence of religion, especially of the medieval Church, to which Oxford and Cambridge owed their origin and inspiration, continued

to retain its hold on their academic life until almost the last quarter of the nineteenth century. The Scottish universities, too, in spite of their proximity in time to the Reformation and the Renaissance, continued for a long time under the influence of the mediæval scholastic tradition, and, even to this day, religion plays no small part in their life. On the other hand, the modern universities, with the exception of Durham, which was partly endowed out of the funds of the See and Chapter of Durham, began their careers as secular institutions typical of the forces set in motion by the Industrial Revolution, which ushered in a new era of science and technology, and the Reform Act of 1832, which transferred political power from the landed aristocracy to the middle classes.

Its transformation from an agricultural to an industrial life shook the very foundations of the economic and social structure of England, which soon became the workshop of the world. Bentham's utilitarian philosophy was fast gaining ground. To meet the new needs of the growing industrial population in manufacturing centres like Birmingham, Manchester, Leeds and Liverpool, and also as a reaction against the traditional disciplines of Oxford and Cambridge, university colleges which, in course of time, developed into the civic universities, sprang up in the latter half of the nineteenth century. They were free from religious influence of any kind, and concentrated their attention on the teaching of science, technology and modern subjects for which the older universities either made no provision whatever or made very inadequate provision. If religion was the motiv-

ating force of the universities founded before the Reformation, and even of those which came into existence soon after the Reformation, science became the dominating influence in the universities established in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries.

One of the main functions of the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge was to train men 'fit to serve God in Church and State'. In addition to the liberal arts which had been the foundation of education in the mediæval, continental universities, Oxford and Cambridge provided instruction in theology, law and medicine as a training for the learned professions, and continued to do so almost exclusively, until they were compelled, in sheer self-defence, to fall into line with the modern universities by adding natural science and some of the other modern subjects to their courses. The denominational tests which they imposed on their students and the high cost of living and education at both universities necessarily made them close preserves of young men who satisfied those tests and could afford the expense. This state of things could very well continue so long as the demand for a university education was restricted to a small, privileged class to which the learned professions and the parties in power looked for their recruits. With the transfer of political power, which began with the passing of the first Reform Act, the growth of large industrial centres and the spread of secondary education over a large area, the demand for higher and university education became more widespread and insistent. It soon became clear that Oxford and Cambridge were both ill-suited and inadequate to meet the

growing demands or satisfy the needs of the industrialized middle and working classes. The progress of science and technology, with which the prosperity of these classes was closely bound up, diminished the importance of a purely literary education.

The stage was thus set for the civic universities. They received an impetus from the technical education movement of which the Great Exhibition of 1851 was the starting point. The London Mechanics' Institute had been founded in 1823, but it was not till the middle of the nineteenth century that more 'Working Men's Colleges' came into existence, and Owens College, Manchester (1851), was the first of the university colleges to provide the seed for the growth of the great civic universities of the twentieth century. The other university colleges, which followed in rapid succession in the last quarter of the nineteenth century, were Yorkshire College, Leeds (1874), University College, Bristol (1876), Firth College, Sheffield (1879), Mason College, Birmingham (1880), University College, Liverpool (1881), University College, Nottingham (1881) and the University Extension College and the Schools of Sciences and Arts, Reading (1892). These colleges were originally designed to teach science and technology, but, in course of time, they introduced the teaching of subjects in arts, medicine and other branches of study. The Federal Victoria University of Manchester, founded in 1880, included Owens College, Manchester, and the University Colleges of Leeds and Liverpool as its constituent units. It was not, however, till twenty years later that the University of Birmingham, developing from Mason Col-

lege, took shape as the first civic university with a unitary organization, a model copied by the other civic universities, the youngest of which, the University of Southampton, was founded in 1952.

All the civic universities, with the exception of Reading, are non-residential institutions. In this respect they resemble the Scottish universities. Another feature common to them and the Scottish universities is the part the civic community plays in their government. The Council is, to all intents and purposes, the supreme governing body in the civic universities. It is a predominantly non-academic body with an academic membership of not more than twenty-five per cent. The main reason why the lion's share in the government is given to the lay element is that these universities depend largely upon local support for their maintenance and progress. Though the Council is required to consult the Senate, which is the chief academic body, before taking any decision affecting academic policy, the final voice being with the Council, it has happened in some of the civic universities that technical studies, in which the local lay element is interested, have been strengthened at the expense of cultural studies. Care is taken, however, to see that students who qualify for a degree in a technical subject have a good grasp of the principles of the underlying basic science. The civic universities have refrained from imitating the American universities, which have taken upon themselves the teaching of vocational subjects more appropriately falling within the purview of technical schools and special institutions. The demand of a new profession or vocation

to be included among branches of university instruction is not conceded in Britain, unless the subjects comprised in the course of training are associated with the basic sciences or other branches of knowledge for which provision already exists at the university.

By reason of their location in important civic centres with large populations of industrial workers, the Scottish, with the exception of St Andrews, and the civic universities are easily accessible to students coming from the poorer families. Being non-residential, they are able to provide education at a cost well within the reach of the class of student living in their neighbourhood. They are, therefore, more democratic and popular than the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge. In the Oration delivered by him on the occasion of the commemoration of the Fifth Centenary of the University of Glasgow (21 June 1951), Lord Macmillan, claiming that the Scottish universities had always been democratic in the best sense of that adjective, observed: 'On the classroom benches the crofter's son, the son of the manse, the laird's son from the big house and the merchant's son have always sat side by side in friendly companionship and stimulating rivalry.'¹ They are, further, in close contact with the life of the civic community to whom they owe their existence and prosperity. Civic pride and patriotism and the support of men who have made their fortunes in one or other of the local industries have been largely responsible for the founding and growth of these universities, and, if they cater mainly for

¹ *The Book of the Fifth Centenary*, The University of Glasgow (1952), p. 87.

the needs of the local community, they are only repaying a debt. By providing training of a vocational character, combined with courses of study which serve the dual purpose of an intellectual discipline and a cultural education, these universities are making a valuable contribution to national life. Although in their early career they drew their students mainly from the neighbouring districts, the reputation these universities have acquired for research of the highest quality has been attracting both eminent teachers and able students from all over the country, and even from foreign lands, and it can no longer be said of them that they have only a local character.

The British universities are jealous of their academic standards. The conservatism of Oxford and Cambridge and the high quality they look for in their teachers and students are ascribable to their anxiety lest their admittedly high standards should be lowered. The modern universities, too, will have nothing to do with academic work of poor quality. If, for instance, they are unable to find a person possessing the requisite academic qualifications to fill a vacant chair, they would rather leave the vacancy unfilled than appoint one who does not come up to their expectations. The universities, both old and new, are greatly perturbed by the rapid increase in the numbers of their students since the end of the last war. The student population which numbered 50,000 in 1938-9 increased to 85,421 in 1949-50, and is rising still further. The number of teachers has not kept pace with this increase, and it is difficult to secure teachers of the right quality to fill the many vacancies which have occurred

as a result of the war. Building space for classrooms, libraries, laboratories, staff and students is inadequate. It is feared that the pressure of numbers in these conditions will lead to the deterioration of the standards of university teaching. Referring to this serious situation, the Committee of Vice-Chancellors and Principals, in their note on University Policy and Finance in 1947-56, emphatically asserted that 'academic standards once lowered are not retrievable and Gresham's law applies to them'. The quality of the material that comes to the universities from the secondary schools is no less important a factor in the maintenance of academic standards than the quality of the teaching provided by the universities themselves, and here, too, the problems of increasing numbers of pupils in the secondary schools and the shortage of good secondary teachers are responsible for a deterioration in the quality of the undergraduate material available to the universities.

The Oxford and Cambridge of today are different from what they were before the first world war. The number of undergraduates has mounted up. The students one finds there today come from all classes of society. The privileged class is practically non-existent. The tide of democracy which has invaded these high and ancient seats of learning has washed away all social and economic barriers among the student community. Women, who had long been discriminated against, have had their just claims to equality of treatment fully recognized, although there is still some restriction on their number in Oxford. Tutorial fellowships have increased in number and chairs in new

subjects have been created. The communication of knowledge and learning still bulks large in their programmes. In the old days only the best men were encouraged to pursue research. Since the establishment of the D.Phil. degree in Oxford and the Ph D. degree in Cambridge towards the end of the second decade of the present century, the number of research students has greatly increased in both universities.

In spite of the changes which have come over them, Oxford and Cambridge still enjoy the prestige which has been theirs for generations as national institutions which have provided the country and the Commonwealth with leaders in the political field, in the learned professions and in the higher services of both the Church and the State. One of the open secrets of the superior position which these two universities occupy in public esteem is that the glory of their traditions still continues to attract the best of teachers and the best of students. In this respect the modern universities are at a great disadvantage, but they have compensated for the poverty of ancient traditions by more tangible attractions. They have established their reputation as live centres of scientific and technological research and, although they do not trail clouds of glory, the names of the distinguished occupants of some of their chairs and the up-to-date equipment of their modern laboratories have their own special attractions for keen students of science and technology.

It has been said that the British universities are the creation of individual benefactors, and not of the State. The sources of private benefactions, though plentiful in the past,

are quickly drying up, as individual fortunes and large individual incomes are dwindling under the increasing load of taxation. The Carnegie Trust for the universities of Scotland, the Rhodes Trust and the Nuffield and Besse endowments in Oxford are, perhaps, the last of the great endowments to the British universities. The percentage of the annual income of these universities represented by their endowments which stood at 11.5 in 1923-4 was reduced to 5.7 in 1949-50, and the figure may dwindle still further. The place of the individual benefactor is, to some extent, being taken by manufacturing, industrial and commercial corporations and firms which make donations from time to time in token of their appreciation of the services the universities are rendering to society in general, and to industry and commerce in particular. Smaller benefactions and gifts from individuals, some of whom are old *alumni* desirous of showing their gratitude to their Alma Mater, trickle in occasionally. The most helpful among the benefactions are naturally those which, being free from conditions, go to swell the general fund, and are consequently available for any purpose to which the universities may wish to apply them. The State is fully aware of the financial situation of the universities, which has been brought about by economic factors and by its own legislation, and has not been slow to meet their growing needs in their altered circumstances by increasing the amount of its annual recurring grant, on the advice of the University Grants Committee.

Each university in Great Britain has developed according to its individual character and needs. This has been possible

because of the independence and autonomy the universities have always enjoyed. The State has never attempted to interfere with their internal government, nor has it sought to impose its will on them in any manner. They are, and have always been, free to follow their own programmes and academic policies and, even today, when more than three-fifths of their annual income is derived from direct grants made by the Treasury, their freedom remains unimpaired. This is so because the British Government has the wisdom and foresight to accept the advice of the University Grants Committee which, by virtue of its constitution and its manner of working, is best fitted to guide the Government in its relation to, and dealings with, the universities. This Committee, which has played a very important part in the development of the universities since the end of the first World War, when it was set up, has rightly impressed upon the Government that the relationship between the State and the universities should be conceived as a form of partnership in which the State, as the financing partner, meets all reasonable demands of the universities in consideration of the public service rendered by them. The working of the universities and the direction of their educational policies are regarded as their own individual concern with which the State has nothing to do. If the funds placed at the disposal of a university are not utilized for the legitimate purposes to which the university has agreed to apply them when submitting its demand to the University Grants Committee, or if they are squandered, it is open to the State to refuse to renew the grant when the time for such renewal arrives,

but there is no justification for its interfering with the administration of a grant which has already been made to the university. In other words, it is not the function of the State to supervise or control expenditure, or to dictate to the authorities of the university what policy they should follow. The University Grants Committee acts as an intermediary between the State and the universities, protecting the interests of both, and preventing the possibility of any conflict between them. The academic freedom enjoyed by the teachers in the British universities, which is the envy of the teachers in the State-controlled, continental universities, is one of the incidents of the autonomy and independence characteristic of the former universities.

The unsystematic manner in which the British universities came into existence, their love of independence and their freedom from external control of any kind are responsible for the lack of central planning in university development. The idea of planning is foreign to the British character and temperament. The British Constitution itself is a typical and outstanding example of British faith in unpremeditated growth in a most important branch of national activity. The British are a practical people who believe in meeting the situation which confronts them at a given moment with all their resources and ability, but are averse to speculating on problems that are likely to arise, and the manner of solving them, if and when they arise. After the last two wars, however, they have begun to realize that planning has its advantages not only in the economic field but in other departments of life as well. The late socialist regime in England

gave a further impetus to planning. As a result of the absence of planning in university education, the British universities did not in the past care to find out whether they could not have utilized their resources to greater advantage by taking up a new project than by duplicating work which was already being done, and perhaps done better, in another university which had special facilities for it. The provision of ten schools of mining in as many different British universities is a classic example of wasteful overlapping of courses of study, due to the lack of co-ordination. The resources at the disposal of a university could often be much better employed by filling up gaps in subjects to which other universities have given no thought. Careful planning alone can assist in the avoidance of useless duplication and the wise employment of resources, but it presupposes co-operation and co-ordination of effort among the universities. Again, such co-ordination has to be effected without interfering with the autonomy of individual universities. The Vice-Chancellor's Committee of Great Britain has expressed its conviction that no better machinery could be found for effecting this than the University Grants Committee, which is in a position to bring about central planning without impairing university autonomy because of the finances at its disposal and the confidence it enjoys of the universities on the one hand and the Government on the other. The University Grants Committee is of the view that the principles of central planning and of academic autonomy are not irreconcilable opposites, and has given proof of the soundness of this view by its successful policy in recent years of

making specially earmarked grants to universities which need strengthening in certain subjects. It would be no exaggeration to say that, as constituted at present, the University Grants Committee holds the key to the development, expansion and progress of university education in Great Britain.

The British universities set the highest value on their independence and freedom from State control. The rich variety of educational experiment they provide is due partly to their determination not to allow their educational policies and methods to be swayed by the Government of the day, and partly to historical causes. They are autonomous in every sense of the word. Like all public institutions which serve a truly national purpose and require large sums of money for the proper discharge of their functions, these universities obviously cannot continue to lead a useful existence unless they are amply provided with funds to meet not merely their recurring expenditure but all reasonable needs for the expansion of their activities. With the nationalization of industries and diminishing personal estates and incomes, universities have naturally to turn their eyes to the State for financial assistance. It must be admitted that in the United Kingdom the State has been most generous in giving them all that they reasonably require. Apart from the direct grants which the British universities receive from the State, on the recommendation of the University Grants Committee, they derive an appreciable portion of their income indirectly by way of fees from students financed by the State or by local authorities, for nearly 70 per cent of the total student population in the universities is in receipt

of grants, scholarships, bursaries or freeships.

It is worthy of note that, despite the fact that the British Parliament has appointed commissions from time to time to inquire into the affairs of the universities with a view to their reorganization, the constitutions and statutes emerging from the process have left the autonomy of the universities unimpaired. The reason is that the commissions have not been imposed from above, but sought by the universities themselves. The British tradition has been not to interfere with the existing constitutions of universities except for enabling them to evolve from within, the State only lending a helping hand. This accounts for the absence in Great Britain of universities analogous to the State universities of the United States of America, or to those of the continent of Europe. The practice of electing Chancellors by means of the popular vote of the graduates, and the absence of Government officials from university bodies, have been additional factors that help the universities to maintain their autonomy.

A word must be said here about representative students' organizations which are to be found in all the universities. The most influential of these are the students' unions, undergraduate guilds and student representative councils. All these organizations have democratic constitutions, and their office-bearers are elected by the students from among themselves. Their main objects are to represent the students' point of view before the authorities, protect the interests of students, generally to advance the welfare of the students by obtaining better facilities for their social and cultural life, and

to assist those among their number who need help. In many of the universities, the membership of such organizations is automatic, although a small annual fee is sometimes levied. The National Union of Students, which is a federation of the students' unions and representative councils, is a powerful body. This Union holds annual congresses, at which it discusses various questions affecting student life and activities, such as the reform of the curriculum, methods of teaching, the examination system, hostels, freedom of discussion and the furthering of international student contacts. These annual congresses attract large numbers of students, and are an indication of the growing consciousness among the students of their responsibility for their own welfare, and of their obligation to take an active part in the amelioration of society. It has been remarked by observers that less than twenty-five per cent of the students take an active interest in student activities of this kind, and that there is a great deal of apathy on the part of a large body of students.¹ The authorities of the universities look with a kindly eye on these organizations, which render very useful service, apart from helping to acquaint the former with the point of view of the students on matters which are of immediate concern to them. It is rarely that they advance unreasonable claims, such as the one put forward by the National Union of Students' Congress which met at Leeds in 1940, to a share in the government and administration of the universities. Besides creating a feeling of solidarity among the students

¹ See Brian Simon's *A Student's View of the Universities* (Longmans, Green & Co., 1943), p. 88.

themselves, these organizations provide students with an excellent training in the running of democratic institutions.

The university scene would be incomplete without a reference to the part played by the Oxford and the Cambridge University Presses both in the history of those universities and in the world of scholarship. They have shown that a university press can be a powerful auxiliary of the university which owns it, inasmuch as it can help to encourage scholarship and disseminate knowledge, both of which are important functions of universities. A university press must resist the temptation of converting itself into a commercial venture which is run only with an eye to profit, for if it were to set its *imprimatur* on work which had no intrinsic academic worth, it would become a liability, instead of an asset, to the university. The main object of a university press should be to publish scholarly work, including that of its own teachers and research students, which might otherwise 'grow mouldy in the drawers of a desk', as happens only too often with scholarly productions which have no attractions for a commercial publisher, since their appeal is necessarily restricted. By publishing such work the university provides an incentive to scholarship within the university and also makes known to the outside world the output and quality of the academic work carried on by the teachers and students of the university.

Besides serving the workers in the university by providing them with an opportunity of publishing their research, the University Presses of Oxford and Cambridge have earned the gratitude and encomiums of the student world

and the general public by their publications which include works like the *Oxford English Dictionary*, the *Dictionary of National Biography*, the *Cambridge Ancient, Mediæval and Modern Histories*, and popular series like the *World's Classics* and the *Oxford English Texts*. The rare privilege of printing the Authorized Version of the Bible and the Prayer Book of 1662, which these Presses have enjoyed and shared with the King's Printers for nearly three centuries, has led them to achieve a high standard of typography, proof-reading and printing in all of which they have established an unbeaten record. Through their publications the Oxford University Press and the Cambridge University Press have attained a reputation worthy of the great universities with which they are connected, and it would be no exaggeration to say that the great scholarly and standard works which have been sponsored by these presses have contributed to world scholarship and enhanced the reputation of the universities at the same time.

Chapter II

COLLEGE LIFE

To the undergraduate of Oxford or Cambridge it is his own college rather than the university that provides the substance of academic life. He does not think of the university as an entity affecting him, except when he has to sit for its examinations, or participates in the annual inter-'Varsity fixtures, either actively or as a passive but interested onlooker. It should not surprise anyone to find that the average undergraduate is at his wit's end, when a stranger asks to be directed to the administrative office of the university, since *undergraduates have no direct contacts with the university administration*. They are only concerned with their college tutor and college dean, not to mention the all-knowing porter who guards the college gates. It may be said, without exaggeration, that both in Oxford and in Cambridge the colleges *are* the university. They are, no doubt, autonomous corporations with their own properties and incomes, their own governing bodies and traditions, but there is an intimate relation between them and the university to which they belong. The Masters or Heads of the colleges and all their fellows are members of the university, and all the teaching and administrative staff of the university are members of colleges.

The government of a college is vested in the body of fellows, who elect one of themselves as their chairman. In

relation to the other fellows, the chairman is only *primus inter pares*. He is the head of the college and is officially styled Master, Warden, Principal or Provost, according to the tradition of the particular college, and he holds office until he reaches the statutory retiring age. The other fellows, except those holding fellowships by virtue of being professors, are elected by the whole body of fellows and hold office for terms of years. They are eligible for re-election from time to time, and may continue as fellows till they attain sixty-five years of age. Most of them have teaching duties assigned to them, while some attend only to administration. Nearly every college has its chaplain, its librarian and its bursar. Sometimes the same individual holds two or more administrative offices simultaneously, or he may combine the duties of a tutor with those of an administrative officer. A college fellow may also hold a teaching or administrative post in the university, for which he receives remuneration from the university. From his own college a fellow receives a salary ranging between £ 500 and £ 1200 a year, partly as fellow and partly as tutor. He enjoys certain amenities and privileges in his college, which will be referred to later. The number of fellows varies from college to college. It may be increased, if necessary, save when the constitution of the college has put a limit on the number. Thus, from the first, All Souls College, Oxford, has consisted of a warden and forty fellows. Of the latter three-fifths must be arts men and theologians and two-fifths jurists. The peculiarity about this college is that its fellows are divisible into two categories, one comprising those

actively participating in research and teaching in the university and the other those who make a contribution to public life by working in the world outside. Among the latter there have been eminent public servants, Secretaries of State, Indian Viceroys and attorneys-general.

The colleges are subject to the Statutes of the University which govern the admission of undergraduates, the reservation of a certain proportion of their fellowships for the university's teaching staff, the annual contribution to be made by the colleges to the university's revenue from the income of their properties and the submission of their audited accounts to the university annually for inspection and publication. In all matters of internal administration and discipline the colleges enjoy complete autonomy. No one can become a member of the university without becoming a member of a college, a hall or a non-collegiate society recognized by the university.

A college in Oxford or Cambridge, unlike an affiliated college in one of the Indian universities, is mainly and essentially a residential unit, where the undergraduate lives in a community consisting of undergraduates and fellows during the whole, or part, of his academic career. All Souls College, Oxford, is, however, an exception, inasmuch as it has no undergraduates, consisting as it does exclusively of fellows. It serves as a reminder that the mediæval college was originally designed to be a body of students, and not of teachers. With this solitary exception, all the colleges provide their undergraduates with personal tuition in addition to residence and a corporate life. The members of

St Catherine's Society in Oxford and Fitzwilliam House in Cambridge, which are both non-collegiate societies, are required to live in licensed lodgings. The non-collegiate students also get the benefit of personal tuition, and enjoy many of the amenities of a corporate life.

Nearly every college comprises a chapel, where services are regularly held, and attended by the head, the fellows and the students, a library, a 'combination' or senior common room for the fellows, a junior common room for the students, a dining hall (with a high table for the dons), where the fellows and the undergraduates meet for their evening meal, and a garden. Attendance at service in the chapel is not compulsory for the students. In many colleges the library is in two sections, one consisting of old manuscripts and books and the other of modern books. The Head's Lodge is usually adjacent to the main building of the college. The unmarried fellows live in the college. The married ones can stay with their families, but may be required, during term time, to spend some nights every week in the college. The fellows are entitled to the privilege of dining at the high table. Ordinarily, each undergraduate is assigned a sitting-room and a bedroom, but, on account of lack of space, the juniors among them are sometimes obliged to share one sitting-room between two.

The most important feature of college life is that it provides many and varied opportunities for social contacts among the members: students and fellows. Apart from the personal contacts between tutor and pupil, which the 'tutorial' and 'supervisory' systems contemplate, the under-

graduates mix freely with one another, being brought together daily at lunch and dinner time and at meetings of the numerous literary, dramatic, musical and other societies and clubs. In addition to these more or less formal gatherings and meetings, there are many informal groups of intimate friends with kindred tastes and interests who meet over tea, or at other times, in their rooms to discuss the hundred and one different topics, not necessarily connected with their studies, that interest young men of their age. These informal talks and discussions often continue till midnight and even extend to the small hours. The exchange of views and the clash of mind with mind in friendly bouts of argument, in which young men take delight, help to widen their sympathies, enlarge their horizons, sharpen their wits, and lay the foundations of valuable and lasting friendships. This is not the least important part of the liberal education for which Oxford and Cambridge are justly famous, for the undergraduate has as much to learn from these informal talks and discussions with his fellow-students as from the formal instruction he receives from his tutors and professors. Then, of course, there are the sports, games and other outdoor activities in which those who participate get further opportunities for learning the social virtues of tolerance and team-work, outside the walls of the college. With all these facilities for a corporate life, it is no matter for surprise that the members of a college in Oxford or Cambridge develop a strong *esprit de corps* which makes them take a legitimate pride in their college and all that it stands for, not only while they are still undergraduates or

senior students, but even long after they have passed out of the college portals.

So far as his studies go, the undergraduate in Oxford or Cambridge enjoys a large amount of freedom. He cannot, of course, evade the weekly 'tutorial' or 'supervision', which is obligatory. For his lectures, attendance at which is not compulsory, though advantageous if he selects the proper courses with the assistance of his tutor or supervisor, he has to go to the university. Before the first World War, in Cambridge the colleges themselves arranged for the lectures in all except the 'laboratory subjects', and by arrangement the students of one college could go to another for their lectures. Since the end of the war, all lectures are being arranged by the university, through its faculties, and the lectures are delivered in the lecture-rooms of the university or in its departments and schools. The *Cambridge University Reporter* publishes a lecture-list before the beginning of each term, giving the name of the lecturer and the subject, time and place of each lecture. No lectures are delivered in the colleges. In Oxford, each faculty publishes a terminal lecture-list, and the lectures are delivered either in the colleges or at the university. In both universities the lectures are delivered by university professors, readers or lecturers most of whom are also fellows of colleges. Those college fellows who lecture for the university receive a salary from the university in addition to the salary they get from their own college. Fellows who are university lecturers have two loyalties, one to their college and the other to the university. College work is, however, always

taken into account when stipulating the number of lectures to be delivered by a college tutor as a university lecturer. The undergraduates pay their fees for the lectures to their respective colleges, which make the necessary financial adjustments with the university. For instruction in 'laboratory subjects' students have to go to the university laboratories, since few colleges have laboratories of their own. The individual tuition in these laboratories, as distinct from lectures, is given by college tutors and demonstrators.

The undergraduate is answerable to his college tutor and to the master or dean of his college for his conduct both inside and outside the college walls. According to the gravity of his offence he may be fined, rusticated for a term or a year, or 'sent down' permanently. The university requires him to observe certain rules of conduct, such as the wearing of academic dress at certain times of the day or on certain occasions, the infringement of which will bring him within the disciplinary jurisdiction of the proctors, who are university officials armed with disciplinary powers. The proctors, however, have no jurisdiction inside the gates of a college. In practice, it is rarely that undergraduates are pulled up except for an occasional breach of a minor rule. These rules do not apply to senior post-graduate or research students who have been granted M.A. status.

Each college has its own traditions for which it is held in veneration by its members. These have grown in the course of centuries, being associated with its founders, its architectural history and the names of its members who in their own time achieved fame as scholars, teachers, scientists,

statesmen or administrators, and whose portraits now adorn the walls of the library, the combination room or the hall. It is associations such as these that often determine the choice of the college for the ambitious young man, and the memory of them, kept alive by legend and anecdote, and nurtured by the daily sight of the 'storied windows richly dight' of the college chapel and the varying architectural styles of different centuries that have contributed to give to the college building its present appearance, remains with him as fresh as ever throughout his life. This is where college life in Oxford or Cambridge has a distinct advantage over the drab life of the undergraduate who pursues his studies in the comparatively unæsthetic surroundings of one of the civic universities.

Chapter III

STUDENT LIFE IN THE NON-RESIDENTIAL UNIVERSITIES

The student who joins one of the non-residential universities, whether it be the University of London, one of the four Scottish universities, or one of the civic universities of England, has as much right as the student who goes to Oxford or Cambridge to expect that he will receive the proper kind of training both for his intellect and his character, which will equip him for a life of useful activity not only from his individual point of view but also as an enlightened citizen and member of a modern, civilized State. The conditions of student life in a non-residential university, being necessarily different from those obtaining in a university like Oxford or Cambridge, where the college is the centre of community life with all its moral, social and intellectual advantages, the nature and quality of the training provided in the two types of institution cannot but differ.

In their Report, published in 1948, the University Grants Committee remarked that there was a strong and widespread feeling that the full advantages of a university education were not attainable by a student who did not spend at least a part of his university career under conditions of community life. With a view to strengthening and enriching the community life of students in the civic universities, the Committee recommended the bringing of halls of residence into

a closer geographical relationship, the extension and improvement of the service of midday and evening meals, the expansion of library accommodation and reading-rooms and the provision of adequate premises for students' unions.¹

It is doubtful whether it will ever be possible to convert all the non-residential universities into residential institutions by providing halls of residence for their entire student population. The problem is not one of numbers and expenditure only, but also one of availability of space for building more halls of residence in the crowded industrial centres where most of the civic universities are located. Even in Oxford and Cambridge, at the present day, not all the students can be accommodated in the colleges throughout their academic careers, apart from the members of the non-collegiate societies who have perforce to live in licensed lodgings. The question, then, arises: what substitute, if any, can the non-residential universities provide for the community life of Oxford or Cambridge in the case of the large majority of their students who live either in their own homes at long distances from their place of study, or in hired lodgings scattered about the city? The University Grants Committee has provided a partial answer. In this chapter it is proposed to consider to what extent the civic universities have already succeeded in meeting the situation.

It must be said to the credit of the civic universities that, fully realizing the advantages of corporate living, they have been at pains to increase the residential accommodation for

¹ See pp. 54, 56, 57 of the Report.

their students by building new halls of residence, wherever possible, and some of them even entertain hopes of enabling every one of their students to spend a year or two of his academic career in a hall of residence in the not distant future. In the meantime, they are taking every opportunity of increasing the other amenities of a corporate life. The daily midday meal is one of the occasions when their students are necessarily brought together, and have opportunities of coming to know one another more intimately, and widening the circle of their acquaintance. The fact that self-service is the order of the day in the refectory is really an advantage, inasmuch as the student, after serving himself, has to take any seat that is available to him at the moment, and is likely to have a new partner at lunch every time. A chance acquaintance made in this way may develop into a lasting friendship between kindred spirits. The library, the reading room and the students' union are the other places where he rubs shoulders with other students, makes new friends, exchanges views and learns to understand and appreciate the points of view of others differing from his own.

Speaking of students' unions, it may be mentioned that in the universities of England and Wales membership of the university union is obligatory, though it is not so in the Scottish universities. Many English universities are taking steps to extend the accommodation available to their students' unions. The University Union of Leeds possesses one of the finest union buildings in England. It has a large number of rooms, of which the largest are the cafeteria and

the Riley-Smith Hall, named after the donor who gave the handsome sum of £25,000 towards its building fund. The Hall is provided with a stage and all the appurtenances of a theatre. It has a dance-floor which is said to be one of the finest in Leeds. The University debates take place in the Hall. A library, a billiard room, a social room, a women's common room, a board or committee room and a number of other rooms, large and small, are available for the various social, intellectual and æsthetic activities of the students. In the men's cloakroom there is even a barber's shop which is open the whole day. With the many attractions and conveniences provided by the union, it is not surprising to find the place humming with activity at all hours of the day, and especially at lunch-time and in the evenings. The Universities of Birmingham and Nottingham are planning to have new and larger accommodation for their students' unions.

In the 'Note on an Alternative to Halls of Residence', contributed to the issue of *Universities Quarterly* of February 1951,¹ Dr Eric Ashby, President and Vice-Chancellor of the Queen's University of Belfast, has offered some very useful suggestions which, if acted upon, may help to introduce the benefits of community life into the civic universities more effectively than any other practicable device. The substance of his proposal is that students who live in their homes or in lodgings should use their residence only for the purpose of retiring at night and for the morning breakfast, and should spend the rest of the day at the university in term

¹ See p. 153.

time. This would involve the provision of dinner as well as lunch at the university, the keeping of the library, the laboratories and study rooms open till about 10 P.M., and the sparing of a couple of evenings a week by each member of the teaching staff in turn. The extension of library and union facilities, the expansion of the refectory and kitchen and the additional staff required would, no doubt, involve additional expenditure and administrative readjustments, but the advantages thus conferred on a large body of students would be worth both the expenditure and the trouble. In any event, the experiment is worth a trial, and, if it succeeds in one university, the others will not take long to copy it. The University Grants Committee may well give their thought to this question and find out how far individual universities would be prepared to contribute their resources in materials and men to bring such a scheme to fruition, if financial assistance were extended to them for this specific purpose.

With regard to the provision for sports and outdoor games, the civic universities are at a disadvantage when compared with the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, because their playing fields are usually at some distance from the university buildings, and not easily accessible to students who have to travel long distances home after spending the major part of the day, from 9.30 A.M. to 4.30 P.M., in the classroom or laboratory. It has been suggested that one way of solving the problem of physical exercise for such students is to provide adequate gymnasia and swimming pools near the university or the union building. In this

connexion it should be mentioned that, except in the University of Birmingham, where every student, unless exempted on grounds such as national service or battle training, is required to take a course of physical education in the first undergraduate year, there is no compulsion in the matter of physical exercise in any of the British universities. Most of them, however, insist on their students undergoing an X-ray examination of the chest soon after they have joined, and some also provide for an annual medical examination. There is no provision for free medical service in the universities, such as one finds in the State universities of the United States of America, save to a limited extent in the Scottish universities. This cannot be regarded as a serious defect today in view of the National Health Service.

The foregoing paragraphs have dealt with the extent to which facilities for a corporate life are provided by the non-residential universities, and have been mainly concerned with the question of strengthening the bonds of fellowship between student and student on which Cardinal Newman has laid great stress in his *Idea of a University*. The need of closer personal contacts between teachers and students is not less important than that of companionship among the students themselves. It is not possible to achieve the best results in any system of university education unless the teachers and the students regard themselves as collaborators and partners in a common cause, the cause of the diffusion and the advancement of knowledge.

As pointed out in another chapter, lectures are the staple method of instruction in the non-residential universities.

Nevertheless, these universities have been making constant efforts to establish closer contacts between their teachers and their students by means of the tutorial method, although there are three main obstacles to the satisfactory working of that method, namely, the constant increase in the number of students without a corresponding increase in the teaching staff, the shortage of private studies where the tutor could give undisturbed attention to small batches of students and the crowded time-table of lectures. Even if it were possible for the students to have their work supervised more closely in small groups and discussion classes, the opportunity for developing a more intimate relationship is denied to them, as both the teachers and the students disperse to return to their homes immediately after the day's work is over, which does not happen in Oxford and Cambridge, where the teachers live along with the students in the colleges and are available to them for consultation at any hour of the day or night. In some civic universities the staff and the students meet occasionally at debates, at social functions or at meetings of student committees on which members of the staff, particularly the junior ones among them, are sometimes co-opted by the students themselves. A few teachers, inclined to be social, invite their senior students in batches of a dozen or more to their homes to chat over a cup of tea, or entertain them in staff-student meeting rooms in the University or Union building. If Dr Ashby's proposal, referred to earlier, is given effect to, there will doubtless be more frequent opportunities for teachers and students to meet outside the classroom for in-

timate and informal talks on matters of general interest.

The student in a non-residential university is generally thrown on his own resources to plan his way of life, in the absence of a tutor or director of studies to guide him. In order that he may not be completely at sea, and with a view to making him familiar with his new surroundings, which are entirely different from those of his earlier school life, the universities have devised a method. At the commencement of each academic year, they hold what are known as 'Freshers' Conferences' for the benefit of the new entrants. In the words of the Vice-Chancellor of the University of Leeds, which was one of the first to hold a Freshers' Conference, the object of such a conference is to make 'the new student at home in the university and the university at home with the new student'. As part of the programme of the Freshers' Conference, talks are arranged on topics such as 'The duties and opportunities of the undergraduates', 'Patterns of University Life' and 'The University Union'. At the end of each talk, the conference breaks up into small groups for visiting different parts of the university, or for informal discussion, as the case may be. The students are treated to lunch, tea and dinner, followed by some form of entertainment, such as a film show, dances and games. They also attend a reception held by the Vice-Chancellor. Every student who attends the conference is provided with a handbook containing useful information about the university and its activities. The idea of a conference like this is a capital one and most of the non-residential universities hold such conferences now.

THE TUTORIAL SYSTEM

The name 'Oxford' conjures up the 'tutorial system', for Oxford is the original home of the method of undergraduate instruction which that expression signifies. The essence of the tutorial system is the intimate personal relationship between the tutor and the undergraduate, which commences on the entry of the undergraduate into his college, continues throughout his undergraduate career and often extends beyond it, for many tutors, not content with helping their pupils to find suitable careers, take a continuing interest in their progress in life. As Dr Johnson put it in his inimitable style, when speaking of his own tutor at Pembroke, it can be truly said of the ideal Oxford tutor that 'whenever a young man becomes his pupil, he becomes his son'. Often the tutor stands *in loco parentis* to his pupil. He is invariably the guide, philosopher and friend, to whom the pupil can turn for advice in his daily conduct as well as in his studies.

This relationship, described by Flexner as 'the most effective pedagogical relationship', and which has a striking analogue in the relationship that subsisted between the *guru* (teacher) and his *shishya* (pupil) in the ancient educational system of India, can be traced back to the Laudian Statutes (1634) which laid down that 'all scholars should have tutors, graduates of character, learning and religion, approved by

the heads'.¹ Undergraduates in those days came to the university at the comparatively early age of 13 or 14 years. Although the undergraduate of today joins at a more mature age, he is still regarded as needing the moral and intellectual guidance of a tutor until he graduates. The tutorial system has become part and parcel of the texture of collegiate life at Oxford, and despite the adaptations it may undergo to suit changing circumstances, it is not likely ever to disappear from Oxford. On the other hand, its inherent advantages have secured for it recognition from the civic universities of England, which are trying to adapt it to their own conditions.

Under the tutorial system, as it obtains in Oxford, each undergraduate receives one solid hour's instruction and individual attention every week from his tutor, to whom he reads out the weekly essay set to him in the previous week. After the essay has been read, the tutor offers his criticism, and the subject of the essay and the manner of its presentation are discussed between the tutor and the pupil. The discussion enables the tutor to gauge the capacity of his pupil, mark his progress, correct his faults, assist him to think for himself, form sound judgements and express himself clearly and effectively. The tutor does not restrict his observations to the subject in hand, but travels over a wide area covering allied topics, the most up-to-date books and journals which throw light upon them and his own reading and research. An able tutor thus introduces his pupil to the different aspects of his subject and the most recent

¹ *Oxford University Handbook* (1950), p. 251.

thought and writing on problems connected with it, which is, perhaps, the best way of stimulating him to think and read for himself. If, as happens sometimes, the tutor himself has done brilliant work in the subject, he may infect an able pupil with enthusiasm to work along similar lines when he has advanced further in his studies. This is what is meant by saying that pupils catch fire from a teacher who is himself aflame.

The Oxford tutor acts as a director of studies and also supervises the undergraduate's work. Having discovered his pupil's attainments and abilities, at the very first interview, he sketches a programme of work for him, which includes the course of reading he should follow and the lectures he should attend. A tutor who knows his job thoroughly attempts to cover, as far as possible, the entire course of study in his subject through the weekly essay and the discussion which follows its reading during the essay period. The tutor indicates the books or specifies the chapters of books the undergraduate should read for obtaining the necessary material for his essay. Essay-writing gives the student practice in gathering and sifting his material, drawing his own conclusions and putting down his ideas and arguments in a logical sequence in clear and terse language, and thus develops those intellectual qualities which will stand him in good stead later in life.

While the weekly essay is the most suitable form of 'tutorial' in subjects like history, economics or philosophy, subjects like mathematics and the classics call for a different treatment, such as the setting of specific exercises or problems

rather than essays. It is usual for the tutor to take his pupils singly in these subjects, whereas in subjects which involve the writing of essays they may be taken either singly or in batches of two to four. When they are taken in batches, one or more members of the batch are asked to write the essays in turn, and the whole batch takes part in the discussion which follows. Since the end of the first World War and even more so since the second World War, taking the pupils in batches, instead of singly, has become more common as it is otherwise next to impossible to cope with the increasing numbers of students.

By virtue of its long association with Oxford and Cambridge the two oldest English universities, the tutorial system has acquired a hold on the imagination of Englishmen as the best and, perhaps, the only suitable method of instructing undergraduates. While there is, no doubt, a great deal to be said in its favour, one must not forget that no man-made system can lay claim to perfection, and that the tutorial method has its demerits as well as its merits.

The efficiency of the tutorial method is, to a large extent, dependent on the personality and ability of the individual tutor. If he is lacking in these qualities, the pupil cannot derive much benefit. As things are today, however, the Oxford undergraduate has to go to more than one tutor on account of the variety of subjects included in his course, or the numerous sub-divisions of the same subject, which require the attention of specialists. The result is that the chances of his coming across a tutor with rare ability or a dynamic personality are increased. On the other hand,

the tutorial method may degenerate into spoon-feeding in the hands of a teacher who is incapable of stimulating his pupils to think for themselves, and, if the number of students assigned to a tutor is too large, the guidance they receive is apt to become superficial.

Tutorial work, if overdone (and some tutors are known to do as many as eighteen to twenty tutorials a week) is almost certain to have an adverse effect on the efficiency of the tutor, as it would leave him hardly any time for carrying on his own study and research, which are essential if he is to keep his knowledge up to date and retain his mental vigour and originality, without which he cannot be expected either to produce original work or to inspire his pupils. Further, tutorial work continuously engaged in, becomes a sort of grind, and can produce a depressing effect on the tutor, if the pupils with whom his lot is cast are of poor quality, because he has then to descend to their level, as it were.

In Cambridge, the tutorial system obtains in a slightly different form under the nomenclature of 'supervision'. The word 'tutor' has a different meaning there from that which it bears in Oxford. The Cambridge tutor, paradoxically enough, gives no tuition. He is a moral mentor, looking after the welfare and needs of his pupil, and responsible for his conduct and discipline. The Senior Tutor makes admissions of undergraduates to the college after examining their qualifications and interviewing them, if necessary. In almost every college there are more tutors than one. Each undergraduate, on admission, is assigned to a 'Director of Studies'

whose function it is to recommend what lectures he should attend and to arrange for his weekly supervision. The 'supervisor' who takes the weekly essay or exercise is usually a fellow of the same college, or he may be just one of the senior research students. The Director of Studies, if a specialist in the subject, may himself act as supervisor, or he may even select as supervisor a fellow of another college. There may, again, be different supervisors for different subjects. In laboratory subjects it is the usual practice for a supervisor to take his pupils in small groups for discussion. In Oxford, the tutor combines in himself the dual functions of a director of studies and supervisor, while the college Dean looks after the discipline of the whole body of students in his college. In some colleges there are separate moral tutors, i.e. the duties of moral tutor are not performed for each undergraduate by his teaching tutor.

In the Cambridge colleges the hours of supervision are normally fixed between 5 and 7.30 P.M.; in Oxford, the tutorials are generally taken between 10 A.M. and 7 P.M. Some of the Oxford dons claim that their tutorials are more thorough than supervision, as it is done in Cambridge. A general statement of this kind is not justifiable, because, as has been pointed out already, a great deal depends upon the individual tutor or supervisor and the method he adopts. It would appear that there is a view held by some Oxford tutors that a really good tutor should cover the whole ground in his tutorials and make it unnecessary for his pupil to attend any lectures. Whether in consequence of the advice of their tutors or of their own experience, under-

graduates in Oxford and Cambridge often 'cut' their lectures, which they can do with impunity, as attendance at lectures is not obligatory in either university. Despite the criticism commonly levelled at the lecture-method of instruction, it would not be wise to dispense with lectures altogether. In fact, they have their use in subjects like economics, politics, history and law, or in scientific subjects, the recent advances in which are dealt with only in research journals to which the average student has no easy access. They are particularly valuable, when it is desired to provide the student with a comprehensive view of the subject, or to throw light upon an obscure or difficult part of it, and this cannot be done better by anyone other than a teacher who has devoted his whole life to its study. Tutorials and lectures supplement each other, and no method of undergraduate instruction could be considered completely satisfactory which excluded either.

The 'Regent system' which exists in the University of St Andrews is a variant of the tutorial system. Its aim is to maintain and foster contacts between teachers and students. The 'regent' is expected to give friendly advice and assistance to the students placed under his personal supervision. As Bruce Truscot has pointed out,¹ the regent system has been adopted with some slight modification in one or two of the civic universities of England, where all freshmen are allotted to a number of tutors, mostly junior lecturers who, in consideration of a small honorarium, 'see them, singly or in groups, several times a term, help them

¹ See *Red Brick University* (Faber & Faber Ltd), p. 70.

to co-ordinate the various parts of their work and to organize their time, and invite them to discuss their private interests, home circumstances and anything else they like'

The civic universities have, in recent years, begun to appreciate more and more the value of individual supervision for their students. The mass lecture is still the normal method of instruction with them, but they attempt to supplement it by tutorials so-called, which are, perhaps, pale imitations of the original Oxford model, providing closer contacts between the teaching staff and the students and ensuring individual attention, both of which are difficult to attain in a non-residential university, and yet are of the greatest value in university education. The tutor in a civic university does not act as a 'moral guide', but is expected to supervise the academic work and progress of his student. In this respect he bears a closer resemblance to the Cambridge 'supervisor' than to the Oxford 'tutor'. Since the student in a modern university ordinarily lives with his parents or, in any event, does not live far from his home, he does not stand in need of a tutor to take the place of his parent or guardian, even if this were possible in the case of a day-scholar. One serious difficulty in the way of the civic universities providing effective tutorial supervision is their shortage of accommodation which often compels three or four members of the staff to share a single room. It is only when each member of the staff has a private study of his own, as in the University of Birmingham, that he can be expected to give satisfactory tutorial guidance which requires undisturbed individual attention.

In some of the institutions of the University of London, such as the London School of Economics and Political Science and University College, London, undergraduates are assigned to tutors who are specialists in the branch of study in which the students desire to specialize. In the London School of Economics and Political Science this is done in the third or final year of the course leading to the B.Sc. degree. In University College undergraduates in the Faculty of Arts are set weekly essays which the tutor discusses with them. In the classical languages it is usual for each tutor to take about five students a week. Seminars and discussion classes are also held. The lectures are, however, the main thing and the tutorials supplement them. While in Oxford and Cambridge the tutorial is the mainstay of undergraduate teaching and lectures are no more than an additional help, the position is reversed in the London schools and colleges and in the civic universities, where attendance at lectures is compulsory. In laboratory subjects there is necessarily closer individual supervision, because the students have to be taken in batches during the practicals and the teachers go round from table to table, watching the progress of the experiments and giving oral instruction from time to time. Even here, instruction in the theoretical portion of the subject is capable of improvement by supplementing the classroom lecture by the tutorial essay.

Bruce Truscot criticizes the tutorial system of Oxford and Cambridge by pointing out that the undergraduate has the minimum of contact with the professors and lecturers

at the university who are specialists in their subjects, while the direction of their studies is entrusted to men who may or may not have the requisite knowledge or ability to guide them properly. This criticism would, perhaps, be justifiable if the undergraduate had no opportunity of benefiting from courses of lectures by men who are masters of their subjects, which, however, is not the case. The tutor is not intended to be a substitute for the professor or lecturer. He is only a 'senior companion' who, on account of his experience, his high intellectual attainments and his character, is accepted by the master and fellows of his college as a competent academic guide to whom the young undergraduate can go, from time to time, for friendly and intimate advice, not only with regard to his studies, but also with regard to his personal problems. With his more intimate knowledge of his pupil the tutor is in a better position to assess his abilities, advise him how to overcome his defects, stimulate him to think for himself and inspire him by his own example than a professor or lecturer who is not also a tutor would be. The latter can have neither the time, nor the patience, nor would it be possible for him, to act as a guide to each of the hundreds of students to whom he lectures.

To sum up, the tutorial system, in the undiluted form in which it is to be found in Oxford, and its variants and adaptations in the modern universities of England, though valuable as methods of undergraduate instruction, cannot, in the present state of knowledge, be accepted as self-sufficient, but can be powerful auxiliaries of the more formal

lecture method which is accepted in most of the universities of the world today as the normal method of teaching suited to large numbers of students.

Chapter V

THE TEACHERS

At bottom, the quality of a university is always in direct proportion to the quality of its teachers,' observes Professor H. J. Laski,¹ and he proceeds to add: 'For the true epochs in a university's life are not marked by its buildings, its books, or even the growth of its numbers; they are marked by the great teachers it has possessed. We still talk of the Oxford of T. H. Green, the Cambridge of Maitland and Henry Sidgwick, the Harvard of James and Turner, as we shall talk of the Harvard of McIlwain and Haskins, the Cornell of Becker and Young, the Columbia of Dewey and Beard.'² The British universities take care to see that they appoint the best available men and women as their teachers, and that the conditions of service they offer are such as will attract persons of real ability and character. It is a well-known fact that a person who chooses the career of a university teacher is generally moved to do so by a desire to devote himself to an intellectual life which will not only satisfy his own scholarly ambitions but give him opportunities to mould the life and character of the younger generation placed in his charge. In other words, he is inspired by a certain idealism, which rejects worldly pleasures and prizes in favour of the less tangible, but more permanent,

¹ *The Dangers of Obedience and Other Essays* (Harper & Brothers, New York and London, 1930), p. 109

² *ibid.*, p. 110.

rewards that await one who scorns delights and lives laborious days. This is as it should be, because there would be little or no hope for a generation of youngsters which received its training from a body of self-seeking men and women, however high their intellectual attainments and ability, whose sole or main interest lay in attaining positions of wealth and influence ensuring a life of ease and comfort.

On the other hand, it is neither just nor wise to condemn members of the teaching profession with high academic qualifications to a life of drudgery, with the bare minimum of material comforts, and without scope for the satisfaction of their intellectual appetites, as is unfortunately the case in some of the Indian colleges and universities. It is not only fair, but essential, that a university or a college teacher should be paid a salary which will not only enable him to marry and bring up his family in reasonable comfort and provide a decent education for his children, but also to buy books, subscribe to journals, become a member of learned societies, maintain social contacts with other teachers, and travel abroad.¹ All this is necessary if he has to retain a fresh mind. The following passage (quoted by the University Grants Committee in its Report published in 1936, at p. 43) from the Inaugural Lecture of Mr A. J. Scott, first Principal of Owens College, Manchester, graphically emphasizes the need of a teacher to refresh and extend his knowledge by keeping in constant touch with the latest books, periodicals and scholarly discussions: 'He who learns from one occupied in learning, drinks of a running

¹ See *Report of the University Grants Committee* (1930), p. 23.

stream. He who learns from one who has learned all he is to teach, drinks "the green mantle of the stagnant pool".

The salaries of teachers and the other conditions of their service in the British universities, including the benefits of the Federal System of Superannuation for Universities which has been accepted by all these universities, are such as to ensure a constant supply of capable men and women teachers to the universities, in spite of the more tempting remuneration frequently offered by industrial organizations to men possessing high qualifications in pure or applied science. The universities cannot possibly hope to compete with industry by offering anything like the inflated salaries the latter is prepared to give, but what they can and do offer today compares favourably with what men with similar qualifications would earn in other professions and walks of life. Besides, an academic life has other attractions which more than counter-balance merely pecuniary advantages. It provides opportunities for the pursuit of an intellectual ideal, for developing an individual's special bent of mind, and for achieving triumphs in the fields of science and technology which will not only bring fame to the individual himself but to his institution and his country, and may eventually confer a lasting benefit on the world.

Teachers in the British universities today receive salaries which are far higher than those which they were paid in the past. For instance, in 1928-9, the average salary paid to a professor was £1,068 a year. It rose to £1,115 in 1938-9 and to £1,534 in 1946-7. The maximum, at the present time, may go up to £2,000. The salaries of readers, senior

lecturers and assistant lecturers have also risen in proportion. Today, a reader may be paid anything from £800 to £1,200 a year, a senior lecturer from £900 to £1,100 a year, and an assistant lecturer from £400 to £450 a year. For the purpose of calculating grants the University Grants Committee recognizes the standard rate of £1,450 a year for professors at universities and £1,350 a year at university colleges. The salary attached to an endowed chair depends upon the income of the endowment. Before the last war, individual salaries varied a great deal between one university and another, and even between different chairs in the same university. In some universities professors holding chairs in scientific or technological subjects were paid higher salaries than their colleagues in the faculties of arts, law or commerce. This was done in order to dissuade them from leaving the universities to take up more remunerative posts in industry. The University Grants Committee has attempted to reduce these inequalities, which have been the cause of much heartburning, by fixing a common standard and making the necessary provision in the grant to raise the salaries of those professors who were paid less. But even today the professor of a clinical subject in a medical institution receives a higher salary than his other colleagues, which may go up to £2,750 a year.

The British universities have always recognized the importance of giving their teachers a major share in university administration. In Oxford and Cambridge it is the teachers who are supreme in all matters. They administer the funds of the university, frame its courses of study and appoint

their own colleagues. In the provincial and Scottish universities and in the University of London they are supreme in all academic matters, and share with others in the administrative control, and, even where laymen take a hand in university administration, it is rarely, if ever, that they seek to impose their will on the academic staff.

In Oxford and Cambridge the professors, other than the Regius Professors, who are appointed by the Crown, are elected by special electoral boards with the Vice-Chancellor as chairman and other members appointed by authorities of the university, including one or two who have no official connexion with the university. Readerships are filled either in the same way or by the General Board of Faculties, which also makes the appointments of lecturers and demonstrators. The professors do not give tutorials, though they may hold seminars and discussion groups. In addition to giving lectures they are expected to do original work themselves, and to exercise a general supervision over research and advanced work in their departments. They are sometimes assisted by assistant directors of research. The rights and duties of the different categories of university teachers are, as a rule, prescribed by university statutes. In the University of London the teachers fall into two main categories: professors and readers appointed by the university with the concurrence of the governing bodies of the colleges and schools, and lecturers and assistant lecturers, appointed by the latter, some of whom may, on account of their special qualifications, be recognized by the university as its teachers. In the Scottish universities the hierarchy of university

teachers consists of professors, readers, senior and junior lecturers.

The circulation of university teachers is taken for granted and encouraged by the British universities, which are fully conscious of the danger of continued inbreeding and of the advantages accruing from the importation of fresh talent from outside. Apart from the valuable experience a teacher gains by migrating to another university and thus coming into contact with fresh minds working in a different atmosphere from that to which he has been accustomed, he can, if he has an impressive personality or unusual merit, make his own contribution to the academic life of the university to which he migrates, and bring back a rich harvest of experience to his old university, should he return to it at some later date. A free circulation of university teachers is not only beneficial to university education, because it sets in motion currents and eddies of new ideas in an atmosphere in danger of becoming stale after a time for lack of new contacts, but also because it helps to bring about a better understanding among the universities. The administrative side of universities also stands to gain by the occasional importation of administrative talent from other universities. Apart from encouraging the migration of both teachers and administrators, the British universities have not been slow to appreciate the advantages of temporary exchanges of teachers.

The teachers in the British universities are a devoted band of workers who are genuinely interested in their own work, whether it consists in making contributions to scholar-

ship or scientific research, in writing books or in training students. They are, as a rule, interested little in things which fall outside the academic sphere. Of course, they enjoy considerable academic freedom, unlike teachers in the State-controlled, continental universities. The senior teachers, particularly the professors and heads of departments are, however, saddled with a large amount of administrative routine which hinders their research activities. What with meetings of boards and committees, which are a necessary part of the working of the complex machinery of a modern university, the calls frequently made upon their time by government, public bodies and international organizations requiring them to work on expert committees or to take part in delegations on account of their special knowledge, and their normal lectures and tutorials, the time available to them for doing original work or keeping abreast of their own subject is greatly reduced. Secretarial assistance may afford them partial relief, but it can be of little use when their personal attendance at meetings or conferences is deemed indispensable. It is all the more regrettable that the system of 'sabbatical leave', which is in vogue in most of the larger universities of the United States of America, has not yet been adopted as a regular feature of university life in Britain. The practice of granting 'sabbatical leave' has been in vogue in Cambridge for some years past.

In the preceding paragraph attention has been drawn to the harm done to the cause of research by frequent interruptions in the legitimate work of senior teachers,

occasioned by their appointment on public committees and delegations. It should be added, however, that if such appointments are not too frequent they can be productive of much good, inasmuch as the teacher brings an academic outlook into discussions with his colleagues, and in his turn he gains something of the experience of the practical men of the world with whom he comes into contact, which will be useful to him in his own work in the university. The wider contacts thus established between university teachers and members of the public are beneficial to the universities in the long run, as they make the public aware of the contribution that the universities make to national life and of their own obligation to the universities, which have a claim on their attention.

Chapter VI

LIBRARIES AND LABORATORIES

The value to a university of a well-stocked and up-to-date library cannot be exaggerated. It is the workshop which provides the university student and the scholar with the tools necessary for the acquisition and the advancement of knowledge, and is as indispensable to the worker in the field of the humanities and social studies as a laboratory is to the research worker in a branch of experimental science. This was what Carlyle evidently had in mind when he said that a true university was a collection of books. A former distinguished Vice-Chancellor of the University of Birmingham expressed the same truth in a different way by remarking that, if he were a dictator, he would reduce the time taken by lectures to a third of that usually occupied by them, and make attendance in the library compulsory for three hours every day.

Flexner's condemnation of the library situation at Oxford as 'not only unsatisfactory' but as hindering 'a university development'¹ is undeserved and, perhaps, if he had been writing today, he would himself have toned down his criticism. There is no doubt that the library system of Oxford, if it can be called a 'system', when the growth of the Oxford libraries has been anything but systematic, discloses a number of serious defects, such as the absence of a general

¹ Flexner, A., *Universities: American, English, German* (Oxford University Press), p. 292.

catalogue, the lack of co-ordination among the college libraries, the non-lending of books and the denial to the reader of direct access to most of the books in the libraries of the Bodleian group. Facilities for post-graduate study and research in the shape of more reading space and better arrangements for the advanced student, the research worker and the teacher also leave much to be desired. Under the conditions prevailing in Oxford, with nearly fifty libraries, which have grown up independently at different times to meet the needs of individual institutions, and are housed in separate buildings, it is doubtful whether it will be possible for the university to imitate the example of Harvard by providing every professor with a study and every research student with a cubicle where he can 'gather around himself the indispensable tools that he has in constant use' in the words of the late Professor T. F. Tout.¹ Such an ideal may very well be kept in view by a university which is planning its library for the first time and has large resources at its disposal.

The Bodleian, named after its founder, Sir Thomas Bodley, a scholar of the sixteenth century, ranks as one of the great libraries of the world. Today, it comprises a group of six libraries located in different buildings. The original Bodleian includes what is known as Duke Humphrey's Library, the nucleus around which the Bodleian has been built up and extended. It is to this ancient foundation that Dr Samuel Johnson refers in *The Vanity of Human Wishes* when he speaks of the enthusiastic fresh-

¹ Flexner, *op. cit.*, p. 78.

man at Oxford as spreading his future labour over Bodley's dome. From the commencement, this library was open to the scholars of the whole world. It has always enjoyed the 'copyright privilege' which entitles it to receive one perfect copy of every book published in England, and which partly accounts for its very large collection. The Bodleian provides its readers with books in practically all subjects except the modern languages. It has a collection of nearly 50,000 volumes of manuscripts, in addition to a million and three-quarters printed books, and attracts scholars by its unique original material, both unpublished and published. It is a great storehouse of books on medieval English lore. Among its unique literary treasures are the earliest manuscript of the *Chanson de Roland* and the only copy of the earliest printed work of Shakespeare.

The New Library is an extension of the old Bodleian, with an immense capacity for the stacking of books, which are conveyed from it to the old library by means of a mechanical device through an underground tunnel. It has reading-rooms and rooms for holding seminars and accommodating research workers. The other libraries in the Bodleian group are the Radcliffe Camera, a big domed building, also connected with the old Bodleian by an underground tunnel, the Radcliffe Science Library, the Library of Rhodes House and the Library of the Indian Institute. The three last-named are special and departmental libraries, while the Radcliffe Camera contains a large collection of books useful to students preparing for the Oxford Honour Schools. As already mentioned, none of the libraries forming the Bodleian

group is a lending library, which is, indeed a serious drawback preventing readers from making the best use of the remarkable collections of books they contain.

Outside the Bodleian group is a large number of university libraries, at the head of which may be placed the Library of the Taylor Institution for Modern Languages, which has been described as 'the most important separate library of modern languages in the British Isles'. The others are departmental libraries, such as those connected with the Schools of English, Modern History, Geography and Mathematics. In addition to these, the colleges of Oxford have their own libraries for the use of their fellows and students, and, though there is not much co-ordination between these libraries *inter se*, their manuscript collections, some of which are of rare value, are made readily available to readers of the Bodleian, and there is some kind of informal co-operation with regard to the use of the libraries among the members of the different colleges. The library of Merton College which is reputed to be the oldest library in England is regarded as the most remarkable specimen of a medieval English library. Some college libraries have special collections by which the research student sets great store. The Codrington in All Souls College, the Bradley Memorial Library of Philosophy in Merton College and the late Dr Rashdall's collection of books on universities, now in New College, fall in this category. The library of the Oxford Union, which lends books to its readers and allows open access to its shelves, is a valuable supplement

to the university and college libraries, for which the Oxford undergraduate cannot but be grateful.

The University Library in Cambridge is housed in one of the most impressive of modern buildings, which owes its existence to a munificent gift from the Rockefeller Foundation. It has a collection of a million and a half printed volumes besides a large number of manuscripts and maps. Unlike the Bodleian, this is a lending library, although undergraduates, graduates and research students are permitted to borrow books only through their college tutors. Like the Bodleian, the Cambridge University Library enjoys the right to receive a copy of every book published in the British Isles. The university has also a number of departmental libraries, such as the Marshall Library, the Seeley Memorial Library, the Squire Law Library, the Philosophical, the Mathematical and the English Libraries. Each college, too, has its own library, and some of the colleges have special and valuable collections like the Robertson Smith Library of Oriental Books in Christ's College and the Matthew Parker Collection in the library of Corpus Christi College. Some of the books in the college libraries are of great antiquarian interest. There is also a good library in the Union Society.

The University of London has a library consisting of more than half a million volumes, located in the university building in Bloomsbury. It is a lending library and provides well-equipped sections for research and advanced students. Among its important sections mention should be made of the Goldsmith's Library of Economic Literature, with about 60,000 volumes and pamphlets, and the Dunning-Lawrence

Library containing, besides the first four folio editions of Shakespeare's works and original and early editions of Elizabethan, Jacobean and Caroline authors and dramatists, a large collection of books on the Bacon-Shakespeare controversy. There is a number of other special collections, too. There is, in addition, a music library including music scores, books on music and collections of records and pianola rolls.

The schools and other institutions of the university have their own libraries. The library of University College, one of the biggest of these, has over 550,000 volumes. The building was considerably damaged as a result of bombing during the last war and about 70,000 volumes were destroyed. There are also separate libraries in the several departments of the college. The library of the London School of Economics and Political Science, which has attained an international reputation, is freely open to the students of the school, and is also largely used by scholars and investigators unconnected with the institution. It is, perhaps, the largest library in the world devoted exclusively to social studies. It has nearly 300,000 volumes, apart from government publications of most of the countries of the world. It specializes in books and periodicals dealing with economics, commerce, business administration, transport, statistics, political science, public administration, English, foreign and international law, and the social, economic and international aspects of history. Seats are provided for readers in rooms allotted to particular subjects or groups of subjects, which contain books in open shelves readily accessible to them.

Special rooms are also set apart for the use of research workers and members of the teaching staff. In addition to card catalogues of authors and subjects there is a published subject catalogue in six volumes, which is being brought up to date.

The libraries of the civic universities, being of comparatively recent origin, are naturally not rich in collections of old books. They are at a disadvantage when compared with the university libraries of Oxford and Cambridge, since they do not get free copies of books published in the United Kingdom, a privilege which the ancient English universities enjoy under the Copyright Act. And yet these modern universities need not be ashamed of their libraries, which are rapidly growing and provide their students with facilities both for borrowing, and browsing among, books, which are denied to the students of Oxford and Cambridge. Some of the modern universities can boast of valuable collections in addition to the most recent books on scientific and technological subjects. Special mention must be made of the Brotherton Library of the University of Leeds which is housed in a magnificent new building of which any university might well be proud. The Brotherton Collection, which was the private library of the late Lord Brotherton, presented to the university by his executors, is particularly rich in nineteenth century English literature, and possesses the valuable correspondence of Sir Edmund Gosse with some of the great men of letters of his time. The Icelandic and Scandinavian Collection of more than 12,500 books and pamphlets and the Anglo-French collection of 2,700 volumes

on the influence of Great Britain over France, consisting mainly of translations from English into French, form part of the Brotherton Library. The Birmingham University Library, along with its numerous scientific and medical books and journals, can boast of collections of books of French economists, nineteenth-century biographies and musical works. The libraries of Sheffield University and the Manchester College of Technology specialize in applied science and technology. Liverpool University owns the Thomas Glazebrook Rylands Collection which is rich in early geography, astronomy, mathematics and British local history.

The constituent colleges of the University of Wales have each their own library of more than a hundred thousand volumes. The library of Bangor College, North Wales, has the largest collection of Welsh books and periodicals. The Scottish universities have excellent libraries, which they are able to maintain and expand with the help of special grants from the Carnegie Trust. The Aberdeen University Library is rich in Celtic literature and books on the history, topography and antiquities of the Scottish Highlands. The library of Trinity College, Dublin, is a large one, with over half a million books. All these are lending libraries.

From the foregoing account of the library situation in the British universities, as one finds it today, it must not be inferred that it has been equally satisfactory in the past. As the University Grants Committee pointed out in its Report published in 1936, the total amount expended on books during the academic year 1925-6 by all the grant-

aided universities and colleges of Great Britain was a little larger than the combined figures for the two universities of Harvard and Yale, and actually a little smaller than the combined figure for the four Universities of Illinois, Michigan, Minnesota and North Carolina. The Committee further observed as follows:

At the time of our first visits ten years ago, the inadequacy of many libraries was grave and glaring, and even now, though we gladly recognize the great advances that have been made, we are by no means satisfied that the true status of a library in a University is really appreciated.

In their Report made six years later the Committee recorded its satisfaction at the 'very decided improvement in the general library service of the University Institutions of the country', quoting comparative figures for the years 1925-6, 1928-9 and 1934-5, during which the total expenditure had increased from £156,000 to £165,000 and then to £228,000. These figures included expenditure on salaries and wages, on the purchase of books and periodicals, on building and on other miscellaneous items. Part of the increase in later years was due to the increased cost of foreign publications on account of the appreciation of certain foreign currencies. The Returns published by the University Grants Committee for 1948-9 show that the total library expenditure in that year was £633,255, a figure nearly three times that for 1934-5. It is, however, significant that the proportion which the expenditure on libraries bore to the total expenditure on universities and university colleges in receipt of treasury

grants had decreased from 3.8 to 3.6 per cent instead of increasing.

It is as well to make a passing reference here to the National Central Library which has spared no effort to organize an efficient service of inter-university loans of books, especially highly specialized and expensive ones, those which are out of print, foreign books and back numbers of periodicals which are not easily available.

Flexner, speaking of the facilities offered by the universities of the United States of America for scientific research, claims that 'the great scientific laboratories of Harvard, Yale, Columbia, Chicago, Pasadena, Michigan, California, Wisconsin and other State universities are not surpassed in respect to adequacy by the laboratories of any other country', and proceeds to observe that, perhaps, their completeness, commodiousness and elaborate equipment, involving a heavy burden of supervision and administration, have proved to be a disadvantage to some of the scientists working in them.¹ One cannot speak of the scientific laboratories of the British universities in the same flattering terms. Many of the laboratories of Oxford are modern in their design, but there are others which are not quite up to date. Although until recent years a few of the Oxford colleges had their own chemical laboratories, at present all the science teaching is done at the university in its science departments. The new Clarendon Laboratory, which forms an important part of the physics department, is equipped with all the facilities

¹ See Flexner, *op. cit.*, p. 75.

required for modern physical research. The Dyson Perrins Laboratory is now a well-equipped modern laboratory for research in organic chemistry, and, thanks to the generosity of the Rockefeller Foundation and of Lord Nuffield, the university has been able to provide two first-class modern laboratories for instruction and research in biochemistry and physical chemistry respectively. In Cambridge, too, instruction and research in all branches of experimental science is concentrated in the university. The Cavendish Laboratory of Experimental Physics is well-known for the eminent names of Nobel prize-winners connected with it. The arrangements for research in this laboratory are on a team basis. Five such teams are working at present on nuclear physics, radio physics, crystallography, the physics of metals and magnetic problems and phenomena at low temperatures. Each of these teams has its own colloquium, which meets from time to time to discuss the latest research publications as well as the work in progress in the laboratory.

The scientific laboratories of the civic universities are, as a rule, well-equipped, since these universities have from the very first attached great importance to the study of, and research in, scientific and technological subjects. What impresses the visitor to the laboratories of the British universities, however, is not so much the modernity of their construction or equipment as the single-minded devotion, keenness and team spirit of those who work there. They rarely complain about the inadequacy of the material and equipment available to them, and, if they are sometimes

able to produce results which astound the world, their success only illustrates the triumph of spirit over matter even in the field of the physical sciences.

Chapter VII

CURRICULA AND EXAMINATIONS

The curricula in the British universities disclose considerable diversity, although certain common patterns are visible. The nomenclature of degrees also varies from university to university. For example, in Oxford and in Cambridge the first degree is called B.A., whether the course leading to it comprises arts or science subjects. The B.Sc. degree in Oxford is awarded only as a research degree. In the Scottish universities the M.A. is the first degree in the arts faculty, there being no B.A. degree at all. In all the other universities the courses of study in arts lead to the B.A. and those in science to the B.Sc. degree. The courses leading to the B.A. degree in Oxford are of three years' duration with the exception of the course known as *Literæ Humaniores* or 'Greats', which extends to four years. In Cambridge, too, the corresponding courses are all of three years. In Scotland the M.A. (Ordinary) course extends to three years, and an additional year of study is required for the M.A. (Honours) course. In Oxford and Cambridge one can take either an Ordinary degree or an Honours degree at the end of the three years' course. The Honours degree in Cambridge is called a Tripos.

In some of the civic universities the B.A. degree is conferred either as a degree in general studies or as a degree in special studies, and honours may be awarded with either.

if the candidate's performance is meritorious. In others, there are special Honour Schools. The candidate for the ordinary M.A. degree in a Scottish university has to do five or six subjects, in two of which he is expected to show a higher standard of attainment at the examination. The Honours candidate has to select a subject or group of subjects from one of the Honours groups and two additional subjects outside that group. In the University of London for the B.A. (General) examination a candidate has to choose any three from a list of more than fifty subjects. The B.A. (Honours) degree may be taken in any of a number of specified branches, such as classics, geography, English, French, history or mathematics. In many cases a subsidiary subject must be offered by the candidate. For obtaining the B.Sc. degree (General) a candidate has to pass the final examination in three subjects. The B.Sc. degree (Special) is awarded to candidates passing in a principal subject selected from a specified list and also in a subsidiary subject in certain cases. Classes and honours can be obtained at either examination. The courses of study and conditions to be complied with for obtaining higher degrees, such as a master's or a doctor's degree, differ in the different universities. It is neither possible, nor is it proposed, in this book, to compare and contrast the individual courses in the several universities. A few general observations would not, however, be out of place.

Oxford and Cambridge still continue to be the strongholds of classical learning, but they have widened the range of their subjects, and modern history, natural science, the

modern languages and social studies are gaining ground in both universities. In the other universities, especially in the civic ones, mathematics, scientific, technological and modern subjects naturally occupy a more prominent place than the humanities. Neither Oxford nor Cambridge has a faculty of commerce, and it is extremely unlikely that it will find a place in either university even in the distant future. The University Grants Committee is giving every encouragement to the development of social studies in these universities. The Honour School of Philosophy, Politics and Economics, known as 'Modern Greats' in Oxford slang, under the direction of the Faculty of Social Studies, is becoming popular and threatens to prove a formidable rival to the 'Greats' which occupies a pre-eminent place in that university.

The British universities have begun to ask themselves whether they have not, in recent years, carried specialization a little too far and whether they should not rather provide their alumni with 'balanced' courses designed to give a broad training rather than a narrow one. These doubts and questionings have increased since the end of the last war. It is not specialization as such that has come in for comment, because it is conceded that it is one of the legitimate functions of a university to train young men for scholarship and research by means of specialized honours courses which ensure a high standard of knowledge and a high degree of intellectual discipline. It is rather the stage at which specialized training begins that has called for careful scrutiny. The question really is whether the preliminary

education received by those students who wish to specialize is sufficiently broad-based to enable them to arrive at sound judgements when they have to apply their special knowledge to the complex situations which will face them in life. This critical attitude of the British universities is only a symptom of the malaise which has affected all thinking men, and educationists, in particular, after the bitter experiences of the last war.

It is not surprising, therefore, to find that some British universities have already revised, and others contemplate revising, their curricula with a view to providing a broader general education in the early years of the degree course. The revised B.Sc. course of the London School of Economics and Political Science thus provides for a wider study in the first two years, leading to specialization in the final year. The new course is a fusion of the former B.Sc. (Econ.) and B.Com. courses. It involves the abolition of the intermediate examination and the division of the entire course into two parts to be taken at the end of the second and third years of study respectively. The University College of North Staffordshire, opened at Stoke-on-Trent in October 1950, which is empowered by its Charter to grant its own degree of Bachelor of Arts, provides a four years' course leading to the degree. The programme of the first year consists of a compulsory course of lectures, identical for all students, supplemented by tutorial work adjusted to individual needs. These lectures deal with the heritage of civilization, present-day activities and the methods and influence of the experimental sciences, and are intended to provide

instruction which will enable the student to acquire a balanced view of life before he enters upon the study of the normal subjects during the last three years. Concurrently with his work for the degree, the student may, if he so wishes, qualify himself as a trained teacher, a youth leader or a social worker. This course is in the nature of a new experiment in university education, undertaken under the able leadership of the late Lord Lindsay of Birker, a former Master of Balliol College.

Examinations do not bulk large in the eyes of the student in a British university. Perhaps, the Oxford and the Cambridge undergraduate take the Honour School and Tripos a little more seriously than the undergraduate in London or in one of the civic universities. The fact is that both the British public and students attach greater value to the training received in a college or a university than to the result of a degree examination, which is exactly the reverse of the attitude of the average student of an Indian university.

Both in Oxford and in Cambridge the examinations are usually conducted by university teachers and college tutors who may or may not be university lecturers. An external examiner is frequently invited to take part in a Tripos examination. As a rule, each script is examined by two examiners independently, and they generally agree in the marking. If they cannot agree, the script is referred to a third examiner for assessment. The examinees are always given a wide option of questions, and it is the quality rather than the number of questions attempted that is

taken into account in assessing a candidate's performance. The *viva voce* is an important part of the examination system in Oxford. In the Scottish and civic universities it is the usual practice to include external examiners in the board of examiners. It may be pointed out that in Oxford and Cambridge, even where the examiners are internal, in the sense that they are all members of the university, so far as the individual candidates are concerned, their scripts do not necessarily go for assessment to their own lecturers or tutors. This system is much more satisfactory than the American system under which the teacher himself examines his own student and the latter's performance is never submitted to the scrutiny of an independent person.

Chapter VIII

EXTRA-MURAL STUDIES

That the universities have a contribution to make to adult education has been fully recognized in Great Britain, and practically every university and university college either maintains a department of extra-mural education, or organizes extension lectures. The idea underlying university extension is, as Professor James Stuart of Cambridge, one of the pioneers of the movement, put it, the 'desire that the country at large should become part-heir of the immense educational tradition of the universities'.¹ The credit for starting university extension courses must go to Cambridge which organized in 1873 what were then called 'local lectures'. Oxford followed the worthy example of Cambridge, thus paying a deserved compliment to the younger, sister university, by adopting a similar scheme of lectures in 1878, and London did not take long to follow the lead thus given by the two ancient English universities. The other British universities and university colleges were not slow to follow in the footsteps of Cambridge, Oxford and London, with the result that today hundreds of extension courses, varying from six to twenty-five lectures, are provided all over the British Isles.

At one time, serious doubts were expressed in some quarters whether universities should interest themselves at

¹ See his *Reminiscences*, p. 165.

all in adult education. These doubts were finally set at rest by the Royal Commission on Oxford and Cambridge Universities which, in its report published in 1922, emphatically recommended 'that extra-mural instruction be definitely accepted as an established and essential part of the normal work of a university'. This view has been endorsed by the University Grants Committee, who, in their Report published in 1948, state that the majority of their members concur in the proposition 'that the universities should continue increasingly to make a unique and indispensable contribution to adult education', and go to the length of observing that they 'should regard the withdrawal of the universities from extra-mural work and its relinquishment to bodies of inferior educational prestige as a policy injurious both to the community and to the universities themselves'. They, no doubt, recommend the exercise of a wide discrimination by the universities, caution them against attempting to cover the whole field of adult education and advise them to restrict their energies to the further development of tutorial classes, summer schools and allied activities, in which work of a university standard can be done.¹

The value of extension lectures as a stimulant creating an appetite for intellectual pursuits can be gauged by the fact that the popular lectures given by eminent teachers from Cambridge and Oxford in some of the populous industrial centres of England were responsible for the springing up of university colleges in Sheffield, Reading and Nottingham, which, in course of time, developed into full-fledged

¹ See *Report of the University Grants Committee* (1948), p. 75.

universities. These and other civic universities which have themselves benefited from the university extension movement have in their turn tried to extend the benefit to neighbouring areas through their own extra-mural departments. The extension movement caught on and became popular with middle-class people whose educational background was sufficient to enable them to profit by the courses. The working class, at first, found the courses beyond their capacity and had to bide their time until the institution of 'tutorial classes', which followed as a logical sequel to extension lectures.

In 1903, the Workers' Educational Association was founded. One of its chief aims was to 'emancipate the mind and spirit of the worker' and to provide him with a political education. This association, which was a federation of working class and educational bodies and individual members, being interested in educating public opinion and advancing education in the community, organized study classes and public lectures with the help of university men. Realizing the benefits which had accrued to the country from the University Extension movement, the Workers' Educational Association established relations with the University of Oxford in 1907, and thereafter with all the other universities and university colleges in Great Britain. Joint committees were formed, composed of representatives of the universities and university colleges and the Association to promote tutorial classes, advanced tutorial classes and vocational courses. The universities and the Workers' Educa-

tional Association have always co-operated on a basis of equality.

The tutorial classes meet twenty-four times a year during three consecutive years, and the membership of each class is restricted to twenty-four. Instruction is provided by full-time as well as by part-time tutors and lecturers, and the subjects taught include mostly cultural subjects such as art, music, literature, philosophy and psychology and social studies like economics, history, politics and international affairs. The method of instruction is as follows: each class meets for two hours a week, usually in the evening, unless the class members find it more convenient to meet earlier in the day. Part of the time is devoted to an exposition of the subject, and the rest to questions and discussion. The students are expected to do written work on subjects which the tutor sets them from time to time, but no examinations are held. These tutorial classes are attended by persons of both sexes, drawn from various occupations, industrial and agricultural, shop assistants, office workers, teachers, civil servants and housewives. The Universities of Oxford and Cambridge award bursaries to men and women in the adult education movement capable of profiting by a regular university course of study. The University of Nottingham has an Adult Education Department in the Faculty of Arts with a full-time professor, a deputy director of extra-mural studies, several staff tutors and part-time tutors and lecturers, and maintains a residential college for adult students in grounds adjoining the University Park.

In 1909 there were only 8 tutorial classes with 237

students. In 1948 the number of classes increased to 828, and the number of students to 13,244. In addition, there were 742 classes of a preparatory tutorial class type of the duration of one year, known as university sessional courses, catering for 13,369 students.¹ The expenses of all these classes are met from grants by the Ministry of Education, which pays 75 per cent of the teaching costs and travelling expenses to all recognized committees, and the balance is covered by grants from the local education authorities, which also provide classrooms free of cost. The work of adult education has been very much facilitated by the National Institute of Adult Education, a central consultative body, established to advise on the liberal education of adults and to promote understanding between bodies engaged in adult education with a view to their co-operation in matters of common interest. Its members include the universities, the university colleges, the local education authorities, voluntary agencies and individuals. The Institute publishes a quarterly journal and holds an annual conference.

There is a vast difference in age, educational background and interests between an undergraduate who attends a regular university course and a part-time adult student who attends a class under the tutorial classes scheme. The adult student is much older and may be deficient in his formal education, but his interest may be keener, as his attendance at the classes is purely voluntary and of his own seeking. He is also genuinely interested in the subject, for what he

¹ See Green, E., 'The Workers' Educational Association' in *University 49* (International Student Service, Geneva, 1949).

wants is knowledge for its own sake, and not as a means of obtaining an academic qualification. Shortcomings in his educational make-up are adequately compensated for by his maturity and experience of the world, and his intense longing for the acquisition of knowledge. In an age of democracy, such as ours, the importance of adult education cannot be overestimated, since there is no better method of creating an intelligent and healthy interest in public life among the mass of the people who are naturally anxious to take their due share in it.

From the point of view of the universities the tutorial classes furnish an excellent training ground for young lecturers aspiring to senior teaching posts, inasmuch as they bring them into touch with mature men and women with worldly experience, belonging to different stations and vocations in life, with whom they can discuss the subjects taught, chosen by the members of the class themselves, almost on terms of equality, which is not the case when they deal with raw undergraduates. In spite of their own intellectual superiority, the tutors can learn a great deal from this kind of intellectual partnership with minds which have matured in the hard school of life and are, therefore, in a position to contribute their own varied individual experiences to the discussion of problems in which they are genuinely interested.

By carrying its mission of culture to the masses through university extension and tutorial classes not only do the universities perform the noble task of radiating the light of knowledge outside their walls among those who have been

denied the advantages of a university education by circumstances beyond their control, but they also win for themselves the sympathy and support of the wider public whom they thus serve. A number of British universities, either singly or in collaboration, conduct residential summer schools, with provision for lectures, seminars and tuition, and offering opportunities for reading and discussion. They also arrange vacation courses for overseas students. In these different ways the universities of Great Britain are making a valuable contribution to national life and earning the gratitude of the country.

Chapter IX

UNIVERSITY FINANCE

The main sources of income of the British universities are parliamentary grants, grants from local authorities, students' fees for tuition and examination, endowments, donations and subscriptions. In the academic year 1948-9, the income of the universities and colleges in Great Britain amounted to £18,156,578. Of this total 59.2 per cent represented parliamentary grants. Students' fees for tuition, examination, graduation, matriculation and registration accounted for 20.6 per cent, endowments for 6.7 per cent, miscellaneous receipts from local authorities and other bodies for services rendered for 6.6 per cent, grants from local authorities for 5 per cent, and donations and subscriptions for 1.9 per cent. If these figures are compared with the corresponding figures for 1923-4, it will be noticed that, while the contributions from parliamentary grants have increased from 35.4 to 59.2 per cent, the income from the other sources, except miscellaneous receipts which have risen from 4.9 to 6.6 per cent, shows a fall from 33.7 to 20.6 per cent, in respect of students' fees, from 11.5 to 6.7 per cent in respect of endowments, from 12 to 5 per cent in respect of grants from local authorities and from 2.5 to 1.9 per cent in respect of donations and subscriptions. Before the creation of the University Grants Committee in 1919, the main income of the universities and colleges was derived from endowments and fees.

Prior to 1882 the British Government was averse to giving financial assistance for the promotion of university education, and it was only since that year that the British Exchequer began to make *ad hoc* grants for specific purposes.

The setting up of the University Grants Committee in 1919 opened a new era in British university education, inasmuch as it indicated the intention of the British Government to acquaint itself with the financial needs of the universities in the United Kingdom through a standing committee of experts, with a view to meeting those needs by annual grants from the Exchequer. Beginning with the sum of £1,000,000, the figure of the annual recurring grant has been increased periodically. It rose to £9,500,000 in 1946-7, to £16,600,000 in 1951-2, and will be progressively increased in the five years, beginning with £20,000,000 in 1952-3, and rising to £25,000,000 in 1956-7.

The University Grants Committee is a sub-committee of the Treasury, and has no connexion with the Ministry of Education. It has its headquarters in London. Its permanent paid staff is small, consisting of a chairman, a secretary, an assistant secretary and a few clerical assistants. The members, other than the chairman and secretary, are honorary workers, appointed by the Treasury from members of the academic staffs of universities and others with wide experience of university administration and education. The selection of these members is so made that, as far as possible, all important branches of knowledge are represented on the Committee. At the present moment, there are two women

members on the Committee. The policy of the Committee is to recommend recurring grants on a quinquennial basis. The grant made to each university takes the form of a block grant to be expended at the discretion of the university over the entire field of its activities. Purely as a temporary measure, the Committee has been assisting development in special fields of study and research by making earmarked grants as, for instance, in medicine, dentistry, agriculture, veterinary science, social studies, Oriental, African and Slavonic studies, science and technology. The ultimate aim of the Committee is that these earmarked grants should be absorbed in the general block grant as soon as a satisfactory level of development is reached in any of these special fields.¹ In view of this declared aim, the fears which seem to be entertained in some quarters that the earmarking of grants in this manner is likely in the long run to endanger the autonomy of the universities are groundless.

The new and enlarged terms of reference to the University Grants Committee, announced in Parliament by the Chancellor of the Exchequer in 1946, require the Committee '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'. These terms envisage the need for a co-ordinated plan of development which has been conspicuous by its absence in the past history of university

¹ This has now been done save in a few exceptional fields of study. See *Report of the University Grants Committee (1948)*, p. 78.

education in Great Britain. The unmethodical growth of the British universities, each developing along its own lines, has been responsible for the lack of such planning. The need for planning in university education was brought home to the Government and the people by the two world wars. The Barlow Report (1946) put forward a ten-year plan for the development and expansion of scientific man-power through the instrumentality of the universities. This plan, which had for its objective the doubling of the number of scientists within a period of ten years (an objective which was actually achieved in the short space of two years) involved, among other things, increased assistance to poor students at the universities, increases in staff and accommodation and more liberal grants to universities from the Exchequer. The Clapham Report, which was published about the same time, recommended the urgency of advancing research in the social and economic fields which had not received the attention they deserved from the universities and the Government. The recommendations of these two Committees and of two other special Committees, the Goodenough Committee on Medical Education and the Scarbrough Committee on Oriental, Slavonic, East European and African Studies, have influenced the University Grants Committee in making specially earmarked grants as part of their short-term plan of enabling the universities to meet certain urgent national needs.

The University Grants Committee enjoys the confidence of the universities and university colleges partly because of its composition, including as it does a large number of uni-

versity teachers and administrators, which is a guarantee of sympathy and understanding, and partly because of its method of work. Its members visit each university or university college once in five years and discuss its problems and policies with the authorities, the teachers and the students. It is always in close touch with the Committee of Vice-Chancellors and principals, and many are the occasions on which university and college administrators have informal meetings and discussions with the chairman, the vice-chairman or the secretary of the Committee, on questions which may arise with regard to the administration of grants. One secret of the harmonious relations which subsist between the University Grants Committee and the universities is the helpful but non-interfering attitude of the Committee, which regards its function as 'not one of direction, but of stimulation, co-ordination and advice'. In the words of Sir Walter Moberly, a former distinguished chairman of the University Grants Committee, 'the Committee conceives its task as being to act not as a collection of supermen making plans for the universities but as a stimulating influence always inciting the universities to plan for themselves somewhat more fully than they might do if they were left to themselves'.¹ The universities recognize the necessity for central planning of some kind and, jealous as they are of their own academic autonomy and freedom, welcome all the assistance they can get from or through the Committee. In practice, no university is obliged to

¹ *Report of Proceedings of the Sixth Congress of the Universities of the British Commonwealth* (1948), published by the Association of Universities of the British Commonwealth in 1951, p. 16.

undertake any development which does not conform to its own settled policy. On the other hand, if a university has its own pet scheme for which money may not be available from the Committee, there is nothing to prevent it from finding some other source, such as a private donor, to sponsor the scheme.

The British people are great realists, and their practical genius enables them to hit upon methods which are often remarkable for the way in which they help to solve problems without sacrificing principle to expediency. Both the universities and the State are fully conscious that the expansion and development of the universities are essential to the life and progress of the nation. How are the universities and the State to derive and confer this mutual benefit without undue interference? The University Grants Committee provides a machinery which enables the universities to get what they want from the State without bartering away their academic liberty which, unfortunately, has been the fate of universities on the continent of Europe. It has been the British tradition to keep the university field clear of all political controversy, and the British Parliament votes large sums for the universities without demanding a share in the control of their expenditure. University education is looked upon as a joint enterprise in which both the universities and the State are equally interested. The State plays the part of a financing partner, is only concerned with the returns from its investment, and does not take a hand in the management of the business. In this way the universities

are able to obtain financial assistance from the Government while retaining their independence and autonomy.

Since more than 73 per cent of the full-time students in the universities and university colleges are 'assisted' students the major part of the income derived by universities from students' fees is really contributed by the State and the local education authorities. With the exception of Oxford and Cambridge, all universities and university colleges in Great Britain receive regular, and quite substantial, grants from the local authorities, which is an indication of the interest taken by civic authorities in university education, and may also be regarded as a token of their appreciation of the service that the universities are rendering to the people living in their neighbourhood by bringing the facilities of higher education to their doors. The extramural activities of the universities have, no doubt, their share in securing the sympathy and support of the ratepayer, who is grateful for the privilege of participating in the intellectual inheritance of the nation to which he is admitted through these activities.

Private benefactions and donations are steadily decreasing in number and amount on account of the heavy death duties and income-tax which leave a very narrow margin in the hands of those who are inclined to be generous. Industrial and business houses do occasionally come forward with gifts of large sums of money to the universities, but their gifts are sometimes Greek gifts, for they are coupled with conditions calculated to advance private interests which the donors have at heart rather than to

benefit the universities. The greatest benefactors of the universities, as rightly pointed out by the University Grants Committee, are those who attach no conditions to their benefactions and leave it entirely to the universities to make such use of the funds as they may deem fit, having regard to their own policies and needs, for it is the universities which are the best judges of what is good for themselves.

Chapter X

UNIVERSITY ADMINISTRATION

The constitutions of the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge have many common features, while they differ from those of the Scottish universities, the civic universities and the University of London. Every university in Great Britain has a legislative and governing body, an executive body and an academic body to discharge their respective functions, although these several bodies may be called by different names in the different universities.

In Oxford, the largest body in point of numbers is called Convocation, and it consists of all the masters of arts and holders of some higher degrees who have kept alive their membership of the university by payment of the prescribed dues. The membership of this body runs into several thousands, with the natural consequence that it cannot be a really effective body, though it enjoys certain powers and privileges such as those of electing the Chancellor, conferring honorary degrees and suspending, but not rejecting or amending, statutes and decrees passed by Congregation with a majority of less than two-thirds. It alone has the authority to sanction petitions to Parliament and to affix the university seal to legal documents, although in cases of emergency the Vice-Chancellor may authorize the affixing of the seal, provided that he reports his action to the next meeting of Convocation. The Congregation of the university, which is the

effective governing body, consists of the teaching and administrative elements in the university and the colleges. It is the principal legislative body, elects eighteen members to the Hebdomadal Council, and sets the seal of approval on most appointments to administrative posts. The Hebdomadal Council has sometimes been likened to the centre of the nervous system, because proposals originate from it and it is the central administrative body. The General Board of the Faculties looks after the purely academic side, including the framing of courses of study and the teaching arrangements, while the Curators of the Chest are responsible for the financial administration, and act as an advisory body on all matters of finance. The details of the administration are attended to by different committees, by the Registrar, the Secretary of Faculties and the Secretary to the Curators of the Chest. The Chancellor, who is the titular head of the university, is a non-resident officer. The executive power is exercised by his deputy, the Vice-Chancellor, whom the Chancellor nominates, in practice, the senior head who has not previously been Vice-Chancellor, and by the Proctors who are annually elected by the colleges in rotation. The Vice-Chancellor wields great influence and authority as the *de facto* chairman of the Hebdomadal Council (the Chancellor being normally absent), and the *de jure* chairman of the General Board of the Faculties and of the Curators of the Chest and of most of the Boards and Committees. The Proctors are in charge of the discipline of the university.

In Cambridge, the body which corresponds to Convocation is called the Senate, and the Regent House is the coun-

terpart of the Oxford Congregation. The Council of the Senate, consisting of the Chancellor, the Vice-Chancellor and sixteen graduates elected by the Regent House, of whom four must be heads of colleges and four professors or readers, exercises many of the executive powers of the university. It also sanctions the submission of resolutions (known as Graces) to the Regent House and the Senate, and nominates members to be appointed by Grace to serve on other university bodies. The Registry acts as the secretary of the Council. There is a Financial Board to supervise the financial affairs of the university, collect the contributions from the colleges and administer trust funds. The Treasurer of the university acts as the secretary of this Board. The General Board of the Faculties supervises and co-ordinates the work of the faculties, approves the schedule of lectures and appoints examiners. Its secretary is called Secretary-General of the Faculties. The Vice-Chancellor is the *ex officio* chairman of a large number of university bodies, including the Council of the Senate, the Financial Board and the General Board of the Faculties. The Vice-Chancellor is elected annually by the Regent House from among the heads of colleges. As pointed out in an earlier chapter, the colleges of Oxford and Cambridge are self-governing corporations, distinct from the universities.

In the University of London the Court has the custody of all the property, funds and investments of the university, and controls its finances. It applies for, receives and distributes grants from the University Grants Committee, the London County Council and other public bodies. The Court

was the creation of the Statutes made under the University of London Act, passed in 1926. Before the creation of the Court, the University Grants Committee itself used to allocate the Parliamentary grant among the university departments and schools. The Court includes non-academic persons like lawyers and businessmen, and is a much smaller body than the Senate, which is the supreme governing and executive body of the university in all academic matters. The Senate grants recognition to university teachers. It has five standing committees: the Academic Council, the Council for External Students, the Collegiate Council (of Principals), the University Extension and Tutorial Classes Council and the Matriculation and School Examinations Council. There are about thirty-five other committees and more than fifty Boards of Studies. Boards of Faculties are co-ordinating bodies between the Boards of Studies. The Vice-Chancellor, who is elected by the Senate annually, and is eligible for re-election, presides over the Senate, but is only a member of the Court and the Academic Council.

The constitutions of the Scottish universities are modelled on an identical pattern. The largest body is the General Council, which consists of the Chancellor, the members of the University Court, the professors, readers and lecturers who have a year's service to their credit and graduates of the university. It meets ordinarily twice a year, and at other times when convened by the Chancellor. The Chancellor, who is elected for life by the General Council, presides over its meetings. He nominates a Vice-Chancellor, who has the authority to confer degrees in his

absence. The Chancellor nominates the principal of the university, who is the real head of the university, to the office of Vice-Chancellor. Except in Edinburgh, the power to appoint the principal is the prerogative of the Crown. In Edinburgh, the principal is elected by the Curators, and holds office for life, subject to the age limit of 75. He presides over the *Senatus Academicus*, and, in the absence of the Rector, over the Court. In St Andrews, Glasgow and Aberdeen, the principal holds office for life. The Rector is elected by the matriculated students, and his term of office is three years. He is the *ex officio* president of the Court. The Court administers the property of the university and has the power to found new chairs, appoint professors, lecturers and examiners. The *Senatus Academicus*, as its name implies, is the chief academic body of the university, which regulates and supervises its teaching and discipline. Two important features to be noted in the constitution of the Scottish universities are the office of Rector, which is peculiar to them as distinguished from the other British universities, and the office of Principal which is more important than that of the Vice-Chancellor, since the Principal as such is the effective head of the university administration while the Vice-Chancellorship, to which the Principal is nominated in practice, carries with it only the power to deputise for the Chancellor in the conferring of degrees. The Rector is looked upon as the custodian of the students' interests. The Court, which is a comparatively small body, is the most powerful body, holding as it does the purse-strings of the university. It is also the body which

is responsible for laying down the general policy of the university. It is assisted by the Finance Committee and a number of other committees.

In the civic university the Court is the supreme governing body and has a large membership. It has power to regulate and determine all matters concerning the university. The Council, which is the executive body, has a predominance of the lay element. In the University of Leeds, for instance, the constitution of the Council prevents the academic element from exceeding one-fifth of the total membership. Unlike the Court, which meets only twice in a year, the Council holds frequent meetings, as it is responsible for attending to the general business of the university, including the financial administration, the institution of teaching posts and the making of appointments to such posts after consulting the Senate, and for submitting Statutes and Ordinances to the Court. The Senate is concerned with the academic side of the university, and consists of the Vice-Chancellor, the professors, the librarian and some of the non-professorial staff. It is in charge of the courses of study and examinations. It also appoints readers, lecturers and other academic officers, not being professors, by virtue of a power derived by delegation from the Council. Then there are the Faculties and Boards of Faculties as in other universities. The Pro-Chancellor and the Vice-Chancellor are appointed by the Court, on the nomination of the Council. The former holds office for one year, while the latter holds office for such period and subject to such conditions as the Council may determine from time to time.

The Pro-Chancellor is *ex officio* president of the Court and Council and the Vice-Chancellor is *ex officio* chairman of the Senate. In the absence of the Vice-Chancellor, the Pro-Vice-Chancellor (or Deputy Vice-Chancellor as he is called in some universities), who is appointed by the Council from among the members of the Senate, presides over the Senate. In the absence of the Chancellor, the Vice-Chancellor confers degrees. The constitution of the University of Leeds, which has been described above, may be taken as typical of the constitutions of the civic universities generally, though there may be slight variations in detail here and there with regard to the mode of appointment of some of the officers and their terms of office.

The constitution of the University of Durham deserves specific mention as presenting unique features on account of the two divisions which combine to form the university. There are three distinct corporate bodies in the university, which are closely interconnected, namely, the University of Durham, the Council of the Durham Colleges and the Council of King's College, Newcastle-upon-Tyne. The university is governed by a Visitor, Chancellor, Vice-Chancellor, Pro-Vice-Chancellor, Convocation, Court, Senate and Boards of Faculties. Each Division has a Council, an Academic Board and an academic head, who is known as the Warden in the Durham Division, and as the Rector in the Newcastle Division. The Chancellor is the head of the university. When present, he presides at meetings of the Court and Convocation. The Vice-Chancellor is the chief officer of the university, and the office is held for a period of two years

by the Warden and the Rector in turn. The Warden or Rector who is not Vice-Chancellor for the time being is the Pro-Vice-Chancellor. Both these officers are *ex officio* members of the Court, Senate and Convocation, and of each Board of Faculty. The Court appoints its own Chairman (other than the Vice-Chancellor and Pro-Vice-Chancellor) to preside over its meetings when the Chancellor is absent.

The Court controls the finances of the university and has the final voice in the determination of all questions of administration and university policy, subject to the proviso that in all matters affecting educational policy it must consult the Senate before arriving at a decision. The Court allocates the funds at the disposal of the university, decides what grants shall be made to the Councils of the two Divisions, fixes the university fees, institutes teaching posts and appoints professors, readers and administrative officers, and exercises all the residuary powers of the university. The Senate is the supreme governing and executive body of the university in all academic matters. Convocation consists of the Chancellor, the Vice-Chancellor, the Pro-Vice-Chancellor, professors and readers of the university, such other teachers and officers as the Senate may determine, and university graduates. Convocation appoints the Chancellor on the nomination of the Court and the Senate sitting in joint session. The several Faculties advise the Senate with regard to curricula and examinations falling within their province and also recommend to the Senate persons suitable for appointment as examiners. The Registrar, under the supervision of the Vice-Chancellor, is responsible for the conduct of uni-

versity business. He is the secretary of the Court and the Senate, and has to attend at the university offices in both Divisions, although the Registry is located in the City of Durham. The Council of each Division is the governing and executive body of the Division, and manages its property and controls its finance and, subject to the powers of the Academic Board, is responsible for organizing teaching and research.

Chapter XI

'OXBRIDGE' AND 'REDBRICK'

In classifying the British universities it has been usual to divide them into two main groups, 'Oxbridge' and 'Redbrick', and two subsidiary groups, namely, the Scottish universities and London, which stands in a class by itself. To these one should add four minor groups, consisting of Durham with its two Divisions, Wales with its four constituent colleges, Trinity College, Dublin, inextricably bound up with the University of Dublin, and the University Colleges of Southampton,¹ Exeter, Hull and Leicester, the evolution of which into full-fledged universities is only a matter of time. Queen's University of Belfast falls in the Redbrick category, while the National University of Ireland with its constituent colleges presents a distinctive type of organization to which the epithet British is not applicable.

Each of the groups mentioned in the preceding paragraph has its special characteristics, which distinguish it from the other groups. On the other hand, there are minor points of difference between universities forming a homogeneous group. Both the common features and the points of divergence are, in a large measure, the result of historical growth or accident. The present chapter is restricted to the two main groups which it has become the fashion to regard as rival groups, and which, between them, account

¹ Now a university by virtue of the Royal Charter given by Queen Elizabeth II.

for practically all the universities of England, with the exception of London.

(The Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, conveniently labelled as Oxbridge in the picturesque epithet which has gained currency since Bruce Truscot published his thought-provoking book, *Red Brick University*, are residential, federal and national universities, and their government is essentially academic in character. The Redbrick or civic universities are non-residential, unitary and regional, and the non-academic or lay element, drawn from the surrounding geographical region, plays a prominent part in their constitution and government. The collegiate system which is of the essence of both Oxford and Cambridge has a mediæval origin, closely connected with ecclesiastical foundations.) The wealth and influence enjoyed by the individual colleges of these two ancient seats of learning are attributable to their connexion with Royalty and the Church. A fairly large portion of the revenue of these universities is derived from contributions made by the colleges from the income of their landed estate. (Learning and scholarship were intimately associated with religion when these mediæval universities were founded, and this association persisted till the last quarter of the nineteenth century.) The importance these universities attach to the study of the humanities and to the intimate personal relationship of tutor and pupil, fostered by the collegiate system, is natural to institutions which trace their beginnings to the mediæval Church. (In both these respects they bear a close resemblance to the Universities of Taxila and Nalanda, the two famous seats

of learning and higher education in ancient India. The federal character of the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge derives from the manner in which the several colleges came to be endowed and established. Their national character is due to the fact that for more than six centuries they held the field as the only universities in the whole of England.) The colleges, which were originally established as houses for the training of young men intended for the clerical profession, naturally retained their character of close corporations which were jealous of their autonomy and preferred to lead a cloistered existence, away from the bustle of the workaday world.

The evolution and growth of democracy, brought about by the Industrial Revolution, and stimulated by the impact of the two World Wars, has considerably altered the conditions of economic, political and social life in England. The Redbrick universities sprang into existence in response to the new needs of the population. It is extremely unlikely that either Oxford or Cambridge will ever give up its sheltered life, its academic autonomy, its residential and tutorial system, and its respect and reverence for the religious tradition in which it is firmly rooted. As long as the chapel continues to be an inseparable part of a college, and its religious service a part of college routine, and the college remains housed in buildings sanctified by age and religion, (Oxford and Cambridge will continue to be traditional seats of learning where the study of the humanities and religion will not cease to flourish.) The study of science, too, has acquired importance as a valuable intellectual discipline,

but technology has little chance of gaining a firm foothold in either university, although recently Cambridge overcame its prejudice by instituting an honours degree in chemical engineering, in consequence of a special endowment for encouraging the study of the subject.)

The Redbrick or civic universities have no roots in tradition. They have been established in great manufacturing centres like Manchester, Birmingham and Leeds to satisfy the needs of the local population and of the industrial development of the surrounding area. They have no religious background, which accounts for the absence of the chapel and religious service from university life. Science and technology are their lifebreath. Their chief assets consist not of landed estate or venerable buildings of historic memory, nor of ancient libraries of theological, philosophical and classical books, but of machines, workshops and foundries, laboratory equipment, and libraries of the most recent scientific and technological journals. The study of the humanities naturally takes a place subsidiary to the study of technology. The buildings are designed with an eye to utility and technological needs rather than to architectural beauty. There being no independent colleges in them, as in Oxford or Cambridge, the civic universities conform to the unitary type, with a central government. Having no landed estate or other property worth the name, producing an annual income, the civic universities have to depend on local support and benefactions. By giving to the civic population and local organizations a substantial share in their administration, they not only acknowledge the

financial support they receive from the latter but keep in close touch with the community, its life and activity in a manner that is mutually beneficial to the universities and to industry. By reason of their location in the heart of great and crowded manufacturing cities and towns these civic universities have not been able to provide residential facilities such as are available in a sparsely populated town like Cambridge, and they have not, therefore, made residence obligatory for their students.

One would expect to find an almost unbridgeable gulf between the two groups, judging by the tendency in recent discussions on English universities to contrast them and to sing the praises of one or the other type. Whatever may have been true in the past, a visitor to these universities today is agreeably surprised to find that, except in one or two respects, such as the constitution of the governing bodies and the necessary distinction between a federal and a unitary university, the two types are consciously attempting to approach each other. Thus, Oxford and Cambridge are no longer close preserves for the education of youth coming from aristocratic or wealthy families. A large number of their students today come from middle-class and working-class homes. The change in the composition of their student population is traceable to two main causes, namely, the growth of democracy and the two World Wars. More than 82 per cent of the students in these universities are in receipt of scholarships, bursaries, exhibitions or freeships, awarded on the basis of merit.¹ Formerly, almost up to

¹ The figure at Oxford in 1951 was 71.7 per cent.

the end of the first World War, when the cost of education at these universities had to be borne entirely by the parent or guardian of a student, it was well-nigh impossible for a family of average means to send its sons to either university. Today, any young man who renders a good account of himself at a special scholarship, the higher school certificate, or other equivalent, examination can get the benefit of such education practically without any cost to his parents or guardians. Again, the Government's scheme of providing ex-servicemen with university education at its own expense opened the doors of these two ancient universities to many a young man and woman who had rendered service in the last World War, irrespective of their social or economic status. One of the effects of the War has been the levelling of the social status of the student population in Oxford and Cambridge. The student community in Oxford and Cambridge is today a classless society which recognizes no trace of genealogy or wealth.

The large increase in the number of students receiving education at Oxford and Cambridge, mainly due to the causes mentioned in the preceding paragraph, has had another effect on the universities, which is viewed by some of the dons with apprehension. It has put a heavy burden on the working of the tutorial and the supervisory systems which have been the pride of these respective universities. On account of the shortage of accommodation and rising costs, it has not been possible to increase the strength of the teaching staff in the colleges in proportion to the increase in student numbers, with the inevitable consequence that

the tutorial system has had to undergo modification. To cope with increasing numbers, tutors and supervisors of studies have been obliged to take more than one student at a time for the weekly essay. They are required to devote more hours to tutorial and supervisory work than they used to do, and are unable to find sufficient time for lectures, or for doing their own research. Some of them take as many as eighteen tutorials a week, and are obliged to give up lecturing for the university if they happen to be engaged in writing books or in doing research, which takes up whatever time remains at their disposal after doing their tutorials. While tutorials benefit the students, it must be realized that, if a college fellow devotes all his time to tutorials, and has hardly any left for adding to his own stock of knowledge by keeping in constant touch with the ever-swell-ing output of literature in his own subjects, or for engaging in research himself, there is great danger of his own intellectual progress being retarded and of his becoming a dignified coach and no more. For averting such a catastrophe it is essential that the number of tutorials given by individual tutors should be restricted so that they are left with sufficient time for reading, lecturing and research activities. Such a course would, no doubt, reduce the amount of tuition received by a student, but the deficiency, if any, could be made up by his attending lectures on the subject for which the university makes ample provision.

The civic universities, in spite of their location in crowded cities and towns, are doing their best to provide halls of residence for as many of their students as possible, as they

have realized the importance of corporate living. They are also keen on providing a modified tutorial system which, though falling short of the Oxford model, enables their teachers to establish closer contacts with their students than is possible through mass lectures. These tutorial classes consist of small groups of students who meet their teachers, write essays and discuss them once a week or more often. When the number is small, the students are taken in pairs or groups of three or four, a method followed in the university of Oxford in the teaching of science subjects.

While methods of teaching in the Oxbridge and Redbrick universities are thus tending to converge to a common pattern, combining tutorials with lectures, the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, by introducing modern subjects in their curricula and providing honours courses in subjects other than the classics and mathematics have come into line with the modern civic universities in covering new fields of study. Their character has thus been imperceptibly altered from repositories of classical tradition and learning and transmitters of culture into spearheads of scientific and social progress, and they have thus moved from the backwaters of an isolated existence into the main stream of national life. The love and respect for tradition, which is a national trait of the British character, however, prevents these ancient universities from being completely severed from their classical moorings.

An important factor which tends to bring the Oxbridge and the Redbrick universities nearer to each other by the incorporation of the best features of each type in the other

is the frequent migration of teachers and administrators from university to university. If there is one thing which the British universities try to avoid at all costs it is academic inbreeding. A young lecturer in Oxford or Cambridge who shows marked ability in his subject is not infrequently picked up by a younger university for filling the post of a reader or professor, and may, in all probability, come back to his old university, enriched by the new experience gained by him. It is common to find in a university or college teachers who have been on the staff of more than one university. One could say the same of the administrative staff. With each appointment of a teacher or administrator from another university there is every possibility of an accession of fresh ideas, and the impact of a dynamic personality, now and again, may give a new direction to certain university activities.

Chapter XII

THE SCOTTISH UNIVERSITIES AND THE UNIVERSITY OF LONDON

The universities of Scotland differ from those of Oxford and Cambridge in their non-residential character and their unitary constitution. At the same time, they resemble them in the religious influence which pervades them and in their ancient foundations. On the other hand, with the exception of St Andrews, they are comparable to the civic universities of England, inasmuch as they are situated in important civic centres and reflect the influence of their immediate surroundings in their curricula and activities. Their students do not live a cloistered life. 'They see around them a community engaged in the practical affairs of the world and find in that environment an admirable corrective of academic exclusiveness.'¹ The Scottish universities are all modelled on a common plan: They own large estates. They are keenly interested in adult education. They provide opportunities for a corporate life among their students through students' unions. Aberdeen has no halls of residence save one for its final year medical students. The other three universities have such halls for only a small proportion of their students. All the Scottish universities have training corps, air squadrons and facilities for physical training. They recognize each other's courses and permit a

¹ The Rt Hon. Lord Macmillan, *The Book of the Fifth Centenary (The University of Glasgow)*, p. 10.

candidate to appear for their examinations, provided that he has spent his last year at the university in which he wants to take his degree. While there are discussion groups and seminars for post-graduate students, the only contacts undergraduates have with their teachers are when they meet their Directors of Studies. St Andrews, the oldest of the Scottish universities, has colleges in Dundee. St Andrews itself is situated in a quiet out-of-the-way place, and may be regarded as a national university in the proper sense of the word, since it attracts students from all over the country, and even beyond.

The University of London is *sui generis* and defies comparison with any other university organization in Great Britain. It is almost bewildering in the number and variety of its constituent institutions, consisting of colleges, affiliated 'schools', and research institutes, and covering a very wide range of faculties. The term 'school' means a collegiate institution recognized by the university, and includes University College and King's College, London. These two colleges were in existence before the university itself was established, and were later incorporated in it. Professors and lecturers on the staff of the colleges sometimes deliver their lectures in the premises of the university. No upper limit is placed on the number of students that can be taken in a class for a lecture. The chief difference between a school, in the restricted sense of the word, and a college is that the term school is used to describe a specialist institution which confines its teaching to just one or two faculties, while a college makes provision for teaching a much wider range

of subjects covering several faculties. Their relationship to the university is of the same kind. Both types of institution enjoy autonomy in their government and financial powers, although the grants they receive from the University Grants Committee come to them through the university, and the recognition of their teachers is in the hands of the university. They are also liable to be inspected by the university from time to time.

The tutorial system, or something analogous to it, is gaining ground in the schools and colleges. The colleges have made provision for the residence in hostels or halls of residence of a small proportion of their students, although residence is not obligatory. The college unions, the refectories, the literary, dramatic, musical and other societies and clubs offer facilities to the students for a life of corporate activity. Speaking in very general terms, the relationship between the University of London and its schools and colleges is analogous to that subsisting between an affiliating Indian university and its colleges.

The non-academic element in the University Court, while providing a valuable link between the university and the great metropolis in which it is situated, is not powerful enough, nor does it seem anxious, to dominate the academic policies of the university. This is in keeping with the traditional attitude of the layman in Britain towards experts in any walk of life, which is one of confidence bordering on respect. The same attitude is visible in the relation subsisting between the lay and the academic elements in the civic universities.

The fact that the University of London was at first merely an examining body, and continued to exercise this function till the beginning of the present century has evidently had an important bearing on the shaping of its educational policy. The university has found it natural to continue to hold examinations for students who do not pursue courses of study in approved institutions. Far from being closed down, its external side has been attracting an increasing number of external students to its examinations since the First World War. The syllabuses are similar for internal and external students. In some subjects or papers the examination is common. There is always a parity of standards. External students are examined by boards of examiners made up of teachers in the university or in university colleges like those of Exeter, Hull and Leicester which send up their students as external students.

The university does not insist on the lapse of a longer period of private study for its external students than the minimum period laid down for its internal students. It has set up an advisory service to assist external students. The only condition it insists upon is that each external student shall be registered as such on payment of a small registration fee, and shall pay a further fee, at the proper time, for admission to the examination. The university also conducts correspondence courses for students working for some of its commerce examinations, but the number of students availing themselves of this facility is very small, when compared to the total number of external students. The percentage of passes among the external students is

generally low in comparison with that among the internal students, which is not a matter for surprise. The university maintains a separate department for external students, administered by the External Registrar. London is unique among the British universities in providing such facilities for a large body of persons who are unable, on account of poverty, lack of opportunity in their youth or other reasons beyond their control, to receive instruction as internal students. Of course, in subjects such as medicine, pharmacy and engineering, the professional requirements of which can only be complied with in approved institutions, or where the candidate has to undergo a practical test before he can obtain his degree, private study has to be supplemented by attendance in hospitals, laboratories, or workshops, as the case may be. The standard of performance to be attained by an external student at the examination for a degree is not inferior to that required of an internal student for the same degree. It would, therefore, be inaccurate to distinguish the degrees taken by the two types of students as external and internal, as if there was a difference in the intellectual calibre of the two types.

One cannot fail to be impressed by the extra-mural activities of the University of London, which bring the benefits of university instruction to those who do not form part of its normal student population. Most of the British universities make provision for extra-mural studies, but London has a very efficient extra-mural department working under the supervision of a Director. Extra-mural studies in London are of a varied character. There are Extension

Classes where series of lectures are given by qualified persons on cultural subjects, and those who attend them can obtain diplomas or certificates, if they pass the examinations conducted for this purpose. Then, again, there are tutorial classes, arranged in close collaboration with the Workers' Educational Association. Here, too, the subjects treated are cultural subjects only. The students do written work in their classes, but their progress is not tested by examination. In addition to these classes, the university holds Annual Residential Summer Schools for tutorial and sessional class students and University Extension Diploma students, and Annual Residential Summer courses for foreign students, each of six weeks' duration.

Chapter XIII

THE UNIVERSITIES OF DURHAM, WALES AND EIRE AND THE UNIVERSITY COLLEGES

The University of Durham presents features which are not to be met with in any other British university. It is a federal university, comprising two Divisions: the Durham Colleges, situated in the City of Durham, and King's College, Newcastle-upon-Tyne. The university examines the students of these colleges, and confers degrees and diplomas on the results of the examinations. It has affiliated to it three colleges situated outside England, the students of which can appear for its examinations without going to England. Durham and London are thus the only two British universities which confer their degrees on external students. It has also a number of what are described as associated colleges, teaching theology, but no further admissions are being made to these colleges.

The founders of the Durham Colleges were Church dignitaries who had in view the establishment of a university on the lines of Oxford and Cambridge. This is how Durham Castle came to be set apart for the use of the university. The Durham Colleges, which are the constituent colleges of the university, were first established as halls of residence. Owing to the increase in enrolment, about 25 per cent of the students live today in approved lodgings, or

in their own homes. King's College, Newcastle-upon-Tyne, is a non-residential college. The number of students in the Newcastle Division is larger than that in the Durham Division. While the Durham Division has faculties of arts, science, education and music, the Newcastle Division has faculties of arts, applied science, medicine and engineering (including marine engineering and naval architecture). What strikes one as most remarkable is the harmonious working of the several parts constituting this two-pronged university. This is possible because the federal part of the university structure allows the fullest freedom to each Division, and there is perfect understanding between the heads of the two Divisions. The machinery has been working so smoothly that it is said that it is difficult to remember who is the Vice-Chancellor at the moment. It is not unlikely that, in spite of all this, there may come a time when each Division develops its individuality to such an extent that it will only find full scope for its further growth by acquiring the status of an independent university. Until that moment arrives, there is no reason for entertaining any fear that the present harmonious relations between the two constituent parts may not continue.

The University of Wales is thoroughly democratic in its constitution and government. This is only natural for a body which is the creation of the people themselves. It has been aptly described as the 'embodiment of the genius of a race and the final expression of a national tradition of living which has survived the vicissitude of centuries'. The University Court, which is a large body, consists of represen-

tatives of the County and and Borough Councils of Wales, of the governors, councils and senates of the constituent colleges, the guild of graduates, teachers of secondary and primary schools and the Central Welsh Board of Intermediate Education. The Senate is made up of the teachers who are heads of departments of study in the constituent colleges. The office of Vice-Chancellor, the executive head of the Senate, rotates periodically among the principals of the constituent colleges. The Senate is virtually supreme in all academic matters, although its acts can only acquire finality when formally sanctioned by the Court. The Court is not competent to legislate in respect of any course of study or examination, save on the recommendation of the Senate, or after the Senate has had an opportunity of expressing its opinion on the matter. The Senate has no direct representation on the Court, those members of the Senate who have seats on the Court being elected either by the colleges or by the guild of graduates. The constituent colleges also have their own governing bodies, comprising representatives of their subscribers and of public bodies.

The constituent colleges of the university have the right of initiating courses of study, although it is only the Senate which can approve and pass them. There are five constituent colleges: those of Aberystwyth, Bangor, Cardiff and Swansea and the Welsh National School of Medicine at Cardiff. The university is, to all intents and purposes, a rather loosely knit federation of these colleges. Its office is in Cardiff, but its several bodies meet in London, Shrewsbury or some other central place, on account of the lack of

direct railway communication between North and South Wales. Each constituent college appoints its own lecturers and professors. The professors, however, are appointed on the recommendation of a Selection Committee, consisting of three nominees of the college and three experts nominated by the university from among persons unconnected with the college. Students apply for admission to the colleges direct, and not through the university. The colleges thus enjoy a great deal of autonomy and independence, the university acting mainly as a supervisory and co-ordinating authority whose function it is to prevent duplication and overlapping.

The college at Bangor is housed in a fine building and can boast of a splendid library, spacious halls, union rooms and professors' rooms. The population of this small, but beautiful, town is in the neighbourhood of 18,000, of whom about 1,000 are students attending the college. The students live within three or four miles of the college. The students' union is a beehive of activity. The quiet academic atmosphere and the beautiful natural surroundings of the college invest it with a charm all its own. The teachers and students of the college mix freely with one another, and the small groups into which the classes are broken up for tutorial work enable them to maintain close contacts. From many points of view Bangor would be an ideal place for the establishment of a residential university.

The University Colleges of Southampton, Exeter, Hull and Leicester are a noteworthy feature of the British university system. They may be described as universities in

embryo. Nottingham University was a university college until recently and Southampton University College is on the eve of transformation into a full-fledged university. A university college does not hold its own examinations and does not confer degrees, but trains its students for the examinations and degrees of a chartered university. The Colleges of Southampton, Exeter, Hull and Leicester have for several years been giving instruction to their students in courses of study framed by the University of London for its external students. They are, therefore, comparable to the affiliated colleges in Indian universities, except for two minor points of difference. The students of the affiliated colleges of Indian universities are treated as internal students and the universities concerned exercise greater supervision over the colleges. The students of the university colleges, however, are external students of the University of London and the colleges themselves are independent of the university. A university college appoints its own teachers, and the appointments are not subject to the approval of the university. The most important changes that occurred when Nottingham University College attained university status were that, from the time of its transformation, the institution began to frame its own courses of study, conduct its own examinations and confer its own degrees. The constitution of the governing and other bodies was suitably altered, but, in substance, the personnel remained the same. The visible result of the change was an increase in the number of students. The University of Nottingham, which until

May 1952 was the youngest member of the university family of Great Britain, conforms to the Redbrick type.

Southampton University College has a little over 900 students, about a third of whom are in residence in halls. The authorities of the college are anxious that the number of admissions to the college should at no time exceed a thousand, and their ambition is to provide for the residence of every student within the premises of the college so that the university into which the college will be transformed will be a residential university.¹ The University of London has recently been associating the teachers of the college with its own examiners for the purpose of examining the students of the college. The University of London conducts a periodical inspection of the engineering department of the college to ascertain that the students get adequate practical training. The process of the transformation of the college into a university is likely to be completed within the next year or two. The other university colleges, too, are expected before long to attain the status of universities.

The University College of North Staffordshire is the youngest of the university colleges. It was founded by Royal Charter in 1949, and started work in October 1950. It differs from the old university colleges inasmuch as under its charter it has the right to confer its own degree of B.A., a right which is not enjoyed by the other colleges. The degree course of this college is one of four years, the

¹ Since these lines were written the University College has become a university by virtue of a Royal Charter issued on 2 May 1952, by Queen Elizabeth II.

first year of which is devoted to a compulsory course of lectures common to all students, supplemented by tutorials. This general course includes the study of the heritage of civilization, present-day activities, the methods of the experimental sciences and their influence on everyday life. The last three years of the course are devoted to the special subject selected by the students. Side by side with their studies for the degree, students can qualify themselves as teachers, youth leaders and social workers. The college is a residential one. The Universities of Birmingham, Manchester and Oxford have agreed to sponsor the college. The new college has an advantage over the older university colleges, inasmuch as it has been spared the period of apprenticeship imposed on the latter, which requires them to submit their students for examination by the University of London. Sponsorship by the three older universities is regarded as an effective substitute for apprenticeship to help the new college to maintain university standards, while it will allow greater freedom for the experiment in the general courses which the college is providing for its students. Under the sponsorship scheme, the Academic Council of the college, which has a majority of representatives of the three universities, approves the appointments to the higher teaching posts and of external examiners for the degree examinations. These representatives are also expected to spend some time in residence at the college each year, so that they can keep a vigilant eye on its progress and development.

Trinity College, Dublin, and the University of Dublin are so intimately bound up with each other that they are

often regarded as identical, though the fact is otherwise. Thus, the professors are appointed by the University of Dublin, but their salaries are paid by Trinity College, Dublin. The examinations are conducted by the college, but the degrees are conferred by the university. The college board controls the finances and, strangely enough, it has the final word in the sanctioning of the syllabuses, which are framed by the Academic Council of the university. The college board is really the governing body of the university, and it consists of the Provost, seven senior fellows, two junior fellows and two representatives of professors who are not fellows. The college fellows hold life appointments. The college tutors are the moral guides of the students rather than supervisors of studies. Although Trinity College was originally conceived in the spirit of the Cambridge tradition, it has made attendance at lectures compulsory for its students. One may well say that the college is the substance and the university is its shadow. Perhaps the position would have been reversed if more colleges had come into existence, as contemplated by the founders of the university.

The National University of Ireland is a federal university, resembling the University of Wales in several of its features, with three constituent colleges, namely, the University Colleges of Dublin, Cork and Galway and one recognized college, St Patrick's College, Maynooth. The university was founded by the Irish Universities Act, 1908. The three constituent colleges were also founded by charters in connexion with the Act of 1908. The Senate is the

governing body of the university and consists of the Chancellor, the Presidents of the constituent colleges, the Registrar, four members (including one woman) nominated by the Government, six members elected by University College, Dublin, four each by the University Colleges of Cork and Galway, eight elected by Convocation, and four co-opted members. The Chancellor is the head of the university and the Vice-Chancellor is its chief executive officer. The Senate grants degrees on the results of the examinations held in the colleges and awards them at meetings of the university held in the respective colleges. The university gets an annual grant from the Government. Its only other source of income is examination fees.

All questions which arise before the Senate in connexion with university studies and examinations have to be referred to the General Board of Studies for their opinion in the first instance. The university has no teaching staff, apart from the teaching staffs of the constituent colleges, as all the teaching is done in these colleges. The examinations for degrees, too, are held separately in each college and conducted by the same set of external examiners in association with the teachers of the respective college. Only the Matriculation and the Travelling Studentship examinations are held by the university for all the colleges.

The Governing Body of a constituent college manages and controls all the affairs of the college subject to the provisions of the Irish Universities Act, 1908, the university charter and the charters of the colleges. The Senate appoints the presidents, professors and lecturers of the

constituent colleges, the Senate being bound to make the appointment of the professors or lecturers from among the candidates selected by the Governing Body of the college. The Governing Body of the college itself makes the other minor teaching appointments. Each college has an Academic Council and the courses of study which are, in the first instance, drafted by the relevant faculty of the college and approved by its Academic Council and Governing Body must be submitted to the General Board of Studies of the university for consideration as to suitability and uniformity of standard. The courses, with the report of the General Board of Studies, are submitted to the Senate for final approval. There is no tutorial system in the colleges, lectures being the main method of instruction. Attendance at lectures is compulsory. The students have their own societies and clubs. These and the hostels provide facilities for a corporate life. No religious instruction is given in the colleges and no chapels are attached to them.

Chapter XIV

THE EFFECTS OF WORLD WAR II

The British universities have not yet recovered fully from the harmful effects of the Second World War, in spite of the strenuous efforts they have made, and are still making, to return to normal conditions. Apart from the irreparable loss of human life which affected the strength of their teaching staffs and student population during the war years, the serious dislocation of academic work which was inevitable on account of the strain and stress of the war and the makeshift arrangements which the University of London and its schools and colleges, in particular, had to resort to on the outbreak of the war, the damage suffered by the British universities is being slowly repaired. London, Bristol and Liverpool were the three universities which suffered the most serious damage from air raids, and their buildings, laboratories and libraries, which were partially or completely destroyed by bombing, are being rebuilt or replaced at considerable expense. It will still take some years to restore the physical damage alone. In the meantime, the enormous growth of student numbers and the normal expansion of the activities of these and other British universities have increased the difficulties of the problem of accommodation.

From the point of view of the universities themselves and university education generally in Great Britain, and taking a long view of things, it may be said, however, that

the war was not an unmixed evil. The contribution made by them to the winning of the war helped the universities to acquire a position of influence and esteem in the life of the British people. The war brought them into contact with the public and with government departments in a way that made the latter realize the important part universities can play in a national emergency. The result has been to awaken a new interest in the public mind in relation to the universities, which cannot but be of mutual benefit. It is now fully realized that the universities have a valuable contribution to make to national life and welfare, both in war and in peace time, and that the nation, in its turn, owes a duty to the universities to support them.

On the outbreak of the war, it was only to be expected that all national activity should be directed towards the achievement of the main objective, namely, the successful prosecution of the war, which involved the maintenance of the essential services at all costs. The British Government found it necessary to requisition a number of university and college buildings in London, Oxford, Cambridge and elsewhere for its war activities. The main buildings of the University of London, in Bloomsbury, were thus taken over for locating the headquarters of the Ministry of Information. As a measure of safety, too, the London colleges and schools had to be dispersed in the provinces. The result was that the several institutions of the university were separated from one another, and even single colleges, like University College and King's College, London, had to be split up into sections and parcelled out among different

receiving areas. This could not but mean considerable dislocation both in the community life of the students and in administration. The requisitioned buildings were restored to the respective universities as soon as possible after the termination of the war.

Although there was no immediate fall in the number of students on the outbreak of war, by 1940-1 the number of full-time men students had decreased from 50,000 to 37,000, and it decreased further to 35,500 in 1943-4. The largest fall in numbers was in the Faculty of Arts, where there was a big drop from 15,000 to 3,500. There was, however, a rise of about 13 per cent in the total number of women students. The teaching staff was, at the same time, reduced to a very appreciable extent. Thus, only about 68 per cent of the full-time teachers were found continuing in their posts in 1944.¹

It was inevitable that the quality and standards of academic work should suffer on account of the conditions under which it had to be carried on at the universities both by the teachers and the students. Over and above the additional burden of teaching and administrative duties which the teachers who remained behind were obliged to assume, in the absence of their colleagues who had been called up either for active field service, or for filling many of the numerous war-time jobs where their expert knowledge was found to be useful, they had new responsibilities thrown upon them. Some of them were required to assist in organizing adult education in the forces. Others were called upon

¹ *Report of the University Grants Committee* (1948), pp. 17, 18.

to teach the large number of army and air force cadets who attended special courses at the universities. They had practically no vacation, as a fourth summer term, either for all students or for those taking special classes, was added to the academic year. The students, too, had to be content with shortened courses into which their studies were compressed.

Those students who had to migrate to the provinces found themselves in unfamiliar surroundings, which it took them some time to get accustomed to. There was a shortage of accommodation on account of the requisitioning of university and college buildings, and also a shortage of laboratory equipment and chemicals. Before the end of the war fundamental research in science was at a very low ebb. The universities had to carry on somehow with their crippled resources in men and materials. Fortunately for them, they continued to receive the recurring grant from the Treasury without any reduction. The loss of income from students' fees, resulting from the decrease in the number of students, was more than compensated by the savings in expenditure on the salaries and superannuation of the teaching staff, and by the reduction in library expenditure. The universities also benefited by the emergency legislation which authorized them to divert to general purposes their income from trust funds which could not be applied to the purposes of the trusts on account of the conditions created by the war. The fairly satisfactory financial position of the universities, which was due to a combination of these various causes, was the silver lining in the dark war-cloud.

Out of evil cometh good. While the losses in men and materials, the dislocation of normal academic work and the deterioration in its quality resulting directly from the war, are to be deplored, it must be acknowledged that the universities derived certain indirect, lasting benefits from the war. One of these has already been mentioned, namely, the recognition by the public of the value of the contribution of the universities to national life. Long before the last war, the British universities had established contacts with the outside world through their extra-mural activities conducted in collaboration with the Workers' Educational Association and other bodies interested in the spread of adult education. University extension lectures had been organized by the University of Cambridge as far back as in 1873, and the university extension movement had gone on gathering force ever since.¹ The war created for the universities new contacts: with government departments, public bodies and the fighting forces, all of whom were engaged in a life-and-death struggle to save the country from destruction. The universities offered their fullest co-operation in the war effort by supplying not only officers and men for the fighting forces but also men and women trained in science, technology and medicine, equally necessary for the successful prosecution of a highly mechanized war. They also rendered invaluable help in the speedy training and recruitment of officers and technical staff. The university man figured prominently in almost every department of war-time activity. The teachers and students who thus established

¹ See ch. VIII.

various external contacts had exceptional opportunities of widening their mental horizons, which was a distinct gain not only to the individuals concerned but to university life as a whole, for many of them, on their return to the universities later, were able to give to their students and co-workers the benefit of the wider experience acquired by them outside.

The dispersal of the schools and colleges of the University of London in the different provincial institutions, while it dislocated the normal academic life of students and teachers alike by transplanting them to unfamiliar surroundings, was not without its compensating features. The new experience of being obliged to adapt themselves to altered conditions of life had a stimulating effect on their minds and character, and they gained immensely by the contacts they established with the students and teachers of the institutions which played host to them. Some of those who had the good fortune of migrating to Oxford and Cambridge had the additional advantage of enjoying the benefits of corporate living in a residential university. Many of the evacuated students also benefited in their health as a result of the avoidance of the long daily journeys incidental to student life in London.

War is known to be a great leveller of social inequalities. Since it demands equality of sacrifice from all, irrespective of their social or economic standing, it follows that all who make such sacrifice are entitled to expect equality of treatment, not only while the war is in progress but even after it has come to an end and the country has settled down to

peace-time conditions. The British Government was neither unwilling nor slow to recognize the claims of those who had risked their lives when the call came to them to fight for their country which was in danger. It felt itself bound in honour and justice to provide ample opportunities to the young men who returned to civilian life at the close of the war to continue, or prosecute, their studies at the universities by granting adequate allowances to them and their dependants until the completion of the courses selected by them. The influx into the universities, in this manner, of a large number of ex-servicemen belonging to widely differing strata of society was responsible for bringing about a larger measure of social and educational equality than was prevalent before the war. The free mixing of students belonging to aristocratic and well-to-do families with those coming from poorer homes has removed all traces of social snobbery from university life, even in Oxford and Cambridge, which were once looked upon as the close preserves of a small and privileged class.

Chapter XV

CONCLUSION

Despite dissimilarities in their constitutions or methods of work, the universities of the United Kingdom are at one in their keen desire to retain their autonomy and guard it against encroachment by external authority, be it the State or a local authority. They are realistic enough to maintain contacts with outside bodies to the extent that such contacts are of mutual benefit, but resent outside interference in their internal administration. Depending, as they do, on the liberal grants made by the State Treasury for their upkeep and expansion, they will not willingly allow their academic policies to be dictated by considerations which are other than academic. Laymen who are associated with university administration prefer to leave the internal government, especially in academic matters, to teachers and administrators, who are naturally best qualified to look after it. While welcoming the advice of non-academic persons on financial questions, the universities prefer to keep the direction of academic policies and the execution of academic programmes in the hands of their own teachers. The academic bodies have, therefore, the determining voice where teaching and research are concerned.

The teacher holds a very important place in the university framework. He is the keystone of the educational arch. He enjoys a high status not only within the university but

also outside it, and it is considered to be the duty of the State and of society to enable him to maintain this status by providing him with the wherewithal for leading a life of comparative security and leisure. The universities see to it that their teachers receive salaries comparable to the income of persons of the same intellectual calibre and attainments, holding responsible positions in government and other public services, so that able men and women are attracted to the teaching profession and, once in it, will give all their available time to teaching and research, and not engage in the pursuit of wordly gain by undertaking work not connected with their legitimate duties. No doubt, this has been made possible by the large subsidies that universities receive from the State through the University Grants Committee. Conditions in India, at the present time, are different, but it is hoped that they will improve as a result of the recommendations of the University Education Commission, though it may take a long time for all the Indian universities to give effect to the higher scales of salary proposed by the Commission without adequate financial assistance from the Government.

Even a casual visit to any of the British universities is enough to impress one with the amenities and advantages which the students of those universities enjoy, whether in the shape of spacious and attractive halls of residence, cheap afternoon meals in refectories or facilities for recreation as well as study. The students' union occupies an important place in a British university, and the conveniences, comforts and opportunities for social and cultural contacts

with their fellow-students available there add not a little to the charm of student life, and help in enlarging the student's interests and moulding his character by providing him with a microcosm of his own where he can train himself to become a useful citizen. This aspect of university life deserves greater attention from the Indian universities.

One other feature of the British universities which impresses a visitor from India is the valuable work done by their Appointments Boards in assisting their alumni to secure suitable remunerative employment when they pass out of the universities. These Boards, composed, as they generally are, of university men and persons connected with business, commerce and industry, are most useful, inasmuch as they establish fruitful contacts between universities and the outside world, apart from the benefit they confer on the students by giving them a good start in life. Very few universities in India have established Appointments Boards so far, even though the need for such Boards is, perhaps, far greater in India than in the United Kingdom.

The extra-mural activities of British universities, especially those which are carried on with the co-operation of the Workers' Educational Association, are popular with the working class population, who take the fullest advantage of them. Such activities, by carrying the benefit of instruction in cultural studies to the homes of the workers, enable them to share in the intellectual life of the nation which would otherwise be denied to them. They also have the effect of making the farmer, the factory worker and the ordinary citizen who has not had the benefit of a university education

feel that universities are institutions which have a role to play in the life of the nation, other than that of merely training leaders of society and professional men and women. In a democratic age like ours such a feeling is bound to have far-reaching consequences on the growth and development of universities, which are obliged to depend more and more on the tax-payer's generosity.

In the universities of the United Kingdom examinations occupy a comparatively minor place in the scheme of training. The weeding out of the unfit takes place at a much earlier stage than the close of the student's university career. Success in life does not depend much on success in an examination, and failure is not a bogey to the British student. The employer attaches far greater importance to an all-round training at college or university, which has gone to the building up of the character, mind and body of his prospective employee, than to the letters he adds to his name. Consequently, healthy outdoor exercise, sports and games and various other kinds of corporate activity occupy a very important place in the student's training. If the Indian employer were to adopt the same criterion, the Indian student, too, would not take long to assess examinations at their proper value, and would pay more attention to the actual training he received at the university than to success in examinations. Here, it may be pointed out that, notwithstanding the fact that medical examination and physical training are not obligatory, students in British universities take full advantage of the machinery provided for the checking-up and improvement of their health and physique. By

nature and habit they are are fond of outdoor life and games, unlike the average Indian student. Besides, even if an individual student is averse to physical training, he has to undergo military training under the National Service Act. In the absence of a similar measure in India, compulsory physical training appears to be the only possible alternative in India for the present.

The British universities differ from those on the Continent of Europe in the variety of their methods of approach to the education of their youth. There is a richness in this diversity which is unique. Even though their products may differ in the nature of their training, so long as that training is on essentially sound lines, and the objective of university education is not lost sight of, it matters little that the graduate of Manchester or Birmingham has not been brought up in the traditions of Oxford or Cambridge.

Life itself is so varied and complex that it would be wrong to assume that a uniform type of university-trained men and women is required for filling all stations in the life of the nation. Different qualities and varied training are called for, and it would definitely be a loss rather than a gain to the national economy if all the universities were to produce the same type of graduate. Further, university education cannot be said to have hit upon a pattern which is incapable of further improvement. Conditions in the world are changing fast, and ideas and ideals of university education must change with them. Cardinal Newman's idea of a university cannot hold good for all time, though there is a great deal to be said for it even in our own day.

No one can assert that the Oxbridge pattern is the acme of perfection in university education, or that the Redbrick universities are better suited to our age. Each type has its advantages and its drawbacks, and new experiments and adaptations will always be necessary, if education is not to become a routine, mechanical process but always to remain a dynamic force. So long as life, with its myriad facets, continues to evolve into something higher, better and more satisfying than it has been before, so long will there be scope for experiment in educational method and practice. While, therefore, it is gratifying to find that individual British universities are trying to improve their methods of training in the light of what their sister universities are doing, it would be unfortunate for university education, if they all were to attempt to conform to one common pattern, forgetting history, tradition, surroundings and everything that gives them their individuality. Each university must develop according to its own genius, though it may, and should, copy the best to be found in another university in so far as the features which it adopts can be easily assimilated and will not make it deviate from its primary function. Thus, it would not do for the civic universities to concentrate on the humanities and the pure sciences when they are better fitted to provide training in technology and in social studies on account of their contiguity to the great manufacturing and industrial cities and towns. Similarly, Cambridge would be well-advised not to undertake a programme of technological education on the same scale as Manchester or

Birmingham, in the absence of factories and workshops in its neighbourhood.

If there is one feature of the British universities more than another that attracts the attention of the visitor from India, it is the generous scale on which they receive financial assistance from the State by way of both recurring and non-recurring grants. Wherever he goes, the visitor finds new buildings coming up, old laboratories being extended and new ones designed, libraries being enlarged and more accommodation being provided for students' unions. Even during the difficult years of the last World War, when the whole of the nation's financial resources were directed to the winning of the war, on which its very existence depended, no reduction was made in the annual grant to the universities. The anxiety of the State to supply the universities with the funds required by them for carrying on their normal activities and meeting their ever-increasing needs can be attributed to two main reasons. One is that the State is keenly alive to the importance of the role they play in the life of the nation, which was forcibly brought home to the Government and the country during the dark days of the last War. The other is that the University Grants Committee acquaints the Government with the needs of the universities, presses their just and reasonable claims upon its attention and acts as an intermediary between the State and the universities, enjoying the confidence of both parties. The future progress of the British universities is largely dependent upon the policy which will be followed by the University Grants Committee in the allocation of the Treasury Grant placed

at its disposal. The constitution of that Committee and the healthy conventions which it has established in the matter of the distribution of grants are a guarantee that, while the universities may expect to receive larger and larger grants, *their autonomy will remain unimpaired.* The Indian universities would benefit a great deal if a University Grants Committee were established by the Government of India on the model of the University Grants Committee of the United Kingdom, with a full-time chairman, an adequate secretariat and a personnel including experienced university administrators and educationists representing important branches of knowledge.

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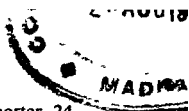
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