STATISTICS

OF

THE EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS OF THE EAST INDIA COMPANY IN INDIA.

By Colonel SYKES, F.R.S.

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The Government educational institutions in India date comparatively from so recent a period, that the most ancient amongst them (with the exception of the Sanscrit College at Benares), the Hindoo College at Calcutta, was only in its 28th year in 1844; and very many of them are only of two or three years' standing. A gradual progress, however, is manifest, both in the number and character of these institutions: and though the time is far—very far—distant when they will be commensurate with the wants of the people, yet a perseverance in the benevolent and politic activity, which has evidently been strengthening of late years, will ultimately fully realize, there can be little doubt, the objects contemplated—a healthy, moral, and intellectual standard in the native mind, and a bond of union between the governors and governed, by sympathies and tastes in common, derived from a common knowledge. For some time much embarrassment was experienced by the Bengal Government, and the progress of education was retarded, by the conflicting opinions of able and zealous partisans of the respective advantages of teaching the natives of India the science and literature of Europe through the medium of the English language or through the medium of the vernaculars. The English system obtained at first, and held its ground from the want of vernacular class-books; but latterly various translations of English scientific and literary works have been made, and are making; and it will be observed that most of the schools have now an English and Oriental department, in which, to a certain extent, both systems can be pursued.

The following details are derived from the official reports of the several Boards of Education to their respective Governments from the years 1835–6 to 1843–4 inclusive; and I shall notice these reports in the order in which the Presidencies in India are usually ranked, namely: Bengal (including the North-west Provinces or Agra Government), Madras, and Bombay. I must premise that the earlier reports are comparatively meagre; I shall prominently notice, therefore, the Bengal reports, which embrace 1842–3 and 1843–4, and those from Bombay, which come down to 1841 and 1842, and must confine myself to that from Madras for the year 1843, which was its second report.

Bengal.—All the educational institutions under the Bengal Presidency, including the Agra Government, up to the 30th April, 1843, were under

a general committee of public instruction sitting in Calcutta. At that date it was thought expedient that the institutions should be brought more directly under the control of the Government itself; the general committee was abolished; the institutions in the North-west Provinces were separated from those in Bengal and placed under the Lieutenant-Governor of those provinces. A Council of Education was established in Calcutta for the immediate superintendence of the colleges and schools at Calcutta and Hoogly, and to aid and advise the Government; but the whole of the institutions, both in the Bengal and Agra Governments, were directed to address their reports to the Government of India in the general department. The only report, however, received from the North-west Provinces since the separation relates to financial matters; my details, therefore, for 1842–3 will relate to the condition of the institutions of both Governments, while for 1843–4 they will be confined to the Bengal Presidency.

The Council of Education, on the 30th April, 1842, consisted of the President of the Indian Law Commission, the Indian Law Commissioner, the Secretary to Government of Bengal, the Secretary to the Indian Law Commission, the Superintendent of the Eye Infirmary, two Hindoo gentlemen, and the Secretary to the Council.

The institutions under the inspection of the Council on 30th April, 1843, consisted of 6 in Calcutta, namely, the Hindoo College and auxiliary Patsala, School Society's School, Medical College, Mahomedan Madressa, and the Sanscrit College; at Hoogly there were 5, namely, College of Mahomed Mohsin, Hoogly Branch School, Hoogly Infant School, Seetapoor School, and Ummerpoor School. In the provinces under Bengal there were 25, namely, Bancoorah Probational School, Jessore School, Dacca College, Commillah School, Chittagong School, Bauleah School, Burrisaul Probational School, Sylhet Probational School, Cuttack School, Midnapoor School, Gowhatty School; Gowhatty branch schools at Nilachol, Panda, Beltulla, Amingong, and North Gowhatty; Seebsaugor School, Akyab School, Ramree School, Moulmein School, Tavoy and Mergui branch schools, Patna School, Bhaugulpoor School, and Bhaugulpoor-hill School. In the North-western Provinces there were 15, namely, Benares Sanscrit College, Benares English Seminary, Benares Branch School, Ghazepoor School, Allahabad School, Saugor School, Jubbulpoor School, Azimghur School, Goruckpoor School, Agra College, Delhi College, Bareilly School, Meerut School, Furrackabad School, and Ajmere School. The total number of educational institutions under the Bengal Presidency amounted therefore to 51 for a population of more than 70 millions of souls.

The period embraced in the first report, which I shall more particularly notice than its predecessors, although I will endeavour to give a view of the annual progression of the institutions, is from the 30th April, 1842, to the 30th April, 1843, and the second report is from the 1st May, 1843, to the 30th April, 1844.

Vernaculars.—The vernacular languages taught in the respective schools, according to the part of the country in which they are located, would appear to be Oordoo, Hindee, Bengali, Oorya, Mug, and Burmese.

The Council superintend personally the institutions at Calcutta and Hoogly, and did regulate the others through local committees; but

Government has now taken the direct control into its own hands. Nevertheless, the Council feel it to be their duty to state their full conviction that, "unless a minister of public instruction, with properly qualified inspectors, or a council, with secretary and inspectors, be appointed, the duties of the general educational department cannot be fully or uniformly provided for." Of the justness of these observations no reflective person can doubt.

The colleges are divided into two departments—the junior or elementary, and the senior; each department is composed of classes, the studies of which are graduated. When the pupils of any class are too numerous for one master, it is subdivided into sections. No class or section of a class consists of more than 40 scholars in the junior department; and in the senior department, of not more than 30 scholars. Masters are selected at public examinations, and assistant teachers are chosen from those pupils who have distinguished themselves in the colleges and schools. But the educational system in Bengal labours under the disadvantage of the want of normal schools, and an organized system of inspection or examination, or even adequate local superintendence, in regard to teachers after appointment.

The several colleges and institutions are respectively supplied with European and native masters and tutors in furtherance of the specific objects contemplated in each foundation; and inducements are held out for the acquisition of the higher branches of knowledge by the foundation of scholarships of different values, tenable for a greater or less length of time. And the Council make it a condition with the candidates for these scholarships that they shall be thoroughly versed in the vernacular on their becoming candidates, on the ground that they would otherwise be unable to communicate to their countrymen the knowledge they had derived from European sources. This is a highly politic resolution. Proofs are already afforded of the interest the native nobility and gentry take in the instruction of their countrymen in Bengal, Madras, and Bombay, by their munificent donations in aid of educational institutions. In 1840–41, the Raja of Burdwan gave 25,000 rupees for the general purposes of education. The Bengal report for 1842 mentions a donation of 20,000 rupees by Raja Bijai Govind Sing for the same object. Dwarkanath Tagore gave 2000 rupees for prizes in the Medical College; Rustumjee Cowajee also gave a sum for prizes; and others founded scholarships. In Bombay, the magnificent foundations of the Elphinstone Institution, and Medical College and Hospital, show the bent of the native mind there. Annexed is a return of the scholarships gained in 1843–4, and available for 1844–5, showing the inducements held out:—

TABLE I.—*Balance of Scholarships in the Bengal Presidency, which appeared in the General Report of* 1842—43, *and those gained in the year* 1843—44, *also the Scholarships available for* 1844—45.

Colleges and Schools.	Balance in the Report of 1842—43.				Gained in 1843—44.				Available for 1844—45.			
	English.		Oriental.		English.		Oriental.		English.		Oriental.	
	Junior.	Senior.	Junior.	Senior.	Junior.	Senior.	Junior.	Senior.	Junior.	Senior.	Junior.	Senior.
Calcutta :—												
Sanscrit College . .	..	..	3	6	..	..	3	5	..	..	..	1
Scholarships open to public competition in the Sanscrit College	..	..	1	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1
Hindoo College . .	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..*
Madressa College . .	3	3	..	1	..	..	..	..	3	3	..	1
Scholarships open to public competition in the Madressa College	1	1	..	1	..	..	..	1	1	1	..	..
Hoogly College of Mohammud Mohsin . . .	..	1	5	2	..	1	5	..	..	..	..	2
Mohammud Mohsin's Scholarships . . .	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..†
Scholarships open to public competition in the College of Mohammud Mohsin .	..	1	1	1	..	1	1	..	..	..	..	1
Hoogly Branch School in the College of Mohammud Mohsin .	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..
Seetapore School ditto ditto	1	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	1	..
Ummerpore School ditto ditto	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..
Arracan :—												
Ramree School in the Hindoo College . .	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..
Tenasserim Provinces :—												
Moulmein School ditto ditto	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..
Mergui School ditto ditto	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..
Probational :—												
Bancoorah School in the College of Mohammud Mohsin . . .	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..
Midnapore School ditto ditto	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..*
Cuttack School ditto ditto	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..
Dacca :—												
Central College . .	..	7	..	..	..	4	..	..	..	3	..	..
Scholarships open to public competition in the Dacca College .	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..
Carried forward. .	11	14	12	12	..	6	9	6	12	8	3	6

* Gained in 1841—42.

† Gained in 1842—43.

Table I.—*Balance of Scholarships, &c.*—continued.

Colleges and Schools.	Balance in the Report of 1842—43.				Gained in 1843—44.				Available for 1844—45.			
	English.		Oriental.		English.		Oriental.		English.		Oriental.	
	Junior.	Senior.	Junior.	Senior.	Junior.	Senior.	Junior.	Senior.	Junior.	Senior.	Junior.	Senior.
Brought forward .	11	14	12	12	..	6	9	6	12	8	3	6
Probational :—												
Sylhet School in the Dacca College . .	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..
Burrisaul School ditto ditto	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..
Jessore College in the Dacca College . .	..	..	..	..	1*	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Gowahatty School ditto ditto	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..
Seebsaugor School ditto ditto	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..
Bauliah School ditto ditto	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..†
Commillah School ditto ditto	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..†
Chittagong School ditto ditto	1	..	..	..	2*	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Patna School . . .	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..†
Bhaugulpore School .	1	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Total . . .	17	14	12	12	4	6	9	6	16	8	3	6

* One additional Scholarship awarded. † Gained in 1841—42.

From this it would appear that the total number of scholarships gained in 1843–4 in the English department, in the junior class, was 4, and in the senior class 6; and in the junior class of the Oriental Department 9, and in the senior class 6; leaving available for 1844–5, in the junior class of the English department, 15, and in the senior class 8; in the junior Oriental class 3, and senior class 6; making a total of 32 scholarships available for 1844–5. Subsequent tables will show that only 19½ per cent. of the whole of the pupils in the Bengal and Agra Government schools contribute towards their education; and nearly the half of the whole of the paying students is contributed by the Hindoo College and its schools. Under the Agra Government, out of 2,420 students, only 42 pay. At first it was not deemed sufficient that instruction was gratuitous; students were actually bribed to attend the schools by having stipends allotted to them. The impolicy of this measure early manifested itself, and has almost disappeared, and the system of scholarships for the senior and junior classes has been adopted; holding out to those who have attained a prescribed intellectual standard, not only distinction amongst their fellows, but a liberal monthly provision for a period of years. A constant stimulus is thus applied to the industry of all the scholars, emulation is excited, and the prizes are eagerly contended for, in the superior colleges and schools.

The Appendix B to the report for 1842–3 gives lengthened details

of the conditions upon which scholarships are to be obtained and to be held; the qualifications for obtaining the senior and junior English, Arabic, and Sanscrit scholarships; the terms on which they are held; the forms and customs in the examinations, &c. &c. These rules are too long for me to embody in my present paper, and I will limit myself to saying that the annexed examination papers will show that the standard of acquirements for senior scholars is not only very high to ensure success, but the rules prescribe that the scholarships shall be forfeited "if the holders of them do not make a reasonable progress in their studies; and periodical examinations of the scholars are to take place to ascertain the fact."

Independently of classical and scientific instruction, it was proposed to establish a Professorship of the Laws and Regulations; but objections being taken to the proposition, the Advocate-General, Mr. Edwardes Lyall, gave a series or course of gratuitous lectures on jurisprudence in the various forms in which it is administered in the Courts of India. These lectures were attended by the senior classes of the Hindoo and Hoogly Colleges. They were commenced in October, 1843, and were continued in a regular course until February, 1844. At an examination consequent upon these lectures, six of the pupils acquitted themselves with the greatest credit, and it was thought right to award to one of them, Issor Chunder Mitter, a gold medal.

In the examinations in this and other branches of knowledge sufficient precautionary measures appear to be taken to prevent the possibility of inter-communication or collusion, by sending the written questions for scholarship examination to every college to be *opened and answered on a fixed day*. In the report for 1840–41 and 1841–2, the late General Committee state that the former system of examination by local committees was found to be inconvenient (which means, I suppose, ineffective), and in consequence some members of the General Committee and others undertook to draw out sets of questions in each department of study, which were to be answered *without assistance*. "To accomplish this object," says the report, "our secretary was provided with lithographic presses, and after writing out the questions upon the transfer paper, the required number of copies were thrown off *in his presence*, and the lithographic stones forthwith cleaned. These sets of questions were carefully sealed and forwarded so as to be received at all the colleges and schools on the same day. On that day, being the day previously fixed for the examination, the local committee having met agreeably to the instructions given, the examination papers were opened and were distributed to the candidates, who had no previous instruction of the probable subject of the examination, except inasmuch as the questions embraced for the most part the different branches of study they had pursued in the college or school. Each student was placed at a separate desk, so as to make it impossible for him to consult books, and very difficult to communicate with the other competitors. This was further prevented by the presence of one or more of the members of the local committee, who remained in the room during the whole time the students were employed in giving answers to the prescribed questions. At the termination of the day the exercises were collected and sealed up, and the remaining portion of the examination questions were given out the following day, and the same precautions were observed until the

examination was completed." Such being the case, I have no hesitation in expressing my astonishment at the answers of the pupils, which are recorded in the reports, evincing an extent of acquirement and power of mind in some individuals that it might be thought could scarcely have resulted from the prolonged studies of an European university education. I shall append specimens of these questions and answers; and we may fairly begin to doubt whether, in the arena of intellectual combat with some of these natives, educated Europeans might not only fail to prostrate their adversary, but possibly get a fall themselves.

With respect to the nature of the instruction in the vernacular schools, it will be best understood by naming some of the class-books in use, translated into the native languages. For instance, Introduction to Natural Philosophy, Euclid's Elements of Geometry, Elements of Practical Geometry and Trigonometry, with trigonometrical tables, Elements of Political Economy, History of India, Hindoostanee Poetical Reader, History of England, Principles of Government, Principles of Legislation, Principles of the Government Revenue Laws in Bengal, Chambers' Education Course, and History of Rome.

With respect to the English branches of education, the examination papers for senior scholarships will show what studies are prescribed and followed in the highest departments of the colleges and schools.

An enumeration of the establishment of one of the Hindoo and one of the English colleges will give the best idea of the objects, character, and intellectual means of these institutions. The Benares Sanscrit College and the Delhi English College returns being before me, I give them. In the first there are three professors of Sanscrit grammar, with salaries varying from 60 to 30 rupees per mensem; two of poetry, with salaries respectively of 80 and 32 rupees; one of the vedanta, one of logic, one of shankha, one of law, and two of astronomy—each, with the exception of the second astronomer, who gets 32 rupees, receiving 80 rupees per mensem; and one professor of natural philosophy, with a salary of 60 rupees. All these professors or teachers are Brahmins. Persian is also taught by two Hindoos. There is a librarian, an English writer (a native), and assistant secretary, with a salary of 50 rupees monthly, and various servants, water-bearers, sweepers, peons or messengers, &c. The total monthly expense being 1105 rupees, with 396 for scholarships. Twenty-one pupils were paid for their attendance, one receiving 5 rupees and the rest 3 rupees monthly. The scholarships are, four senior at 20 rupees, eight at 15 rupees, and sixteen at 8 rupees monthly.

The Delhi College consists of an English and Oriental department. In the former the principal is F. Bontras, Esq., with a salary of 600 rupees monthly; four European head masters, with salaries varying from 400 to 120 rupees monthly; two native head masters in English; three teachers of the Oordoo language, with salaries varying from 80 to 30 rupees; an European drawing-master, on 100 rupees monthly; writing-master for English, nagree ditto, librarian, servants, &c. In the Oriental department there are five teachers of Arabic, three of Persian, and two of Sanscrit, with salaries varying from 100 to 20 rupees monthly. There are two teachers of European science, a writing and nagree master, an arithmetician, an English writer, treasurer, and librarian (the two last receiving 10 rupees a-month each), servants, &c. The scholarships in the English department are, one at 40 rupees, one

at 30, six at 25, four at 8, four at 6, and thirteen at 4 rupees monthly. In the Oriental department there are twelve scholarships at 18 and 16 rupees, thirty-two at 4 rupees, three senior scholarships at 20 rupees (founded by Nawab Itma-ood-Dowlah), and sixteen junior at 4 rupees monthly; making a total of 92 scholarships. The total monthly grant to the college is 2790 rupees, and 780 rupees for scholarships.

The above details supply a sufficient picture of college establishments, and will render unnecessary systematic remarks upon each college.

The Hindoo College at Calcutta differs only in having a larger establishment than the preceding, there being a principal, nineteen English teachers, seven vernacular teachers; with a superintendent and twelve teachers to the Patsala school attached; the whole cost being 60,065 rupees per annum for 1842–3 for 518 Hindoo pupils in the College, and 252 in the Patsala, nearly the half of the cost being derived from school fees. The cost, therefore, per head was 6½ rupees monthly.

For the information of the Council of Education, the Court of Directors of the India Company transmit from time to time such reports as appear on education, both in England and on the Continent.

As detailed notices of each institution would extend this paper to an inconvenient length, I shall limit my observations to the mention of any characteristic features that may strike me: for instance, in the Sanscrit College at Calcutta the students are all Hindoos, being in fact Brahmins, with a few Boyolyas; almost all of them are in indigent circumstances, and not one of the students pays for his education. Admission to the grammar classes is permitted up to 15 years of age, to the sahitya class up to 18, to the alaokar class up to 20, and to the higher classes up to 22 years of age. Books from the library are allowed to be taken home for study, upon the responsibility of the professors.

The Madressa at Calcutta is devoted to Mahomedans, and most of the scholars receive gratuitous instruction; 42, however, of them paying. It is stated that the Mahomedans generally, and particularly the gentry, are averse to receiving European instruction at public institutions; but this assertion is not borne out by the returns. The subjects of instruction in the first class are history, geometry, algebra, arithmetic, natural philosophy, logic, geography, and grammar; the lower classes have easier matter. All the scholars devote themselves to Arabic, and some learn English.

Medical College.—The Medical College, with auxiliary male and female hospital, exhibits the feature of not having a single paying student. It has its European professors of anatomy and midwifery, surgery, medicine, botany, chemistry, and materia medica, and to the European it presents the unexpected and singular feature of turning out accoucheurs, surgeons, and anatomists from the castes of Brahmins, Bunneas, Bankers, Oilmen, Writer Castes, and Mahomedans, as well as Christians. The natural as well as religious repugnance which must have been overcome in these castes bears strong testimony to the changes that can be effected even in rooted predilections when operated upon through the medium of the understanding. The report for 1844 says, "with regard to the last day's examination on practical anatomy and surgical operations performed on the dead body, it may be stated that several exceedingly neat dissections were made in a very short space of time." The dissections are then enumerated. Now this to

me, with my more than 40 years' knowledge of the natives, does appear a marvellous change. But so strongly is the advantage of surgical skill felt, that a native gentleman of Calcutta, Rustomjee Cowajee, has presented 600 rupees to the College to be devoted to the purchase of an annual gold medal for the most proficient student in practical anatomy. And his letter making the offer (page cxxviii., Report, 1843), is a model of English composition and of enlightened sentiment. Dwarkanath Tagore also had previously given 2000 rupees for prizes. The successful students are appointed sub-assistant surgeons to the several dispensaries, founded by Government or to regimental hospitals. The report mentions 13 dispensaries in 1842–3, and 17 in 1843–4. In the former year 1,391 in-door patients were treated, and 46,766 out-door patients. The whole expense of these dispensaries being 20,958 rupees. The report, dated 1st July, 1843, contains a list of 33 sub-assistant surgeons, the designation of those natives of the highest grade who have passed the College and who have been appointed to stations, and this is independent of 32 native doctors sent to regiments. The half-yearly Report, ending 31st October, 1843, contains a list of 31 sub-assistant surgeons, and 45 native doctors who had passed the College. A females' hospital, capable of accommodating 100 patients, as auxiliary to the College, has been built by subscription with a view to instruction in midwifery. In the male hospital all castes eagerly avail themselves of its advantages; and the Brahmin and the outcaste may be found occupying neighbouring beds in the same wards without repugnance.*

College of Mahomed Mohsin.—The College of Hadjee Mahomed Mohsin at Hoogly, although called after a Mahomedan, its benevolent founder, admits Christians and Hindoos as well as Mahomedans; indeed the Hindoos far prevail over the other two religions, and the expression in the rules of admittance is based on the widest liberality, "that it is open to candidates of every sect or creed willing to conform to the established rules of discipline." It is divided into the English and Mahomedan departments, and in the latter amongst the 14 Mahomedan professors there are singularly enough 3 Shias to the 11 Sunis. The principle of toleration, therefore, is in efficient operation. There are several branch schools attached, and the total number of students in College and schools in 1843 was 1,125, and in 1844 the number was 1,124. The majority of them are free scholars, but in the last year 468 paid for instruction, and the Institution would be overwhelmed with pupils were it not for the stringent conditions of admission. Pupils cannot compete for honorary or pecuniary rewards after 20 years of age. On the opening of the College on the 1st August, 1836, within three days 1,200 candidates enrolled their names, many of them attending from a distance of 6 or 8 miles.

By a statement of Mr. H. P. Bayley, Deputy Secretary to Government, dated 15th February, 1843, the Foundation Funds of this noble Institution were on that day 78,740*l.*!

Dacca College.—To the Dacca College Bapoo Rama Lochun Ghose presented 1,000 rupees, the interest of which is to be given in prizes

* By the Bengal papers of February, the Governor-General, with a view of enabling the Medical College to meet the demands of the service, has increased the stipendiary students of the secondary school to one hundred.

annually; and he proposed giving 3,000 rupees more for the improvement of the vernacular department. The first class of this College had read the History of Rome, selections from Shakspeare, Addison, and Pope; they could sketch maps of part of Europe and Asia; had read the first four books of Euclid, and in Algebra had gone as far as quadratic equations. The rest of their studies was vernacular reading.

Hindoo College.—The Hindoo College was founded by the personal desire and voluntary contributions of the Hindoo gentlemen of Calcutta; it was benefited by their care, and its efficiency was established by the Secretary, Dr. H. H. Wilson, now Professor Wilson. All the students, 498, learn English and Bengalee, and 448 of them pay for their education; and the paying have increased and the non-paying decreased from 100 to 50. The students are all Hindoos. Its capital on the 20th May, 1836, was 21,000 rupees, 291 students paid 1 at 7 rupees, 5 at 6 rupees, and 285 at 5 rupees, and the annual receipts from tuition were 17,544 rupees, and the disbursements 42,600 rupees annually. On the 30th April, 1844, the tuition receipts were 28,981 rupees, and the total receipts, including interest of capital, 30,952 rupees. The disbursements were 56,948 rupees. The College being now part of the public institutions, the difference is paid by Government.

Moorshedabad Nizamut College.—The Moorshedabad Nizamut College is supported entirely out of the Nizamut Deposit Fund, and forms no charge upon the resources of Government. It is divided into two departments, one for the education of the Sahibzadahs or relations of the Nizamut family, and the other for that of persons of respectability, who are admitted at the discretion of the College Committee. The Nawab distributed the prizes to the students in 1844. The annual resources of the Nizamut funds are 1,37,932 rupees. The College cost in building in 1843 the sum of 73,000 rupees, and the annual expenses of the College for that year were 29,104 rupees; but the establishment is fixed at 37,000 rupees. The Governor-General and the Nawab are the patrons. The Governor-General's agent at Moorshedabab is the visitor and president of the College Committee, and has the power of a veto on any measure pending a reference to the Governor-General. The Committee consists of the English Judge and Collector, the Nawab and one of his relatives, also the native Dewan or Minister, and Captain Showers. On leaving, a student for superior moral conduct gets an exhibition of 100 rupees. For good conduct in the senior class a horse is given. In the junior class an English saddle, or a gun, foils, &c. Corporal punishment is not permitted; but offenders are debarred from their amusement or exercise. The relatives of the Nizamut family are to have separate seats and separate classes: they cannot enter after 12, nor before 7 years of age. There are 3 English, 3 Arabic, 3 Persian, 3 Bengalee, and 3 Oordoo Scholarships at 60 rupees per mensem, tenable for 3 years. The College is governed by an English principal; but the Ataleeg, who is to be a Shia, is the custos morum and resident guardian (under the principal and visitor) of the students of the Nizamut family. There is a library within the walls.

Bhagulpoor Hill School.—The Bhagulpoor Hill School was established to improve the moral character of the rude tribes of these hills. It has been eminently successful, although it had to contend with the

difficulty of the people having a language of their own, and having to teach them Hindee. Drunkenness, which was formerly a vice of those Hill people, is fast disappearing. A regiment of Hill Rangers being raised from amidst the people; the sepoys take great pride in the knowledge their children and themselves derive from the school. In 1843 neither Hindoo nor Moosulman were amongst the pupils—the people belonging to the low castes; but in 1844, 6 Mohamedans and 16 Hindoos were admitted. Seventy of the pupils were learning English.

North-west Provinces.—Returns not having been received from the North-west Provinces since 1843, the number of scholars can only be given for that year.

Agra Government Institutions.—The observations which have been made on the Institutions under the Bengal Government apply to those under the Agra Presidency, and it will be superfluous to particularize. The Institutions which were placed under the general supervision of the Agra Government on the 30th April, 1843, are under the immediate control of the local committees, generally consisting of the chief civil officers at the stations. The instruction is almost universally gratuitous, only 42 students paying, and the system of scholarships obtains. The following are the sums allotted to each Institution :—

TABLE II.

Name of Institutions.	Monthly Amount of Establishment and Contingencies.	Amount appropriated for Scholarships and Stipend.
Benares :—	Rupees.	Rupees.
Sanscrit College	1,105	396
English ditto	1,100	242
Branch School	363	8
Ghazeepore School	662	16
Allahabad ditto	738	94
Saugor ditto	548	8
Jubbulpore ditto	365	8
Azimghur ditto	132	8
Goruckpore ditto	303	8
Agra College	2,208	656
Delhi ditto	2,790	780
Bareilly School	516	8
Furruckabad ditto	518	8
Meerut ditto	471	8
Per Mensem . . .	11,819	2,248
Annually	1,68,804	26,976

In the Agra College the Rajah of Bhurtpoor founded a scholarship, and Mr. C. Grant gave a monthly donation for one year to be awarded in prizes.

The Ajmere School had entirely failed, and was abolished on the 1st January, 1843, owing to the low estimation in which it was held by the classes for whom it was intended.

Village Schools.—Previously to any comment on the annexed tables, it would appear desirable to say a few words in regard to the omission

of village schools in the reports of the General Committee. Mr. Adams investigated the state of indigenous education in Bengal and Behar, and made three reports on the subject. These reports came under the consideration of the General Committee in 1838–39. Mr. Adams strongly advocated the establishment of village schools on the ground of the very small proportion of the native children, male and female, capable of receiving instruction, receiving, in fact, any kind of education whatever; he showed by a census of the city of Moorshedabad, taken with minute accuracy, and of a Thanah in each of the districts of Burdwan, Beerbhoom, Behar, and Tirhoot, that there were taught only—

In the city of Moorshedabad . . .	8·3 per cent.
In a Thanah of the district . . .	6·05 ,,
Ditto Beerbhoom	8·1 ,,
Ditto Burdwan	16·05 ,,
Ditto Behar	5·8 ,,
Ditto Tirhoot	2·5 ,,

of the whole number of children capable of receiving instruction. This is certainly a melancholy picture of the general literary ignorance which prevailed, and Mr. Adams, with a view to ameliorate such a state of things, proposed to make the then existing schools the nuclei for the extension of village instruction. For this purpose he drew up a code of regulations to embrace an educational survey, division into districts, each with a native agent and examiner of teachers and scholars; supply of four class books, globes for the village teachers, an English school with its vernacular department in each district, to *be expanded into a normal school* for the improvement of the rural teachers who may *casually be able to attend.* Pupils who have passed Class-book No. 1, to be received into the English school, and there have pecuniary support; local native committees to watch over village masters, and an inspector to be appointed for five districts. Such are the outlines of Mr. Adams's proposition; and, if I understand him aright, that the village schoolmasters were *first to teach themselves* the 4 class-books placed in their hands before they could teach their pupils, his plan involved the elements of probable inefficiency. The General Committee expressed a fear that the "execution of the plan would be almost impracticable." Nevertheless, they very considerately consented to try the experiment upon about 20 rural schools not far from Calcutta, where they could be looked after. The Committee then gave details, going back as far as 1814, of the unsatisfactory results attending the attempts of various European individuals as well as themselves to establish village schools at Ajmere, Chinsurah (where there were 36 at one time), Dacca, Saugor, and Bhaugulpoor; in the end almost the whole of them declined, and were discontinued. From the reports of 1838–9 and 1839–40 I do not discover whether the Government sanctioned the experiment acquiesced in by the General Committee. For myself, I cannot see why village schools should fail more than the schools progressing under the General Committee, provided the masters were competent, and a vigilant system of examinations and inspection obtained. But without normal schools for the formation of masters, little good could be looked for from any attempts to promote village instruction, and I do not perceive that such normal schools are even yet established in Bengal.

It was my wish to have given a clear view of the progress of the

educational institutions from an early period of the General Committee's reports down to the present time, and I went over the several annual reports for that purpose, tabulating the facts I was desirous of recording; but whether owing to changes effected in the institutions themselves, to alterations in the views of the General Committee, or to neglect of system, I early found the object I contemplated could not be realized; nevertheless, as some good would result from a tabulated statement I persevered in my extracts, and the following table is the result of my labours. It will be seen that for the years 1835–6 and 1836–7 I obtained the number of the institutions, the number of the students learning the several classical languages (but no mention is made of the vernaculars), the total number of students, and, for the year 1836–7, the total disbursements. In May, 1836, the stipendiary students were 656, receiving monthly 2,154 rupees, and in April, 1837, the number was reduced to 498, and the stipends amounted to 1,612 rupees per mensem. In the year 1837–8 the altered form of the report gave the total number of masters, institutions (distinguishing their character), the total number of students, the total disbursements, and the total sum that had been received from Government up to that period for educational purposes; but the students are not, as in the preceding two years, classed under the separate languages they learn. A characteristic of this year's report is a note of Mr. H. T. Prinsep dissenting from the opinions of his colleagues, and insisting that *practically* the vernacular classes in the schools have been abolished. In the year 1838–9 the returns differ from the preceding years to the extent of showing in addition whether the masters are English, Pundits, or Moulavies. It has also appended to it a map of India, showing the location of the schools. The report for 1839–40, although very bulky, containing, with Appendix, 350 pages, contains no abstract of the state of the schools, and leaves, therefore, all the columns of my table blank, excepting those of the total number of schools and scholars and disbursements. The balance sheet is also found in this year. It gives, however, a table showing the employment of some of the students who have passed the colleges and schools, which is annexed.

Note.—While this paper was going through the press, the Bengal Journals of February were received, containing the address of the Governor-General, Sir Henry Hardinge, on the occasion of the annual examinations at the Hindoo College for the award of scholarships. The address contains the following passage:—

"The Government is deeply sensible of the inestimable value of education; and besides another college at Patna since last autumn; arrangements have been made for the establishment in Bengal of 100 schools for instruction in the vernacular."

TABLE III.—*Of Educational Institutions, Teachers, Students, Disbursements, &c., in successive Years, under the Bengal and Agra Governments.*

		Institutions.				Teachers.				Students in										
	Number.	Anglo Vernacular.	Sanscrit.	Arabic.	Persian and Vernacular.	Professors and Masters.	Pundits.	Moulavies, &c.	Total Teachers.	English.	Sanscrit.	Arabic.	Persian.	Oordoo.	Hindee.	Bengalee.	Ooreah.	Mug.	Burmese.	Total Students.
1835-6	23	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1818	473	218	376	..	..	..	..	..	..	3573
1836-7	30	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	3511	381	256	385	..	..	..	..	..	..	4654
1837-8	38	32	4	4	12	..	..	..	170	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	5196
1838-9	38	38	4	4	15	118	61	54	233	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	5727
†1839-40	50	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	6550
*1840-41	51	..	..	..	..	79	192†	..	271	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	7324
*1841-2	51	..	..	..	..	87	233†	..	320	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	7391
1842-3	51	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	5132	426	572	706	1504	1819	2718	142	87	59	8203
‡1843-4	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	3953	180	371	180	359	931	2956	96	73	71	5570

	Disbursements.	Students.			Religion of Students.				Remarks.
		Non-Paying.	Paying.	Amount.	Christians.	Mahomedans.	Hindoos.	Other Classes.	
	Rs. Ar. Pia.			Rs. An. P.					
1835-6	..	..	..	. .	..	..	..	..	40 students in Mahratta not included.
1836-7	3,55,195 10 5	..	..	. .	..	..	..	..	The reports do not mention the number learning the vernaculars.
1837-8	4,69,632 10 3	..	..	. .	..	..	..	..	The Calcutta Medical College in this year cost 48,816 Rs.; monthly cost, each pupil, 56½ Rs.; monthly cost from 16 Rs. in Hoogly, to 1 Rs. in Saugor Schools.
1838-9	3,73,142 8 11	..	..	. .	..	..	..	..	4688 English and Vernacular students, and 1039 Arabic, Sanscrit, and Persian.
1839-40	4,53,990 13 9	..	..	. .	..	..	..	..	. . .
*1840-1	4,14,824 8 11	..	..	. .	..	..	..	..	Rajah of Burdwan gave 25,000 Rs.
†1841-2	5,31,397 15 9	..	..	. .	..	..	..	..	The miscellaneous receipts from schools and colleges this year were 1,80,761 Rs. 10 Ar.
1842-3	5,87,558 6 1	6589	1614	34,186 7 9	253	1621	6140	189	. . .
‡1843-4	5,47,196 5 9	3930	1640	38,640 6 6	147	931	4311	181	. . .

In 1837 Rajah Chhata Dhari Sahahye made a donation of £5000 to the General Education Fund. In 1840 the Rajah of Burdwan gave £2500.

* The colleges and schools were thus located—Calcutta, 4; Hoogly, 7; Bengal, 8; Behar, 3; Orissa, 2; Allahabad Division, 8; Eastern Provinces 13; North-west Provinces, 6.

† Not distinguished whether Pundits or Moulavies.

‡ There not being any returns from the Agra Government, the figures relate to the Bengal Presidency alone; with the exception of the disbursements, which are the total expenses of the Bengal and Agra Governments.

The report contains also a minute of Lord Auckland's, embracing his views with respect to native education, drawn up in that able, comprehensive, and searching manner which characterized so many of his records on the council books of the Bengal Government.

The reports for 1840–41, and 1841–2 give the number of schools and the number of the teachers, but without distinguishing whether the native teachers were Pundits or Moulavies. They give also the total number of pupils and the annual disbursements; the balance sheet, however, and the students in the several languages are not noticed in any analytical table, but they give the religion of the scholars and the average cost per head at each school in tables which are annexed.

The report for 1842–3 is the most complete in the analytical view it gives, in luminous tables, not only of each institution with regard to scholars, &c., but also of the financial state of each school. It comprises also the returns from both the Bengal and Agra Governments, and only wants the columns added explanatory of the nature of the institutions, and the number and religion of the teachers to give it a complete character. It is to be hoped future returns will embrace all these essential points of information.

The schools in the North-west Provinces being placed under the Agra Government in 1843, the Bengal report for 1843-4 contains only an account of the state of the institutions remaining under that Presidency. A report not having been received from the Agra Government I am disabled from adding, as I had done in 1843, the number of students, &c., to those of the Bengal Presidency; and a further view of the *general* progress of education under both governments necessarily ceases. Nevertheless, there are two or three features in the Bengal report of a satisfactory nature that may be pointed out. The paying students had increased from 1,614 to 1,640, and the amount realized from the pupils from 34,186 rupees to 38,640 rupees. The pupils learning Bengalee also had increased from from 2,718 to 2,956, although the total number of pupils had only increased from 5,554 in 1843 to 5,570 in 1844; and it is but reasonable to infer that the institutions in the North-west Provinces have not retrograded.

The table No. III., which I have framed from the various reports, although it does not admit of the progress in *each branch* of the institutions being traced from year to year from the want of uniformity in the annual reports, yet contains satisfactory evidence of the gradual progress of education. The pupils in 1835–6 amounted to 3,573 in 23 schools, and on the 30th April, 1843, they amounted to 8,203 in 51 colleges and schools; and the sums disbursed, which in the first period amounted to 35,519*l.* sterling annually, amounted to 58,755*l.* in 1843! It cannot fail to be remarked how very far in advance of the Parliamentary grants is the liberality of the Court of Directors.

Table IV. exhibits the state of the schools under both governments in 1843; the Agra analysis being taken from the separate schools. Table V. exhibits only the state of the Bengal schools in 1844.

TABLE IV.—*Statement of Number, Caste, &c. of the Students of the Colleges and Schools in the Bengal Presidency on 30th April, 1843.*

Names of Institutions.	Statement showing the Number of Paying Students, and the Amount paid by them, and Students who do not pay.			Statement showing the Number of Students studying each of the Languages taught.										Statement showing the Number of Students of each Caste.					Daily Average Attendance of the Students, from 1st May, 1842, to 30th April, 1843.	Years from Foundation.
	Non Paying.	Paying.	Total Amount Paid.	English.	Arabic.	Persian.	Urdoo.	Hindee.	Sanscrit.	Bengalee.	Oreeah.	Mug.	Burmese.	Christians.	Mohamedans.	Hindoos.	Other than those three.	Total.		
			Rs. A. P.																	
Sanscrit College	150	..	. .	85	..	..	..	..	150	..	..	..	..	..	..	150	..	150	76	
Hindoo College	54	464	27,354 13 9	518	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	518	..	518	401	
Patsalah of ditto	..	252	1,076 4 0	..	..	..	..	..	..	252	..	..	..	..	..	252	..	252	212	
School Society's School	14	100	. .	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	114	..	114	..	
Madressa	281	1	. .	102	140	..	..	..	..	40	..	..	..	..	282	..	..	282	..	
Medical College	69	..	. .	69	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	17	4	46	2	69	..	
Secondary School	73	..	. .	..	..	..	73	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	49	24	..	73	..	
College of Mahomed Mohsin	678	181	3,665 0 0	572	282	105	..	..	..	572	..	..	..	12	373	574	..	959	667	
Branch School	206	100	987 0 0	250	24	32	..	..	..	250	..	..	..	5	55	246	..	306	260	
Infant School	48	..	. .	48	..	..	..	..	..	48	..	..	..	2	2	44	..	48	30	
Seetapore School	129	47	224 4 0	135	2	39	..	..	..	134	..	..	..	1	41	134	..	176	..	
Ummerpore School	120	..	. .	120	..	..	..	..	..	90	..	..	..	..	..	120	..	120	100	
Ramree School	113	..	. .	45	..	..	28	..	..	..	..	87	..	5	58	3	47	113	88	
Moulmein School	101	..	. .	101	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	59	30	10	3	58	101	..	
Midnapore School	35	89	332 4 0	124	..	..	..	..	..	124	..	..	..	3	..	121	..	124	86	
Cuttack School	35	36	. .	71	..	..	..	..	..	..	71	..	..	9	2	60	..	71	62	
Dacca College	364	..	. .	364	..	..	..	..	..	364	..	..	..	14	30	320	..	364	..	
Commillah School	57	54	219 14 0	111	..	..	..	..	..	107	..	..	..	4	15	92	..	111	69	
Chittagong School	23	112	308 0 0	135	..	90	..	..	..	135	..	..	..	21	22	92	..	135	..	
Sylhet School	78	..	. .	68	..	30	..	..	..	78	..	..	..	7	9	62	..	78	50	
Jessore School	148	..	. .	148	..	..	..	..	..	148	..	..	..	..	..	148	..	148	59	
Gowahatty School	220	..	. .	68	..	..	..	..	..	152	..	..	..	..	83	137	..	220	203	
Seebsagore School	117	..	. .	117	..	..	..	..	11	117	..	..	..	4	20	93	..	117	90	
Chota Nagpore Schools	..	..	. .	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	

Nizamut Coll., Moorshedabad:																							
Sahibzadah's Department	..	..			13	3	9	10	..	..	3	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..			
General Department	31	..			18	5	8	12	..	..	11	..	..	..	..	31	..	..	31	..			
Bauleah School	35	36			71	..	..	..	..	..	..	71	..	..	9	2	60	..	71	62			
Patna School	94	..			94	..	..	94	94	..	..	..	..	..	18	20	56	..	94	60			
Ditto Hindee Schools	530	..			..	..	..	..	530	..	..	..	..	..	..	25	505	..	530	403			
Bhaugulpore School	66	..			66	..	..	66	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	4	62	..	66	52			
Ditto Hill School	113	..			59	..	..	..	108	..	..	..	..	..	..	6	25	82	113	73			
Total	3982	1572	34,166	3	9 3572	456	313	293	733	161	2625	142	87	59	161	1143	4061	189	5554	3103			
Benares Sanscrit College	161	..			..	..	41	..	..	120	..	..	..	..	..	..	161	..	..	..	51	Years.	
Ditto English ditto	128	42	20	4	0 170	..	..	170	170	..	..	..	..	..	15	4	141	..	..	..	12	,,	
Ditto Branch School	115	..			115	..	..	115	115	..	..	..	..	..	..	12	103	..	..	..	2	,,	
Ghazeepoor School	176	..			176	..	..	176	..	..	..	..	..	..	8	45	123	..	..	..	8	,,	
Allahabad School	110	..			110	..	..	110	110	..	..	..	..	..	12	18	80	..	..	..	8	,,	
Saugor School	208	..			48	..	..	..	208	..	..	..	..	..	2	23	183	..	..	..	7	,,	
Jubbulpoor School	151	..			62	..	..	67	22	..	..	..	..	..	4	32	115	..	..	..	6	,,	
Azimghur School	228	..			8	44	44	..	139	32	..	..	..	..	..	45	183	..	..	..	6	,,	
Agra College	495	..			281	32	177	166	322	67	..	..	..	..	24	100	371	..	..	..	20	,,	
Delhi College	286	..			134	40	75	171	..	36	..	..	..	..	12	128	146	..	..	..	15	,,	
Bareilly School	150	..			150	..	..	150	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	17	133	..	..	..	6	,,	
Meerut School	68	..			68	..	..	68	..	..	..	..	..	..	4	14	50	..	..	..	8	,,	
Furruckabad School	102	..			102	..	41	18	..	10	..	..	..	..	4	26	76	..	..	..	7	,,	
Total	2378	42	20	4	0 1424	116	378	1211	1086	265	..	..	..	..	81	464	1875	..					
*Bancoorah Probational ditto	159	..			66	..	..	..	..	..	93	..	..	..	..	14	145	..	..	..	4	,,	
*Burrisaul ditto ditto	70	..			70	..	15	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	11	..	59	..	..	..	3	,,	
Total	229	..			136	..	15	..	..	..	93	..	..	..	11	14	204	..	..	..	3	,,	
Bengal Government	3982	1572	34,166	3	9 3572	456	313	293	733	161	2625	142	87	59	161	1143	4061	189					
Ditto Probational Schools	229	..			136	..	15	..	..	..	93	..	..	..	11	14	204	..	..	..			
Agra Government	2378	42	20	4	0 1424	116	378	1211	1086	265	..	..	..	..	81	464	1875	..	..	..			
Total	6589	1614	34,186	7	9 5132	572	706	1504	1819	426	2718	142	87	59	253	1621	6140	189					
	8203															8203							

* Belongs to Bengal.

TABLE V.—*Statement of Number, Caste, &c. of the Students of the Colleges and Schools in the Bengal Presidency on 30th April, 1844.*

Names of Institutions.	Statement showing the Number of Paying Students, and the Amount paid by them, and Students who do not pay.						Statement showing the Number of Students studying each of the Languages taught.										Statement showing the Number of Students of each Caste.					Daily Average Attendance of the Students, from 30th April, 1843, to 30th April, 1844.	Years from Foundation.
	Non-Paying.	Paying.	Total Amount Paid.				English.	Arabic.	Persian.	Urdoo.	Hindee.	Sanscrit.	Bengalee.	Oreeah.	Mug.	Burmese.	Christians.	Mahomedans.	Hindoos.	Other than those three.	Total.		
			Rs.	A.	P.																		
Sanscrit College	140	..	. .				72	..	..	..	..	140	..	..	..	..	..	..	140	..	140	89	23 Years.
Hindoo College	50	448	28,872	8	6		498	..	..	..	..	..	498	..	..	..	..	..	498	..	498	388	28 ,,
Patsalah, attached to ditto	..	144	864	4	6		..	..	..	..	..	..	144	..	..	..	..	..	144	..	144	122	4 ,,
School Society's School	249	202	2,155	13	6		451	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	451	..	451	339	
Madressa	129	42	40	8	0		47	171	..	..	..	..	25	..	..	..	..	171	..	..	171	..	20 ,,
Medical College	73	..	. .				73	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	20	4	48	1	73	58	9 ,,
Secondary School	71	..	. .				..	..	..	71	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	55	16	..	71	..	
College of Mahomed Mohsin	519	372	4,481	0	0		632	177	82	..	..	..	632	..	..	..	10	263	618	..	891	672	7 ,,
Branch School	212	96	1,114	0	0		250	21	37	..	..	..	250	..	..	..	3	55	250	..	308	254	Attached to College of Mahomed Mohsin at Hoogly.
Infant School	40	..	. .				40	..	..	..	..	..	40	..	..	..	1	1	38	..	40	30	
Seetapore School	64	36	212	12	0		100	..	..	..	..	..	100	..	..	..	..	..	100	..	100	80	
Ummerpore School	102	..	. .				102	..	..	..	..	..	86	..	..	..	..	..	102	..	102	82	
Ramree School	100	..	. .				32	..	..	34	..	..	..	..	73	..	5	57	3	35	100	86	6 Years.

Moulmein School	71	..	. .	71	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	71	13	..	..	58	71	48	9 ,,
Midnapore School	47	62	357 8 0	129	..	..	..	..	..	128	..	..	..	3	1	125	..	129	86	8 ,,
Cuttack School	55	41	. .	96	..	..	..	..	..	..	96	..	..	16	11	69	..	96	73	4 ,,
Dacca College	335	..	. .	335	..	..	..	..	..	335	..	..	..	14	18	303	..	335	224	8 ,,
Commillah School	8	108	354 0 0	116	..	6	..	..	..	110	..	..	..	3	12	101	..	116	56	7 ,,
Chittagong School	24	69	188 0 0	93	..	25	..	..	..	93	..	..	..	19	11	63	..	93	65	7 ,,
Sylhet School	112	..	. .	109	..	..	..	..	..	104	..	..	..	6	31	75	..	112	66	
Jessore School	122	..	. .	122	..	..	..	..	..	122	..	..	..	..	15	107	..	122	62	6 ,,
Gowahatty School	172	..	. .	33	..	23	..	..	3	137	..	..	..	..	67	105	..	172	153	8 ,,
Seebsagore School	41	..	. .	36	..	..	..	..	10	41	..	..	..	1	4	36	..	41	30	3 ,,
Chota Nagpore Schools	63	..	. .	63	..	..	..	63	..	..	..	..	..	1	6	47	9	63	50	
NizamutColl., Moorshedabad:																				
Sahibzadah's Department	19	..	. .	19	2	7	7	..	..	2	..	..	..	..	19	..	..	19	11	2 ,,
General Department	5	..	. .	5	..	..	5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	5	..	..	5	2	
Bauleah School	109	..	. .	109	..	..	..	..	27	109	..	..	..	3	..	106	..	109	82	8 ,,
Patna School	112	..	. .	112	..	..	112	112	..	..	..	..	..	26	27	59	..	112	83	9 ,
Ditto Hindee Schools	647	..	. .	..	..	..	..	647	..	..	..	..	..	..	56	591	..	647	456	
Bhaugulpore School	130	..	. .	130	..	..	130	..	..	..	..	..	..	3	35	92	..	130	72	7 ,,
Ditto Hill School	109	..	. .	78	..	..	..	109	..	..	..	..	..	..	7	24	78	109	83	21 ,,
Total	3930	1640	38,640* 6 6	3953	371	180	359	931	180	2956	96	73	71	147	931	4311	181	5570	3932 †	

* Exclusive of the amount paid at Cuttack, which is not stated in the local Returns.

† Exclusive of the Madressa and Secondary School—not stated in the local Returns. The Bancoorah School, which in the preceding year had 159 students on its books, in the present year was reduced to 60, and Government withdrew its support. The aid given to the Burrisaul School was suspended in 1844, until certain conditions were fulfilled.

TABLE VI.—*Abstract Statement of Receipts of the Education Department, from*

Institutions.	Sale of Books.	Tuition.	Deposited by Boys.	Refund Charges.	Ground Rent.	Fines, &c.	Interest.
	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.
Balance of last Account	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Institutions at the Presidency.							
Medical College	. .	. .	. .	873 9 9	. .	43 4 0	. .
Madressa College	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Sanscrit College	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Hindoo College	14 0 0	31,249 2 8	. .	292 12 8	101 2 0	210 0 0	. .
Patsalah	72 4 0	934 14 6	. .	22 11 2	. .	2 8 0	. .
Secretary to the Council of Education	731 15 6	. .	. .	793 12 8	. .	. .	66,475 7 1
Total	818 3 6	32,184 1 2	. .	1,982 14 3	101 2 0	255 12 0	66,475 7 1
Mofussil Institutions, Bengal Presidency.							
Hoogly College	. .	3,972 14 0	529 8 0	45 14 11	. .	. .	11,590 0 10
Branch School	. .	1,128 8 0	62 0 0	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seetapore School	. .	219 4 0	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Bancoorah School	69 0 8	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Dacca College	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Commillah School	91 8 6	219 14 0	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Chittagong School	52 0 0	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Cuttack School	325 4 0	155 0 0	. .	50 0 0	. .	. .	. .
Midnapore School	15 9 6	336 4 0	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Gowahatty School	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seebsaugur School	71 14 0	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Arracan Schools	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Moulmein Schools	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Bhaugulpore Hill School	62 14 8	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Total	688 3 4	6,031 12 0	601 10 0	95 14 11	. .	. .	11,590 0 10
Institutions in the North-Western Provinces.							
Benares College	559 14 8	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Ghazipore School	61 4 0	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Jubbulpore School	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Agra College	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	149 0 0	. .
Delhi College	. .	. .	. .	82 13 4	. .	. .	3,862 1 1
Meerut School	31 1 4	. .	. .	513 0 0	. .	. .	. .
Ajmere School	6 0 0	34 0 0	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Total	658 4 0	34 0 0	. .	595 13 4	. .	149 0 0	3,862 1 1
Grand Total	2,164 10 10	32,249 13 2	601 10 0	2,674 10 6	101 2 0	404 12 0	81,927 9 0

In the Appendix No. 4 of the Report for 1842-3 is the following statement of the Funds in the hands of the Government Agent :—

	Rupees.
General Fund, in Promissory Notes	5,65,900
Benares College ditto	1,33,000
Delhi College ditto	1,70,600
Rajah of Burdwan's Scholarships	13,500
	8,82,400
Agra College, in Promissory Notes	1,78,400
Mahomed Mohsin's College, ditto	7,87,400
Calcutta Hindoo College, ditto	23,000
	Rupees 18,71,200

30th April, 1842, to 30th April, 1843, as furnished by the Accountant General.

Sale of Furniture.	Local Funds.	Draft on General Treasury forwarded for Realization.	Advances Received.	Donation.	Miscellaneous.	Total.	Parliamentary and New Government Grants.	Grand Total.
Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.
. .	. .	. .	..	..	. .	. .	. .	84,131 10 7
. .	. .	. .	417	600	. .	1,933 13 9	84,722 6 7	86,656 4 4
. .	. .	. .	..	..	. .	. .	32,000 0 0	32,000 0 0
. .	. .	. .	..	..	. .	. .	24,669 13 0	24,669 13 0
. .	. .	. .	..	..	. .	31,867 1 4	. .	31,867 1 4
. .	. .	. .	..	..	. .	1,032 5 8	. .	1,032 5 8
227 2 3	. .	1,469 0 0	..	..	. .	69,697 5 6	2,56,407 6 8	3,26,104 12 2
227 2 3	. .	1,469 0 0	417	600	. .	1,04,530 10 3	3,97,799 10 3	5,86,461 15 1
. .	2,384 14 4½	. .	..	..	. .	18,523 4 1½	. .	18,523 4 1½
. .	164 0 0	. .	..	..	. .	1,354 8 0	. .	1,354 8 0
. .	1,127 14 2½	. .	..	..	. .	1,347 2 2½	. .	1,347 2 2½
. .	. .	. .	..	..	. .	69 0 8	. .	69 0 8
. .	190 13 4	. .	..	..	. .	190 13 4	. .	190 13 4
. .	1,063 11 11	. .	..	..	. .	1,375 2 5	. .	1,375 2 5
. .	3,552 12 2	. .	..	..	. .	3,654 12 2	. .	3,654 12 2
. .	2,507 1 2	. .	..	..	. .	2,987 5 2	. .	2,987 5 2
. .	. .	. .	..	..	152 11 0	504 8 6	. .	504 8 6
. .	69 11 4	. .	..	..	. .	69 11 4	. .	69 11 4
. .	. .	. .	..	..	. .	71 14 0	3,120 0 0	3,191 14 0
. .	. .	. .	..	..	. .	. .	6,000 0 0	6,000 0 0
. .	. .	. .	..	..	. .	. .	6,000 0 0	6,000 0 0
. .	. .	. .	..	..	. .	73 0 8	3,000 0 0	3,073 0 8
. .	11,060 14 6	. .	..	..	152 11 0	30,221 2 7	18,120 0 0	48,341 2 7
. .	. .	. .	..	..	. .	559 14 8	20,413 5 0	20,973 3 8
. .	. .	. .	..	..	. .	61 4 0	. .	61 4 0
. .	. .	. .	..	..	. .	145 0 0	. .	145 0 0
. .	10,247 13 6	3,796 5 8	..	..	. .	17,989 1 7	. .	17,989 1 7
. .	. .	. .	..	..	. .	513 0 0	. .	513 0 0
. .	. .	. .	..	..	. .	31 1 4	. .	31 1 4
. .	. .	1,094 0 0	..	..	. .	1,138 0 0	. .	1,138 0 0
. .	10,247 13 6	4,890 5 8	..	..	. .	20,437 6 7	20,413 5 0	40,850 10 7
227 2 3	21,308 12 0	6,359 5 8	417	600	152 11 0	1,55,189 2 5	4,36,332 15 3	6,75,653 12 3

TABLE VII.—*Abstract Statement of the Disbursements of the Education by the Accountant*

Institutions.	Establishment.	Scholarships or Prizes.	Stipend.	House Rent.
	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.
Institutions at the Presidency.				
Medical College	66,275 10 5	300 0 0	4,627 7 3	. .
Madressa College	27,353 10 5	2,368 8 7	. .	. .
Sanscrit College	13,303 13 8	874 0 0	1,352 13 11	. .
Hindoo College	47,337 9 11	6,918 7 0	. .	1,680 0 0
Patsalah	2,424 15 4	. .	. .	. .
School Society's School	6,047 8 0	. .	. .	. .
Secretary to Council of Education	6,929 10 0	. .	. .	200 0 0
	1,69,702 13 9	10,460 15 7	5,980 5 2	1,880 0 0
Mofussil Institutions, Bengal Presidency.				
Hoogly College	61,604 5 7	5,161 6 7	456 0 0	36 0 0
Hoogly Branch School	6,648 0 0	201 0 0	. .	. .
Hoogly Infant School	1,600 0 0	. .	. .	. .
Seetapore School	2,094 0 0	. .	. .	2 0 0
Ummerpore Probational School	. .	. .	. .	. .
Bancoorah Probational School	. .	. .	. .	. .
Jessore School	4,086 10 10	117 10 10	. .	3 15 9
Dacca College	17,101 6 4	703 12 4	. .	1,020 0 0
Commillah School	3,900 0 0	38 13 8	. .	. .
Chittagong School	4,782 0 0	. .	. .	. .
Bauleah School	4,370 0 0	139 5 8	. .	. .
Burrisaul Probational School	. .	75 2 0	. .	. .
Cuttack School	3,168 15 5	. .	. .	300 0 0
Midnapore School	5,052 0 0	192 0 0	. .	500 0 0
Gowahatty School	6,860 5 4	. .	. .	. .
Seebsaugur School	2,680 11 3	. .	. .	. .
Akyab School	729 10 7	. .	. .	. .
Ramree School	2,440 0 0	230 0 0	. .	. .
Moulmein School	5,790 4 0	. .	. .	. .
Patna School	7,037 6 2	136 0 0	. .	650 0 0
Bhaugulpore School	4,288 0 0	96 0 0	. .	13 8 0
Bhaugulpore Hill School	2,400 0 0	. .	1,188 0 0	. .
	1,46,533 11 6	7,091 3 1	1,644 0 0	2,525 7 9
Institutions in the North-Western Provinces.				
Benares College, &c.	25,008 11 10	1,075 0 0	. .	1,200 0 0
Ghazipore School	8,069 5 8	64 0 0	. .	. .
Allahabad School	8,056 0 0	184 0 0	. .	. .
Saugor School	6,024 0 0	208 0 0	. .	. .
Jubbulpore School	4,132 0 0	. .	. .	154 0 0
Azimghur School	3,028 8 0	. .	. .	. .
Goruckpore School	2,670 0 0	. .	. .	. .
Agra College	24,901 0 0	4,414 13 6	. .	. .
Delhi College	27,169 14 3	8,601 0 0	. .	160 0 0
Bareilly School	4,114 0 0	. .	. .	. .
Meerut School	5,160 0 0	77 5 4	. .	. .
Furruckabad School	5,034 0 0	. .	. .	140 0 0
Ajmere School	4,481 1 5	. .	. .	. .
Total	1,27,848 9 2	14,624 2 10	. .	1,654 0 0
Grand Total	4,44,085 2 5	32,176 5 6	7,624 5 2	6,059 7 9
Balance in favour of the Educational Department	. .	. .	. .	. .
Total Company's Rupees	. .	. .	. .	. .

Department, from the 30th April, 1842, to the 30th April, 1843, as furnished General.

Purchases of Books.	Contingent Charges.	Deposit Refunded.	Pension.	Ceylon Students.	Building.	Total.
Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.
250 0 0	6,432 15 9	. .	. .	7,487 2 11	1,288 0 0	86,656 4 4
770 0 0	1,376 10 5	. .	2,016 0 0	. .	. .	33,884 13 5
150 0 0	847 9 2	. .	. .	. .	. .	16,528 4 9
1,539 3 9	2,778 2 8	. .	. .	. .	17,856 4 0	78,139 11 4
. .	194 8 5	. .	. .	. .	. .	2,619 7 9
. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	6,047 8 0
12,886 10 0	6,853 1 0	. .	. .	. .	. .	26,869 5 0
15,595 13 9	18,482 15 5	. .	2,016 0 0	7,487 2 11	19,139 4 0	2,50,745 6 7
1,388 8 6	1,471 1 9	249 2 0	. .	. .	. .	70,366 8 5
483 0 0	186 7 0	284 0 0	. .	. .	. .	7,802 7 0
55 0 0	54 8 6	. .	. .	. .	. .	1,609 8 6
267 1 0	152 12 2	. .	. .	. .	. .	2,515 13 0
34 2 0	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	34 2 0
220 0 0	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	220 0 0
299 15 3	53 1 6	. .	. .	. .	. .	4,561 6 2
770 0 0	356 0 5	. .	. .	. .	. .	19,951 3 1
220 0 0	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	4,158 13 8
210 0 0	200 0 0	. .	. .	. .	. .	5,192 0 0
346 0 0	0 13 6	. .	. .	. .	. .	4,856 3 2
397 12 0	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	472 14 0
371 0 0	37 9 8	. .	. .	. .	. .	3,877 9 1
275 0 0	120 0 0	. .	. .	. .	. .	6,139 0 0
200 0 0	972 0 0	. .	. .	. .	. .	8,032 5 4
215 5 0	14 0 0	. .	. .	. .	. .	2,910 0 3
. .	4 2 0	. .	. .	. .	. .	733 12 7
247 13 8	94 11 7	. .	. .	. .	. .	3,012 9 3
. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	5,730 4 0
395 0 0	214 10 6	. .	. .	. .	. .	8,863 0 8
424 2 3	73 8 0	. .	. .	. .	. .	4,895 2 3
180 0 0	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	3,768 0 0
6,929 11 8	4,005 6 5	533 2 0	. .	. .	. .	1,69,262 10 5
397 1 3	1,551 1 0	. .	600 0 0	. .	. .	29,831 14 1
294 12 0	57 0 0	. .	. .	. .	. .	8,485 1 8
440 0 0	1,231 3 6	. .	. .	. .	. .	9,911 3 6
350 7 3	1,493 12 11	. .	. .	. .	. .	18,076 4 2
445 10 0	76 9 0	. .	. .	. .	. .	4,808 3 0
62 14 3	57 1 6	. .	. .	. .	. .	3,148 7 9
. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	2,670 0 0
152 0 0	2,935 8 0	. .	. .	. .	. .	32,403 5 6
1,807 8 0	1,486 15 7	. .	. .	. .	. .	39,226 5 10
240 10 0	439 3 6	. .	. .	. .	8,260 8 0	13,054 5 6
250 10 0	204 5 1	. .	. .	. .	. .	5,693 4 5
275 0 0	256 12 3	. .	. .	. .	. .	5,705 12 3
. .	57 0 8	. .	. .	. .	. .	4,538 1 5
4,716 8 9	9,846 8 4	. .	600 0 0	. .	8,260 8 0	1,67,550 5 1
27,242 2 2	32,334 14 2	533 2 0	2,616 0 0	7,487 2 11	27,399 12 0	5,87,558 6 1
. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	88,095 6 2
. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	6,75,653 12 3

TABLE VIII.—*Abstract Statement of Receipts of the Education Department*

Institutions.	Sale of Books.	Tuition.	Deposited by Boys.	Refund Charges.
	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.
Institutions at the Presidency.				
Balance on the 1st May, 1843.	. .	. .	. .	. .
Secretary to the Council of Education.	24 0 0	. .	. .	300 0 0
Hindoo College	. .	28,981 11 3	. .	132 9 7
Medical College	. .	. .	. .	628 0 0
Patsalah	56 1 6	869 15 9	. .	17 6 10
Sanscrit College	. .	. .	. .	163 7 8
Madressa	. .	. .	. .	40 8 0
School Society's School	. .	. .	. .	. .
Total	80 1 6	29,851 11 0	. .	1,282 0 1
Institutions in the Provinces.				
Chittagong School	. .	. .	. .	. .
Cuttack	300 0 0	. .	. .	. .
Mahomed Mohsin's College	. .	4,182 8 0	195 8 0	31 2 8¾
Branch School	. .	1,093 8 0	99 0 0	0 4 1¾
Infant School	. .	. .	. .	19 5 7½
Seetapore School	. .	210 12 0	. .	. .
Midnapore School	. .	. .	. .	738 8 8
Patna School	15 4 0	. .	. .	. .
Bauleah School	148 2 8	. .	. .	120 0 0
Commillah School	. .	266 14 10	. .	. .
Sylhet School	. .	. .	. .	. .
Seebsagore School	. .	. .	. .	. .
Arracan School (Ramree)	14 6 0	. .	. .	. .
Moulmein School	. .	. .	. .	. .
Bhaugulpore Hill School	. .	. .	. .	167 0 0
Nowgong School	. .	. .	. .	. .
Durrung School	. .	. .	. .	. .
Kamroop School	. .	. .	. .	. .
Debrooghur School	. .	. .	. .	. .
Luckimpore and Dokwakhana Schools	. .	. .	. .	. .
Ten Pergunnah School	. .	. .	. .	. .
Bhaugulpore School	36 0 0	. .	. .	. .
Jessore School	124 5 4	. .	. .	. .
Gowahatty School	. .	. .	. .	. .
Total	638 2 0	5,753 10 10	294 8 0	1,076 5 1¾
Grand Total	718 3 6	35,605 5 10	294 8 0	2,358 5 2¾

Deduct amount allotted to the North-Western Provinces out of the balance on the 30th Department, as per resolution of the Government of Bengal, dated 18th December,
Ditto ditto out of the Parliamentary and Government Grants, and of the Interest on the
for the year 1843–4, as per ditto . . . . . .

from 30th April, 1843 to 30th April, 1844, as furnished by the Accountant General.

Fines, &c.	Local Funds.	Interest.	Miscellaneous.	Parliamentary and other new Government Grants.	Total.
Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.
. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	88,095 6 2
. .	. .	24,046 6 4	4,250 15 6	2,56,407 6 8	2,85,028 12 6
30 0 0	. .	1,668 7 10	140 0 0	. .	30,952 12 8
127 12 0	. .	. .	. .	76,449 5 6	77,205 1 6
. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	943 8 1
. .	. .	. .	. .	24,669 13 0	24,833 4 8
. .	. .	. .	. .	32,000 0 0	32,040 8 0
. .	. .	. .	. .	12,017 8 0	12,017 8 0
157 12 0	. .	25,714 14 2	4,390 15 6	4,01,544 1 2	5,51,116 13 7
. .	2,106 7 10	. .	. .	. .	2,106 7 10
. .	. .	. .	0 4 0	. .	300 4 0
1 8 0	5,093 6 1½	41,399 12 9	6 2 8	. .	50,910 0 3½
. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1,192 12 1½
. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	19 5 7½
. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	210 12 0
. .	26 4 0	. .	. .	. .	764 12 8
. .	114 0 0	. .	. .	. .	129 4 0
. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	268 2 8
14 2 6	155 2 0	. .	4 0 0	. .	440 3 4
. .	. .	. .	. .	3,000 0 0	3,000 0 0
. .	. .	. .	. .	3,120 0 0	3,120 0 0
. .	. .	. .	. .	6,000 0 0	6,014 6 0
. .	. .	. .	. .	6,000 0 0	6,000 0 0
. .	. .	. .	. .	3,000 0 0	3,167 0 0
. .	. .	. .	. .	1,080 0 0	1,080 0 0
. .	. .	. .	. .	768 0 0	768 0 0
. .	. .	. .	. .	1,441 8 0	1,441 8 0
. .	. .	. .	. .	816 0 0	816 0 0
. .	. .	. .	. .	420 0 0	420 0 0
. .	. .	. .	. .	229 13 5	229 13 5
. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	36 0 0
. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	124 5 4
. .	71 8 0	. .	. .	. .	71 8 0
15 10 6	7,566 11 11½	41,399 12 9	10 6 8	25,875 5 5	82,630 9 3½
173 6 6	7,566 11 11½	67,114 10 11	4,401 6 2	4,27,419 6 7	6,33,747 6 10½
April, 1843, standing at the credit of the Education 1843				32,161 14 6	
general funds in the hands of the Government agent				1,23,991 10 0	
					1,56,153 8 6
Company's Rupees					4,77,593 14 4½

TABLE IX.—*Abstract Statement of Disbursements of the Education Department*

Institutions.	Establishment.			Scholarships.			Stipend.			House Rent.		
	Rs.	A.	P.	Rs.	A.	P.	Rs.	A.	P.	Rs.	A.	P.
Institutions at the Presidency.												
Secretary to the Council of Education	4,346	13	6	.	.		.	.		.	.	
Hindoo College	45,496	6	0	6,896	3	6	.	.		1,680	0	0
Sanscrit College	13,784	10	3	2,619	0	0	748	10	0	.	.	
Madressa	27,026	2	8	4,010	12	2	.	.		.	.	
Medical College	52,945	9	0	544	0	0	4,192	0	0	.	.	
Patsalah	2,309	0	0	.	.		.	.		.	.	
School Society's School	6,270	0	0	.	.		.	.		.	.	
Total	1,52,178	9	5	14,069	15	8	4,940	10	0	1,680	0	0
Institutions in the Provinces.												
Burrisaul	.	.		.	.		.	.		.	.	
Bhaugulpore Institution	4,120	0	0	141	15	0	.	.		.	.	
Bhaugulpore Hill School	2,579	9	2	160	0	0	1,173	0	0	.	.	
Bancoorah	.	.		.	.		.	.		.	.	
Chittagong	5,435	5	8	257	0	6	.	.		.	.	
Cuttack	3,048	0	0	193	0	0	.	.		12	8	0
Dacca	14,967	5	8	1,358	0	0	.	.		1,020	0	0
Mahomed Mohsin's College	61,681	6	11	7,436	1	3½	167	0	0	65	1	6
Branch School	6,579	4	3	162	15	11	.	.		.	.	
Infant School	1,516	2	0½	.	.		.	.		.	.	
Seetapore School	2,112	0	0	.	.		.	.		2	0	0
Ummerpore School	.	.		.	.		.	.		.	.	
Jessore School	3,980	0	0	147	3	7	.	.		.	.	
Seebsaugore School	2,304	0	0	.	.		.	.		40	0	0
Gowahatty School	6,024	4	7	96	0	0	.	.		.	.	
Midnapore School	5,052	0	0	192	0	0	.	.		.	.	
Patna School	6,540	12	8	196	6	0	.	.		600	0	0
Bauleah School	3,264	0	0	174	7	0	.	.		.	.	
Ramree School	2,288	0	0	96	0	0	.	.		.	.	
Sylhet School	2,600	0	0	.	.		.	.		.	.	
Moulmein School	5,293	2	0	.	.		.	.		.	.	
Mergui School	358	13	0	.	.		.	.		.	.	
Commillah School	4,127	5	4	.	.		.	.		.	.	
Durrung School	749	4	7	.	.		.	.		.	.	
Luckimpore School	260	0	0	.	.		.	.		.	.	
Dukna Khana School	195	0	0	.	.		.	.		.	.	
Total	1,45,075	11	10½	10,611	1	3½	1,340	0	0	1,739	9	6
Grand Total	2,97,254	5	3½	24,681	0	11½	6,280	10	0	3,419	9	6

From 30th April, 1843, to 30th April, 1844, as furnished by the Accountant General.

Purchase of Books.	Contingencies.	Pensions.	Batta, Gratuity, and House Rent, &c., of the Professors and others.	Ceylon Students.	Total.
Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.
2,691 15 0	3,687 9 6	. .	. .	. .	10,726 6 0
1,200 0 0	1,675 8 3	. .	. .	. .	56,948 1 9
300 0 0	513 3 0	. .	. .	. .	17,965 7 3
840 0 0	2,390 10 4	2,016 0 0	. .	. .	36,283 9 2
. .	5,174 4 9	. .	10,918 8 0	3,430 11 9	77,205 1 6
40 0 0	255 9 0	. .	. .	. .	2,604 9 0
220 0 0	. .	. .	. .	. .	6,490 0 0
5,291 15 0	13,696 12 10	2,016 0 0	10,918 8 0	3,430 11 9	2,08,223 2 8
300 0 0	. .	. .	. .	. .	300 0 0
360 0 0	. .	. .	. .	. .	4,621 15 0
240 0 0	. .	. .	. .	. .	4,152 9 2
20 0 0	. .	. .	. .	. .	20 0 0
240 0 0	54 12 0	. .	. .	. .	5,987 2 2
300 0 0	37 4 0	. .	. .	. .	3,590 12 0
840 0 0	130 8 0	. .	. .	. .	18,315 13 8
1,467 14 6	2,318 14 2	. .	. .	. .	73,136 6 4½
420 0 0	359 9 0	. .	. .	. .	7,521 13 2
60 0 0	33 12 6	. .	. .	. .	1,609 14 6¼
240 0 0	81 12 0	. .	. .	. .	2,435 12 0
240 0 0	. .	. .	. .	. .	240 0 0
240 0 0	138 11 9	. .	. .	. .	4,505 15 4
200 0 0	46 11 6	. .	. .	. .	2,590 11 6
300 0 0	250 0 0	. .	. .	. .	6,670 4 7
300 0 0	120 0 0	. .	. .	. .	5,664 0 0
360 0 0	129 14 0	. .	. .	. .	7,827 0 8
360 0 0	250 0 0	. .	. .	. .	4,048 7 0
220 0 0	243 1 0	. .	. .	. .	2,847 1 0
260 0 0	. .	. .	. .	. .	2,860 0 0
. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	5,293 2 0
. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	358 13 0
240 0 0	. .	. .	. .	. .	4,367 5 4
. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	749 4 7
. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	260 0 0
. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	195 0 0
7,207 14 6	4,194 13 11	. .	. .	. .	1,70,169 3 1
12,499 13 6	17,891 10 9	2,016 0 0	10,918 8 0	3,430 11 9	3,78,392 5 9

Balance in favour of the Education Department on the 30th April, 1844	99,201 8 7½
Company's Rupees	4,77,593 14 4½
Allotted to the Agra Government	1,56,153 8 6
Total Rupees	6,33,747 6 10½

TABLE X.—*Employment of the Students who have left the Government Schools and Colleges, up to* 1839-40.

No.	Employment.	Amount of Salaries per Month.
		Rs. Rs.
83	English Teachers	From 20 to 50
33	Arabic Teachers	,, 30 to 60
133	Persian Teachers	,, 10 to 20
50	Sanscrit Teachers	,, 16 to 60
20	Bengalee Teachers	,, 16 to 20
4	Hindee Teachers	,, 16 to 20
5	Urdu Teachers.	,, 16 to 20
2	Superintendents of Abkaree . . .	At 500
23	Deputy Collectors	,, 300
7	Sudder Ameens	,, 300
18	Munsiffs	,, 100
10	Zillah Pundits	,, 60
19	Zillah Moulavies	,, 80
2	Assistant Secretaries	,, 50
1	Ditto	,, 200
102	Dewans and Banians	From 10 to 500
3	Nazeers	At 20
20	Native Doctors	,, 20
3	Apothecaries	,, 15
57	Assistant Surveyors	,, 40
170	Writers	From 10 to 100
61	Merchants	. .
128	Vakeels	At 15
25	Sub-Assistant Surgeons	,, 100
16	Record Keepers	From 30 to 50
425	Miscellaneous	. .

The above table is exceedingly satisfactory, as it testifies to the practical advantages, not only to the parties themselves, but to the public interests, resulting from the liberal policy of the East India Company. Independently of the 330 tutors or teachers of languages, English, Arabic, Sanscrit, &c. sent into native society; the highly responsible Government offices of Deputy Collectors, Sudder Ameens, and Munsiffs are filled by young men not only of a higher intellectual standard, but, it is to be hoped, of a higher moral impress than ordinary. The Vakeels, too, who practise in the courts of law, will necessarily be better qualified than the old Vakeels.

APPENDIX XI.—I. *List of the Government Schools under the late General Committee of Public Instruction, at the end of* 1840-41, *i.e., on the 30th April,* 1841.

Those schools marked thus (*a*) have aid in books, but no other fixed allowance is given,—In the Average Attendance column, Sy. S. signifies Secondary School—E. D., English Department—O. D., Oriental Department—H. D., Hindee Department—V. D., Vernacular Department—(*b*) that no Returns have been received.

Names of Schools.	Number of Masters.	Number of Assistants.	Number of Pupils.	Religion.				Average Attendance.	By whom Superintended.	Average Monthly Expense, from 30th April, 1840, to 30th April, 1841.	Average Cost Monthly to Government of Education per Head.
				Christians.	Hindoos.	Mahomedans.	Other Castes.				
CALCUTTA.										Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.
Hindoo College	6	15	557	..	557	..	..	431	Sub-Committee, N. Managers, and Principal	4,618 13 2	8 4 8
Medical College	7	2	79	25	51	3	..	58	Sub-Committee and College Council	4,926 9 3*	62 5 9*
Mahomedan Madrassa	2	11	252	..	..	252	..	Sy. S. 55 E. D. 100 O. D. 130	Sub-Committee and Superintendent Major Ouseley	2,469 7 7	9 12 9
Sanscrit College	..	11	123	..	123	..	..	78	Sub-Committee and Secretary	1,151 7 4	9 5 9
HOOGHLY.											
College of Mahomed Mohsin	3	37	1,076	16	735	325	..	E. D. 603 O. D. 196	Sub-Committee and Principal	5,927 2 0	5 8 1
Hooghly Branch School	2	8	393	1	300	92	..	230	Sub-Committee and Superintendent	465 9 8	1 2 11
Hooghly Infant School	1	1	60	4	48	8	..	44	Ditto	108 2 11	1 12 10
Seetapore Branch School	1	..	76	1	75	..	..	54	Ditto	109 11 6	1 7 1
(*a*) Tribaney Probational School	2	1	97	..	97	..	..	(*b*)	Ditto	4 3 6	0 0 8
(*a*) Umerpore Probational School	1	1	86	..	86	..	..	61	Ditto	8 12 5	0 1 9

* This sum, however, also provides, as per General Order dated 12th August, 1839, for 70 secondary school boys, for hospitals, museums, dispensaries, &c. The stipend of 5 rupees per mensem, received by each of the secondary schools, is paid from the Presidency Pay Office.

I. *List of the Government Schools under the late General Committee of Public Instruction, &c.*—continued.

Names of Schools.	Number of Masters.	Number of Assistants.	Number of Pupils.	Religion.				Average Attendance.	By whom Superintended.	Average Monthly Expense, from 30th April, 1840, to 30th April, 1841.	Average Cost Monthly to Government of Education per Head.
				Christians.	Hindoos.	Mahomedans.	Other Castes.				
DIVISION I.—BENGAL.										Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.
Section I.											
(*a*) Bancoorah Probational School	2	1	183	2	170	11	..	48	Local Committee	36 9 4	0 3 2
Jessore School	2	3	156	2	153	1	..	75	Ditto	258 4 8	1 10 6
Dacca College	2	9	252	19	199	34	..	141	Ditto	938 15 10	3 11 7
Comillah School	2	1	85	5	73	7	..	45	Ditto	331 0 8	3 14 0
Chittagong School . . .	2	3	108	8	94	6	..	89	Ditto	479 7 11	4 7 0
Bealeauh School	2	2	186	3	182	1	..	(*b*)	Ditto	284 2 4	1 8 5
(*a*) Burrisaul Probational School	1	2	45	4	41	..	..	(*b*)	Ditto	. . .	. . .
Sylhet Probational School .	1	2	76	1	73	2	..	(*b*)	Ditto	36 5 10	0 7 4
ORISSA.											
Section II.											
Cuttack School	2	1	82	..	82	..	..	62	Ditto	121 1 9	1 7 7
Midnapore School	2	2	140	5	131	4	..	95	Ditto	400 12 8	2 13 9
THE EASTERN PROVINCES.											
Section III.											
Gowahattee School . . .	2	3	316	3	211	102	..	254	Ditto	461 2 8	1 7 4
Gowahattee Branch Schools*:—											
Nilachol	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	82			

Pandu	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	58	Ditto			
Beltullah	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	34				
Amingong	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	24				
North Gowahattee	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	52				
Seebsaugor School†	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	(b)	Ditto			
Arracan — Akyab School	2	3	78	4	4	1	69	(b)	Ditto	474	3	7	6	1	3
Arracan — Ramree School	1	3	51	1	1	29	20	No register	Ditto	274	10	3	5	4	2
Moulmein School	2	1	72	21	1	5	45	(b)	Commissioner	550	0	0	7	10	2
Tavoy and Mergui Branch Schools	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	(b)	Ditto						
Division II.—Behar.															
Patna School	2	3	102	11	60	31	..	70	Local Committee	523	1	5	5	2	0
Bhaugulpore Institution	1	1	62	1	57	4	..	39	Ditto	305	14	9	4	14	8
Bhaugulpore Hill School	1	1	89	..	9	..	80	63	Local Committee and Superintendent Lieutenant Don	292	11	4	3	4	7
Division III.—Allahabad Division.															
Benares English Seminary, Oriental College	2	16	349	12	328	9	..	E. D. 116 O. D. 80	G. G.'s A. Visitor and Local Committee	1,461	9	5	4	3	0
Ghazeepore School	1	..	179	8	135	36	..	97	Local Committee	215	7	4	1	3	3
Allahabad School	2	4	105	6	81	18	..	(b)	Ditto	600	11	10	5	11	6
Saugor School	2	5	202	2	185	15	..	E. D. 24 O. D. 77	Ditto	524	15	1	2	9	6
Jubbulpore School	2	2	111	6	45	60	..	E. D. 32 H. D. 48	Ditto	201	10	10	1	13	0
Azimghur School	2	1	598	2	457	139	..	O. D. 98 E. D. 36	Ditto	410	6	8	0	10	11
Gorruckpore School	1	..	51	1	32	18	..	..	Ditto	268	8	8	5	4	2

* Elementary, and not directly under this office.

† Not fairly in operation till January, 1842.

I. *List of the Government Schools under the late General Committee of Public Instruction, &c.*—continued.

Names of Schools	Number of Masters.	Number of Assistants.	Number of Pupils.	Religion. Christians.	Hindoos.	Mahomedans.	Other Castes.	Average Attendance.	By whom Superintended.	Average Monthly Expense, from 30th April, 1840, to 30th April, 1841. Rs. A. P.	Average Cost Monthly to Government of Education per Head. Rs. A. P.
DIVISION IV.—NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES.											
Agra College	3	14	251	11	200	40	..	E. D. 76 O. D. 109	Visitor Oriental College, J. Thomason, Esq., Local Committee, and Principal	1,160 2 4	4 9 11
Delhi College and Institution	3	14	166	4	93	69	..	E. D. 55 O. D. 77	Ditto	1,258 4 3	7 9 3
Bareilly School	1	1	72	..	63	9	..	47	Local Committee	332 8 0	4 9 10
Meerut School	2	1	86	1	47	38	..	63	Ditto	428 0 6	4 15 7
Furrackabad School	2	2	116	2	96	18	..	70	Ditto	408 14 0	3 8 4
Ajmeer School	2	4	156	4	119	33	..	72	Ditto	473 6 4	3 0 6
Total	79	192	7,324	196	5,494	1,420	214	4,448		33,303 1 7	203 10 6

II. *List of the Government Institutions under the Council of Education and Government, in the General Department, at the end of* 1841-2, *i.e., on the* 30*th April*, 1842.

CALCUTTA.											
Hindoo College	5	17	520	..	520	..	..	427	Secretary of Council of Education and Principal	4,763 1 1	9 2 6
Medical College	7	4	87	25	60	2	..	M. C. 68 Sy. S. 65	Secretary of Council of Education and College Council	6,407 5 3	73 10 4*

Mahomedan Madrassa	2	11	253	..	..	253	..	E. D. 91 O. D. 120	Secretary of Council of Education and Superintendent Major Ouseley	2,779	9	8	10	15	9
Sanscrit College	..	10	118	..	118	..	..	80	Secretary of Council of Education	1,413	4	10	11	15	7
Hooghly.															
College of Mohammud Mohsin	4	39	964	16	621	327	..	E. D. 608 O. D. 167	Secretary of Council of Education and Principal	6,292	5	4	6	8	5
Hooghly Branch School	2	8	368	2	297	69	..	237	Ditto	520	2	0	1	6	7
Hooghly Infant School	1	1	54	4	45	5	..	40	Ditto	126	4	9	2	5	5
Seetapore Branch School	2	5	141	1	100	40	..	75	Ditto	262	5	2	1	13	9
(a)Tribanee Probational School	2	1	68	..	68	..	..	(b)	Ditto	1	10	0	0	0	4
(a)Umerpore Probational School	2	1	100	..	100	..	..	89	Ditto	9	10	0	0	1	6
Division I.—Bengal.															
Section I.															
(a)Bancoorah Probational School	1	2	199	..	188	11	..	34	Local Committee and Government (General Department)	1	15	8	0	0	2
Jessore School	1	4	158	..	156	2	..	67	Ditto	340	0	6	2	2	5
Dacca College	3	8	342	24	277	41	..	165	Local Committee, Principal, and Government (General Department)	971	13	2	2	13	5
Comillah School	2	1	83	1	74	8	..	50	Local Committee and Government (General Department)	331	8	2	3	15	10
Chittagong School	2	3	105	11	92	2	..	83	Ditto	545	15	11	5	3	2
Beauleah School	2	2	177	2	174	1	..	(b)	Ditto	272	15	1	1	8	8
(a)Burrisaul Probational School	1	2	61	8	50	3	..	(b)	Ditto	6	5	4	0	1	8
(a)Sylhet Probational School	1	2	151	4	127	20	..	(b)	Ditto	23	5	4	0	2	5
Orissa.															
Section II.															
Cuttack School	2	2	86	9	70	7	..	62	Ditto	283	7	6	3	4	9
Midnapore School	2	4	149	3	144	2	..	114	Ditto	511	12	4	3	6	11

* Vide note supra to Medical College.

II. *List of the Government Institutions under the Council of Education and Government, &c.*—continued.

Names of Schools.	Number of Masters.	Number of Assistants.	Number of Pupils.	Religion.				Average Attendance.	By whom Superintended.	Average Monthly Expense, from 30th April, 1841, to 30th April, 1842.	Average Cost Monthly to Government of Education per Head.
				Christians.	Hindoos.	Mahomedans.	Other Castes.				
THE EASTERN PROVINCES.										Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.
Section III.											
Gohawatee School	2	3	171	..	101	70	..	*212	Local Committee and Government (General Department)	681 12 4	3 15 9
Gohawatee Branch Schools†:—											
Nilachol	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	90			
Pandu	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	69			
Beltulla	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	58	Ditto	. .	. .
Amingong	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	27			
North Gohawatee	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	63			
Seebsaugor School	2	1	75	2	60	13	..	75	Ditto	250 0 0	3 5 4
Arracan — Akeyab School	2	3	56	8	3	1	44	(b)	Commissioner, Local Committee, and Government (General Department)	309 2 4	5 8 4
Arracan — Ramree School	1	3	79	1	1	46	31	50	Ditto	228 2 2	2 14 2
Moulmein School	2	1	65	15	3	6	41	(b)	Ditto	500 0 0	7 11 1
Tevoy and Mergui Branch Schools	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	(b)	Ditto	. .	. .
DIVISION II.—BEHAR.											
Patna School	2	3	107	17	71	19	..	73	Local Committee and Government (General Department)	785 0 11	7 5 4
Bhaugulpore Institution	2	1	66	1	63	2	..	49	Ditto	392 6 11	5 15 1
Bhaugulpore Hill School	1	1	104	..	..	11	93	67	Ditto	325 7 11	3 2 1

Division III.—Allahabad Division.												
Benares English Seminary, Branch School	4	6	19	15	166	10	..	131	Ditto	1,243 14 9	6 8 2	
Benares Oriental College	..	15	110	..	110	..	..	115‡	Ditto	1,083 4 0	9 13 6	
Ghazeepore School	2	1	183	15	124	44	..	115	Ditto	432 10 11	2 5 10	
Allahabad School	2	6	103	6	81	16	..	.	Ditto	688 13 8	6 11 0	
Saugor School	2	5	222	2	202	18	..	E. D. 77 H. D. 110	Ditto	518 10 9	2 5 4	
Jubbulpore School	1	4	174	7	122	45	..	E. D. 52 V. D. 90	Ditto	430 6 3	2 7 7	
Azimghur School	2	4	246	4	210	32	..	O. D. 113 E. D. 29	Ditto	473 9 5	1 14 9	
Goruckpore School	2	1	52	..	39	13	..	(5)	Ditto	192 4 0	3 11 2	
Division IV.—North-western Provinces.												
Agra College	3	16	346	2	260	65	..	E. D. 88 O. D. 124	Visitor, Local Committee, and Principal	2,301 6 8	6 10 5	
Delhi College and Institution	3	20	426	10	214	202	..	E. D. 106 O. D. 140	Ditto	2,582 1 9	6 0 11	
Bareilly School	2	2	85	..	77	8	..	72	Local Committee and Government (General Department)	456 7 10	5 5 11	
Meerut School	2	1	67	1	41	25	..	53	Ditto	422 13 11	6 4 11	
Furruckabad School	2	5	108	..	81	27	..	81	Ditto	388 10 1	3 9 6	
Ajmeer School	2	4	171	5	125	41	..	48	Ditto	617 14 4	3 9 9	
Total	87	233	7,391	240	5,435	1,507	209	5,019		41,169 14 0	247 15 6	

* An error, but is so stated in the local return. † Elementary, and not directly under this office. ‡ An error, see C. 4, but sic in local returns.

The preceding 11 tables suggest the following observations. The first feature is the proportion of the Mahomedan students to the Hindoo. Opinions are expressed in the reports that the Mahomedan population are averse to receive European instruction, but the final numbers in the returns do not seem to authorize these opinions. The total number of pupils in 1843 was 8,203, under the Bengal and Agra governments, and of this number 1,621 were Moslems, and 6,140 Hindoos. Some statisticians have estimated the Mahomedan population as low as 1 Mahomedan to 14 Hindoos; while the highest estimate, I believe, does not exceed 1 to 9. In either case, the proportion of the Mahomedan students far exceeds the proportion of the Hindoo students relatively to their respective population, being, in fact, 1 in 5·06 of the whole students. The next feature is, that more than five-eighths, or 5,132 of the whole students learn English; while only 426 learn Sanscrit, 572 Arabic, and 706 Persian. The two former are necessary in the study of Hindoo and Mahomedan law; and it would hence appear that those studies can scarcely be prosecuted with a vigour proportioned to their importance. The Bengal language, after English, has the greatest number of students, viz., 2,718; followed by the Hindee, 1,819, and Oordoo 1,504, the last two being chiefly spoken under the Agra Government.. There are 253 Christians in the schools, and 189 who are neither Christians, Mahomedans, nor Hindoos: these are chiefly Buddhists, at Moulmein, or low castes of the Bhaugulpoor Hills. A marked feature of the tables also, is the fact that, under the Agra Government, out of 2,420 pupils, only 42 pay for instruction. In Bengal, 1,572 pay, and 4,211 receive gratuitous instruction. This is a questionable, but probably inevitable policy at the present time; and the Bengal Government are desirous of modifying it. The Bombay Government have found advantages in imposing a school-fee, although very trifling in amount.

It being quite impossible to appreciate fully the mastery which the native mind is capable of obtaining over European subjects of science and literature, without a perusal of the examination papers for senior and junior scholarships, I annex some of them from various colleges; and as from the details which I have given respecting the mode of conducting examinations collusion amongst the students would appear to be impracticable, I presume others, like myself, will feel a surprise which would lead some to doubt of the possibility of a native of India attaining the proficiency described, were it not that the high character of those who attest this proficiency in their reports place beyond all question the facts, and it is only left to us to express our admiration at results so unexpected and gratifying.

Bengal has several orphan and private schools, with the details of which I am unacquainted; moreover, they do not come within the objects of the present paper.

Scholarship Examination Questions for 1842–43.

Literature.—*Senior.*

Subject for Essay.—"On the effects produced on the fortunes of different nations, and on mankind in general, by the individual character of remarkable persons, illustrated from History."

"Or let my lamp at midnight hour
Be seen in some high lonely tower,
Where I may oft outwatch the Bear
With thrice-great Hermes, or unsphere
The spirit of Plato, to unfold
What worlds or what vast regions hold
The immortal mind that hath forsook
Her mansion in this fleshly nook:
And of those demons that are found
In fire, air, flood, or under ground,
Whose power hath a true consent
With planet or with element.
Some time let gorgeous Tragedy
In scepter'd pall come sweeping by,
Presenting Thebes or Pelops' line,
Or the tale of Troy divine;
Or what (though rare) of later age
Ennobled hath the buskin'd stage."

1. What is the meaning of "outwatch the Bear?"
2. Who is "thrice-great Hermes?"
3. What is the meaning of "unsphere the spirit of Plato?"
4. For what purpose does the Poet desire to unsphere the spirit of Plato, and why does he fix upon Plato for that purpose?
5. What is the meaning of "a true consent with planet or with element?"
6. Write out the substance of the six last lines in prose, substituting literal for figurative expressions, and expanding the whole, so as to show whether you completely understand the force of every expression, the meaning of every allusion, &c.
7. From what author and from what poem are these lines taken?

It is an assured truth which is contained in the verses:

"To have carefully learned the ingenious arts
Softens the manners and takes off their rudeness."

Learning taketh away the wildness and barbarism and fierceness of men's minds, but indeed the accent had need be upon *carefully*, for a little superficial learning doth rather work the contrary effect. It taketh away all levity, temerity, and insolency, by copious suggestion of all doubts and difficulties, and acquainting the mind to balance reason on both sides, and to turn back the first offers and conceits of the mind, and to accept of nothing but examined and tried. It taketh away vain admiration of any thing, which is the root of all weakness; for all things are admired either because they are new, or because they are great. For novelty, no man that wadeth in learning or contemplation thoroughly, but will find that printed in his heart; "There is nothing new upon the earth." Neither can any man marvel at the play of puppets, that goeth behind the clown, and deviseth well of the motion.

And for magnitude, as Alexander the Great, after that he was used to great armies, and the great conquests of the spacious provinces in Asia, when he received letters out of Greece of some fights and services there, which were commonly for a passage or a fort or some walled town, at the most, he said, "It seemed to him that he was advised of the battles of the frogs and mice, that the old tales went of."—So certainly if a man meditate upon the universal frame of nature, the earth with men upon it, (the divineness of souls excepted,) will not seem much other than an ant-hill, where some ants carry corn, and some carry their young, and some go empty, and all to and fro, a little heap of dust. It taketh away or mitigateth fear of death, or adverse fortune, which is one of the greatest impediments of virtue and imperfections of manners. For if a man's mind be deeply seasoned with the consideration of the mortality and corruptible nature of things, he will easily concur with Epictetus, who went forth one day and saw a woman weeping for her pitcher of earth that was broken, and went forth the next day and saw a woman weeping for her son that was dead, and thereupon said, y'sterday I saw a fragile thing broken, to-day I saw a mortal thing perish.

And therefore Virgil did excellently and profoundly couple the knowledge of causes and the conquest of all fears together as things concomitant.

"Happy he who hath been able to discover the causes of things, and to cast under his feet all fears and inexorable fate, the noise of the devouring gulf.

It were too long to go over the particular remedies which learning doth minister to all the diseases of the mind; sometimes purging the ill humours, sometimes opening the obstructions, sometimes helping digestion, sometimes increasing appetite, sometimes healing the wounds and exulcerations thereof, and the like, and therefore I will conclude with that, which is worth all the rest, which is that it disposeth the constitution of the mind not to be fixed and settled in the defects thereof, but still to be capable and susceptible of growth and reformation.

For the unlearned man knows not what it is to descend into himself, or to call himself to account, nor the pleasure of that most delightful life, the feeling that we are day by day improving. The good parts he hath, he will learn to show to the full, and to use them dexterously, but not much to increase them. The faults he has, he will learn how to hide and colour them, not much to amend them, like an ill mower that mows on still, and never whets his scythe; whereas with the learned man it fares otherwise, that he doth ever intermix the correction and amendment of his mind with the use and employment thereof.

Nay farther, in general and in sum, certain it is, that truth and goodness differ, but as the seal and the print, for truth prints goodness, and they be the clouds of error, which descend in the storms of passions and perturbations.

1. "But indeed the accent need be upon *carefully*."

Explain this fully, giving the reason why the accent need be upon *carefully*.

2. "No man that wadeth in learning or contemplation thoroughly."

Is the word wadeth, literal or figurative; if figurative, give an example of its literal meaning?

3. "And for the magnitude, as Alexander the Great," &c.

Explain this fully.

What sort of person is Alexander compared to?

What are the great armies and great provinces of Asia compared to?

What are the fights and services mentioned in the letters out of Greece compared to by Alexander the Great in this story? And what are they here compared to by the author?

4. "Like an ill mower that mows on still and never whets his scythe."

What is the scythe compared to, and what is the whetting of it compared to?

5. "Truth and goodness differ but as the seal and the print, for truth prints goodness, and they be the clouds of error which descend in the storms of passions and perturbations."

Explain this as fully as you can.

6. From what author and from what work is this passage taken?

MATHEMATICS.—*Senior.*

1. The angles which one right line makes with another upon one side of it, are either two right angles, or are together equal to two right angles.

2. Define a parallelogram. Parallelograms on the same base and between the same parallels are equal to one another. Show that if any quadrilateral figure be bisected by both its diagonals it is a parallelogram.

3. To describe upon a given right line a segment of a circle which shall contain an angle equal to a given rectilineal angle.

The base, the vertical angle, and one of the other sides of a triangle are given; construct it.

4. Equal triangles which have one angle of the one equal to one angle of the other, have their sides about the equal angles reciprocally proportional: and triangles which have one angle of the one equal to one angle of the other, and their sides about the equal angles reciprocally proportional, are equal.

5. A common tangent is drawn to two circles which touch externally: if a circle be described on that part of it which lies between the point of contact, as a diameter, this circle will pass through the points of contact of the two circles, and touch the line joining their centres.

6. Extract the square root of $6x - 28x^3 + 49x^4 + \frac{9}{4} - 17x^2$. And add

$$\frac{1}{a-b.\,a-c.\,b+c.} + \frac{1}{b-a.\,b-c.\,a+c.} + \frac{1}{c-a.\,c-b.\,a+b.}$$

7. If the product $a\,b$ be divisible by c, and b and c are prime to each other, then will c be a division of a.

8. Solve the equations,

$$\alpha.\quad \frac{18x-19}{28}+\frac{11x+21}{6x+14}=\frac{9x+15}{14}.$$

$$\beta.\quad \begin{cases}\sqrt{y}-\sqrt{y-x}=\sqrt{20-x}.\\ \sqrt{y-x}\ :\ \sqrt{20-x}::3:2.\end{cases}$$

$$\gamma.\quad \begin{cases}y^4-432=12\,x\,y^2.\\ y^2=12+2\,x\,y.\end{cases}$$

9. Expand $\{x^{\frac{1}{2}}-y^{\frac{1}{2}}\}^{2m-3}$ by the Binomial theorem to 5 terms, and write down the $\overline{2n+1}th$ term.

10. Convert 423154 from a scale whose radix is 6, to one whose radix is 12.

Find two fractions whose denominators shall be 7 and 9, and their sum equal to $\frac{19}{21}$.

11. Trace the changes in the sign and magnitude of sec. A, as A increases from 0° to 360°.

$$\text{Show that tan. } \frac{2\text{ A}}{2}=\frac{2\text{ sin. A}-\text{sin. 2 A.}}{2\text{ sin. A}+\text{sin. 2 A.}}$$

12. A person standing at the edge of a river observes that the top of a tower on the opposite side subtends an angle of 55° with a horizontal line drawn from his eye: receding 30 feet, he then finds it to subtend an angle of 48°: determine the breadth of the river.

log. sin. 7 = 9·08589 log. sin. 35 = 9·75859
log. cos. 42 = 9·87107 log. 270 = 2·43136
log. 1·0493 = ·02089.

13. Express $(\cos.\theta)^n$ in terms of the cosines of multiples of θ, n being any positive integer. Ex. $(\cos.\theta)_6$.

14. Find a length of a perpendicular, let fall from a given point on a given straight line.

15. Find the equation to the tangent of a parabola: when will the normal at the extremity of the latus rectum cut the axis of y?

16. The rectangle contained by the perpendiculars let fall from the foci of an ellipse or hyperbola on the tangent at any point, is equal to the square of the semi-axis minor.

17. The equation to a conic section is $5y^2+2xy+5x^2-12x-12y=0$, find its centre, and the magnitudes and positions of its principal axes.

HISTORY.—*Senior.*

I. When did the thirty tyrants hold sway in Athens? What circumstances led to this sway? What bearing had the politics of Sparta on Athens at the time? Mention as many of the names of the thirty as you recollect. What was the occasion of the death of Theramenes? Had he a nickname, and what was his character? How did Critias come by his death; and who was the leader by whom the thirty tyrants were overthrown?

II. What do you know respecting the philosophy of Plato? How did it differ from the system of Epicurus?

III. When did the Macedonian or Grecian kingdom cease in Syria, and to what power and leader did it yield?

IV. Do you know anything concerning the route by which the army of Alexander the Great returned from the Indus to Babylon? Had he a fleet? Who commanded it? Whence and to what place did it steer, and where did the sea rejoin the land force?

V. Wherein consisted the most striking difference between the character as rulers of Trajan and Hadrian,—and did not the latter always remain at Rome, fascinated by the amusements of that capital?

VI. What were the circumstances that led to the elevation of the Emperor Maximin, and what was his character as a man and a ruler?

VII. What do you know respecting the history of the Emperor Diocletian? What is that event in it similar to one in the life of Charles V., Emperor of Germany?

VIII. What do you know regarding the character of the Emperor Julian? In his march through Assyria was there any incident similar to what we read of in the history of the states of Holland? Had Julian a fleet?—if so, how got it into the Tigris? What became of it? Describe the circumstances of the death of Julian.

IX. What were the principal events in the reign of Henry VII. of England—and what was the state of the police during the greater part of his reign?

X. What caused the civil war in Charles the First's time—and what was the court of Star Chamber? and mention the names of some of those who suffered by its sentence—and the reasons of their being arraigned by that court.

XI. What were the principal events of Queen Anne's reign? Mention also the principal statesmen and literary characters of that epoch.

XII. What was the character of Akbar's reign? Where did he usually reside? Who were the remarkable characters of his court? Mention his contemporaries on the principal Asiatic and European thrones.

XIII. What circumstances led to the elevation of Aurungzebe? Had he many competitors for the throne? What was his character as a ruler and a man. Who was Sevajee, and did he ever come into collision with Aurungzebe—and on what occasion? Do you recollect any thing about Aurungzebe's visit to Benares?

XIV. State the circumstances that put an end to the dynasty of Shah Soojah as Soobadar of Bengal? When was the battle of Gheria fought? Who was the successful commander, and what results did his victory lead to?

NATURAL PHILOSOPHY.—*Senior.*

1. Define the centre of gravity, and also the specific gravity of a body. Define a fluid, and state some of the properties of fluids.

2. Two given forces act upon a body considered as a point in different directions; determine the direction and magnitude of a third force to keep the body at rest.

3. Explain how it is that a ship is enabled to sail in a direction nearly opposite to that of the wind.

4. Where is the fulcrum in an oar? Graduate the steelyard having a moveable fulcrum.

5. What practical method would you adopt for measuring the solid contents of an irregular body? Compare the specific gravity of two fluids by weighing a globe in each.

6. State and explain the hydrostatic paradox.

7. Explain the action of the common suction pump; and show whether the force requisite to draw up the piston increases or diminishes after each stroke.

8. Will a heated body cool sooner in a vacuum or in air, and why? If the effect of heat be to make bodies expand, how is it that ice floats in water?

9. Explain fully the use of the condenser in the steam engine.

10. An object is placed between two parallel minors A and B, at a distance of one foot from A, and two feet from B; find the distances of the 3rd and 4th images in A from the object.

11. Give a brief description of the eye, and show how an image is formed on the retina. What is the cause of short-sightedness, and what lens is used to rectify it.

12. Has the refraction of the atmosphere a tendency to increase or diminish the length of each day? How do you account for twilight; why is it longer the further you go from the equator?

13. Has a body the same weight at different places on the earth's surface? How is the weight of a body at the Equator compared with its weight nearer the pole.

14. State the three laws observed by Kepler concerning the motions of the planets; and the conclusion deduced from these laws about the force acting upon them.

Senior Scholarships.

LITERATURE.—*Answers.*

Poetry.

1st. The meaning of "outwatched the Bear," is to watch till the constellation Bear disappeared; that is, to remain watching till that constellation was set.

2nd. Mercury is thrice great Hermes.

3rd. The meaning of the passage "unsphere the spirit of Plato," is to break open, as it were, the spirit of Plato.

4th. The poet, in order to unfold what worlds, or what vast regions hold the immortal mind which has left the fleshly body, wishes to unsphere the spirit of Plato; and the reason why he chose Plato for that purpose is, that Plato has taught the immortality of the soul, and therefore the poet has very properly fixed upon him for this purpose.

5th. This passage, "a true consent with planet or with element," means a just agreement or coincidence with planet or with element; and this observation is just, because the poet says, that the power of demons has a true consent with planet or with element. The power of demons is apt to do evil, as the evil influence of planets which, according to superstitious notions, is considered as ominous.

6th. Let gorgeous tragedy come in scepter'd pall; for some time, presenting before the stage, either anything regarding Thebes, or the Pelopidæ, or any thing respecting the tale of ancient Troy, or that which, in modern times, has improved the buskined stage.

7th. This passage is taken from Milton's Il Penseroso.

DEGUMBER BISSWAS.

Prose.

1st. "But indeed the accent had need be upon carefully." This passage is explained as follows:—The author is here speaking of learning, and therefore he says, that the accent had need be upon carefully, that is, the word is to be used carefully, lest a little and superficial knowledge of any thing is to be understood by the word learning, as such knowledge often happens to pass for learning. This passage brings to my mind a couplet of Pope, which is somewhat similar to it.

"Little learning is a dangerous thing,
Drink deep or taste not the Pyarean spring."

2nd. The word wadeth is figurative here.

3rd. The author compares Alexander the Great to the astronomer or the philosopher, who meditates upon the universal frame of nature.

The fights and services mentioned in the letter out of Greece, are compared by Alexander to the battle of the frogs and mice; that is, they are trifling and of very little importance.

4th. The scythe is compared to the faults of the man who tries to colour and hide them, and the whetting of it, is compared to the amendment of those faults.

5th. This is taken from Bacon's advancement of Learning.

DEGUMBER BISSWAS, *1st Class.*

PRIZE ESSAYS.

On the effects produced on the fortunes of different nations, and of mankind in general, by the individual characters of remarkable persons: illustrated from history.

All histories concur in showing us, that the fortunes of every nation depended more or less on the character of some individuals. Whether we consider the rise, the progress, or the sudden fall of a nation, or their improvement in any way, in each of these stages, the hand of some single person, acting in some way or other, is often visible. It is true, that a single person, without the assistance of subordinate hands cannot found a city or conquer a nation; but it is no less true, that a body without a head is of no use. Though Lord Napier was obliged to have recourse to inferior abilities in addition to his own, to make the table of Logarithms, it does not follow from that, that without his superintendence the same work would have been performed; but that he, without their help, could have done it if he had time, none can doubt. Hence all changes that occur in any country, the source, immediate or remote, may be traced to some individual.

There are different ways in which individuals can exercise their influence on the fortunes of nations. A conqueror can benefit man by encouraging colonization, or by facilitating communication with different nations. Hence, considering the advantages which mankind reaped by the foundation of Alexandria by Alexander the Great, as a means of communication between the different nations of the then known world, for carrying on trade, we can conceive what an immense influence the character of a single person had on the affairs of nations at large. The instance of Epaminondas shows most strikingly what effect the exertions of an individual can produce on the fortunes of a nation. The Theban power rose and fell with him. The free and republican spirited Romans who sacrificed their most illustrious citizen, Julius Cæsar, to their suspicion of his assuming absolute power, were rendered extremely slavish by Augustus. Washington was the man who obtained the independence of the American colonies. Many are the examples of this class of men: we know a Tamerlane, a Mahomet, a Shivajee, &c., men endowed with extraordinary abilities, and distinguished for being the authors of alteration (in human affairs,) as extraordinary.

A legislator has an influence on the fortunes of his fellow-creatures by his laws, which as they are good or bad, produce a corresponding effect on them. Thus we see Solon restored order and harmony to Athens, and increased the happiness of the citizens. Lycurgus made his subjects warlike and brave, but by prohibiting commerce and learning he greatly injured them.

There is another class of men, upon whom the fortunes of men greatly depend—the discoverers of countries. The discovery of America, which was the work of a single man, enriched some of the European nations, and opened to them a new field for commerce. Some men there are who from religious enthusiasm become the cause of great changes in the affairs of men, as Mahomet the Prophet. It was he, and he alone, that raised the Arabs from a state of insignificance to be a conquering and famous nation. Hence we find that, both in ancient and modern times, the fortunes of nations and of mankind in general had greatly depended on the individual characters of remarkable persons.

NOBINCHUNDER DOSS.

HISTORY.—*Answers.*

1. The thirty tyrants held their sway in Athens about the year 404, B.C. The immediate circumstance which led to this sway, was the utter defeat of the Athenian fleet under Conon in the battle of Egospotamos. At this time Athens became a province subject to Sparta, and governed by thirty tyrants named by Lysander, who was then at the head of the Spartan affairs. Of the names of the thirty, the following I recollect at this moment—Theramenes, Critias, Allytus, Dinocertus, &c. Almost all the thirty tyrants rendered their names hateful throughout Athens, by their cruelties and atrocities, but Theramenes did not partake in their crimes; he always denied his assent to their plans, a circumstance which made those wretches seek his destruction, and which they ultimately effected through the assistance of Lysander. The character of Theramenes, says a historian, deserves our admiration. He was noble in his principles, upright in his conduct, and deliberate in his councils. He was a good citizen, an affectionate husband, and at least a tolerable ruler. He had, says a celebrated historian, Rollin, the misfortune of becoming one of the tyrants. Had he remained a private man, his character would have been unstained. Critias, after the death of Theramenes, became at the head of thirty tyrants. But they were not long to continue: the noble Thrasybulus, excited by the love of his country, overthrew the tyrants by an Act usually called the Sister Act of Pelopidas.

2. Plato's idea of the origin of evil, was that God created no such thing as evil, it originates in the depravity of man's mind when it searches after spurious ways for happiness. In his dualistic system he taught that God and matter are two principles eternally opposite, differing not only by their essence, but they have no common principle to unite them. He maintained the immortality of the soul. In his dialectic system he taught that truth is only discernible by the understanding. That the knowledge of things depends more or less upon our perception. The Platonic philosophy differs from the Epicurean in this respect: Epicurus taught that God and matter are not only connected in their essence, but that every particle of matter proceeds from him.

3. The Macedonian kingdom in Syria ceased after the defeat of Antiochus by

Scipio Asiaticus about 200 years before the Christian era; it then became a Roman province.

4. The army of Alexander in their passage from the Indus to Babylon visited the Indian ocean. The fleet in which his army sailed was commanded by Nearchus. It steered from Attock to Babylon. The sea rejoined the land force on the banks of the Tigris.

5. The most striking difference between the character as rulers of Trajan and Hadrian consisted in this, that while the former attempted to extend the limits of the empire by new conquests, the latter was of opinion that the empire should be bounded within the limits prescribed by the judicious policy of Augustus: he therefore restored the provinces lately conquered by his predecessor. It is said, that Trajan could scarcely remain three months together in the capital, whereas his successor always remained at Rome.

6. The licentious and atrocious conduct of Heliogabalus had entirely disseminated the minds of the Pretorian guards, who were then the sole disposers of the empire. He was governed by his mother, a woman of infamous character, and this circumstance put a flame to the rage of the already provoked guards, and terminated in the elevation of Maximin.

7. The beginning of the reign of Diocletian was remarkable for the victories gained by him over the Panonians, and over the barbarians who infested the northern part of the empire. While Diocletian was thus victoriously carrying his arms, he astonished the world by abdicating the throne of the world, and preferring to retire as a private man into his native country of Dalmatia. The event alluded to as similar to one of the events in the history of Charles V. of Germany, was his abdication.

9. The principal events in the reign of Henry VII. of England, were the plots of Lambert Simnel, instigated by Simon, Bishop of Oxford, who counterfeited the Duke of Warwick, his failure and imprisonment; and of Perkin Warbeck, who gave out himself as Richard Duke of York, son of Edward IV., his intended war with Charles VIII. of France, and preparation for that event. The latter circumstance would have deserved no mention, had it not been for the fact that he levied taxes, (particularly that which is known in history by the name of benevolence, abolished by the statute of Richard III., a measure which rendered that tyrant popular,) under the pretence of the French war. The constant aim of Henry was to check the exorbitant power of the nobility; it was a policy wise indeed, since it saved the kingdom from the aristocratical tyranny, but his motive was selfish. His reign was the termination of the middle ages, and with him begins the constitutional history of England. It was in his time that the passage round the Cape of Good Hope was discovered by Vasco de Gama, and the discovery of America by Christopher Columbus took place. The police throughout the greater part of the reign of Henry was in a disordered state, and not much care was taken.

10. The civil wars broke out in the time of Charles I. from the circumstances of raising ship-money, of levying benevolence, and several other taxes not voted by the Parliament. This breach of the constitution was sufficient to raise a spirit of opposition, and the parliamentarians began to show symptoms of resisting the king in his proceedings. The unfortunate king, doomed to pay dearly for the faults of his predecessors, paid no regard to the remonstrances of the nation. The people at last made a petition to the king, called the petition of rights, and compelled him to sign it. But Charles violated the deed which he signed. Now the popular fury knew no bound, and thus broke out the civil war of England. The Court of Star Chamber was a court composed of judges elected by the king, to take cognizance of matters such as out of ordinary course of things. The judges continue in their office according to the pleasure of the king.

11. The principal events in the reign of Queen Anne, was the union of England and Scotland in jurisdiction. The French war, in which the Duke of Marlborough made himself conspicuous, by the glorious victories of Blenheim, Malplaquet, and Ramillies.

The succession to the throne was settled to the Elector of Hanover, the grandson of Princess Sophia, daughter of James I.

The principal statesmen of this period were Haily, the Duke of Oxford, Bolingbroke, and several others.

The literary characters of that period were Alexander Pope, John Dryden, Joseph Addison, Savage, Butler, Gray, and several other mi or wits.

12. The reign of Akbar is a glorious epoch in the history of the Moguls. He

was himself a lover of justice, and administered it among his subjects with impartiality. He made no distinction between the Mahomedans and the natives, and hence he was loved by almost all. He usually resided at Delhi. The principal characters of his court were Mahummud Khanjehrn, Surfan Khan, and Amirhusen.

13. Shahjehan, the father of Aurungzebe, fell sick, when the latter was in the Deccan. He hasted to the capital, and here threw his father into prison by intrigues, which put an indelible stain on his memory, and thus ascended to the throne of Delhi. He had his three brothers competitors in the beginning, whom he overcame by means equally unjust and disgraceful.

Aurungzebe afterwards had an extraordinary rival in the person of a woman, who, by her bounties to the Faqueers, collected a large number of them, who declared her empress. In the beginning Aurungzebe took no notice of the matter, but when the rabble about her had been rendered invulnerable, it was given out, by her enchantment, her followers began to increase, and Aurungzebe then became sensible of the danger which threatened him. But happily Aurungzebe had an equal degree of fame for sanctity he wrote some illegible characters on a slip of paper, and put it on the head of a spear, the imperial troops being thus encouraged, soon gained a victory over the rabble, and they were dispersed.

The character of Aurungzebe was a mixture of many vices, with a few counterbalancing virtues. He was extremely selfish, and unscrupulous of committing any means which would serve his purpose. He was superstitious to the highest degree. But as a ruler Aurungzebe must be confessed an able sovereign. Sevajee was the son of Dadajee, a Maharatta chief. He came in collision with Aurungzebe in the Deccan in his conquest; and on one occasion taken prisoner to Delhi, he escaped from his prison by an artifice, and continued for several years an enemy to Aurungzebe.

14. The battle of Gheria was fought between Sarfraz Khan and Aliverdy Khan; Aliverdy was successful, and he became the Soobadar of Bengal.

SAMKRISTO PAULIT.

Now it will be recollected that all these answers were written from memory, and without any assistance; and the scholars, therefore, proved themselves indeed worthy of their scholarships.

The mistakes of the scholars are preserved in the above replies.

Scholarship Examination Questions, 1843–4.

LITERATURE.—*Senior.*

He thought, also, there was found in the mind of man an affection naturally bred and fortified, and furthered by discourse and doctrine, which did pervert the true proceeding towards active and operative knowledge.

This was a false estimation, that it should be as a diminution to the mind of man to be much conversant in experiences and particulars, subject to sense, and bound in matter, and which are laborious to search, ignoble to meditate, harsh to deliver, illiberal to practise, infinite as is supposed in number, and no ways accommodated to the glory of arts.

This opinion or state of mind received much credit and strength by the school of Plato, who thinking that particulars rather revived the notions, or excited the faculties of the mind, than merely informed; and having mingled his philosophy with superstition, which never favoureth the sense, extolleth too much the understanding of man in the inward light thereof; and again Aristotle's school, which giveth the due to the sense in assertion, denieth it in practice much more than that of Plato.

For we see the schoolmen, Aristotle's successors, which were utterly ignorant of history, rested only upon agitation of wit; whereas Plato giveth good example of inquiry by induction and view of particulars; though in such a wandering manner as if of no force or fruit. So that he saw well that the supposition of the sufficiency of man's mind hath lost the means thereof.

1. What is meant by, "That it should be as a diminution to the mind of man, &c."?

2. State in your own words the doctrine of Plato which is here alluded to.

3. What does the author mean by saying, "That Superstition never favoureth the sense?"

4. State in your own words what (according to the author) is "the difference between the school of Plato and Aristotle in assertion, and what is the difference in practice."

5. In what sense are the schoolmen here said to have been "utterly ignorant of history?"

6. What is meant by their resting only upon agitation of wit?

7. What is the meaning of the last sentence?

8. What is the scope of the whole passage?

Macbeth.—Two truths are told
As happy prologues to the swelling act
Of the imperial theme—
This supernatural soliciting
Cannot be ill; cannot be good.—If ill,
Why hath it given me earnest of success,
Commencing in a truth? I am Thane of Cawdor;
If good, why do I yield to that suggestion,
Whose horrid image doth unfix my hair,
And make my seated heart knock at my ribs,
Against the use of nature? Present fears
Are less than horrible imaginings:
My thought, whose murder yet is but fantastical,
Shakes so my single state of man, that function
Is smother'd in surmise; and nothing is
But what is not.

1. "Two truths are told as happy prologues to the swelling act of the imperial theme."

What were the two truths, and what was the imperial theme?

2. "I am Thane of Cawdor."

What does Macbeth intend to prove by this assertion?

3. Explain "whose murder yet is but fantastical."

4. Explain "that function is smother'd in surmise."

5. Explain "and nothing is but what is not."

But sometimes virtue starves while vice is fed:
What then? Is the reward of virtue bread?
That vice may merit, 'tis the price of toil;
The knave deserves it when he tills the soil;
The knave deserves it when he tempts the main,
Where folly fights for kings, or dives for gain.
The good man may be weak, be indolent:
Nor is his claim to plenty, but content;
But grant him riches, your demand is o'er?
No—shall the good want health, the good want power?
Add health and power, and every earthly thing,
Why bounded power? why private? why no king?
Nay, why external for internal given?
Why is not man a god, and earth a heaven?
Who ask and reason thus will scarce conceive
God gives enough while he has more to give;
Immense the power, immense were the demand:
Says, at what part of nature will they stand?
What nothing earthly gives, or can destroy,
The soul's calm sunshine and the heartfelt joy,
Is virtue's prize:

Write a paraphrase of this passage from Pope, in prose, substituting for every interrogation a corresponding affirmation, and for every pronoun the noun which it represents.

HISTORICAL QUESTIONS.—*Senior.*

1. Give some account of the Gracchi—their descent and character, and the state of parties in Rome at the time they flourished.
2. What was the Mithridatic war, and who were the principal Roman Generals engaged?
3. State (1) the origin of the Achæan league, (2) the principles on which it was established, (3) its termination, and (4) the chief characters who figured in it.
4. Give some account, with dates, of the Battles of the Metaurus, Mycale, Arginusæ, Delium, Chæronea, and Mutina.
5. At what time, and under what Emperors, did the final division of the Roman Empire into East and West take place? and what countries were comprehended in each division?
6. Give the line of policy pursued by Henry VII. in his Internal Government, and the means by which he carried it into effect.
7. What events led to the English wars with France in the 13th and 14th centuries? How did the English finally lose possession of their conquests.
8. State the rise and progress of the representation of the Commons in England.
9. Mention some events in the lives of Sebaktagin, Nadir Shah, Scraji, Mahomed Toglak, and Holkar.
10. Describe the religious opinions, political designs, and revenue system of Akbar.
11. When did the Romans first become acquainted with the Oriental mode of warfare, and in what respects did it principally differ from their own?
12. What are the earliest Historical Records among uncivilized nations? and what are the changes which they usually undergo before we arrive at the period of true History? Illustrate this by instances from the Histories of Greece and Rome, of India, and of Europe.

GEOMETRY.—*Senior.*

1. To a given straight line apply a parallelogram, which shall be equal to a given triangle, and have one of its angles equal to a given rectilineal angle.
2. If a straight line be divided into any two parts, the square on the whole is equal to the sum of the squares on the parts with twice the rectangle contained by the parts.
3. The opposite angles of a quadrilateral figure inscribed in a circle are equal to two right angles.

Give also the demonstration of the converse.

4. The area of a triangle is equal to half the product of its base multiplied by its altitude.
5. Describe an isosceles triangle having each of the angles at the base double of the vertical angle.

Give the construction for inscribing the regular decagon in a circle.

ALGEBRA.—*Senior.*

6. Find the square root of $4x^8 - 16x^6 - 16x^5 + 12x^4 + 32x^3 + 24x^2 + 8x + 1$.
7. Divide a number a into two such parts, that the sum of the quotients, which it contains, when one part is divided by m and the other by n, may equal b.
8. Required two numbers whose sum is $\frac{1}{5}$ of their product, and the greater is to the less as 3 to 2.
9. Given $\left\{\begin{matrix} x + y = a \\ x^4 + y^4 = b \end{matrix}\right\}$ to find x and y.
10. Find such a number, that if we take it seven times from its square, the remainder will be 44.

PLANE TRIGONOMETRY.—*Senior.*

11. If A B be 8, A C 7·2, and B C 12 miles, and the angle A D B 107° 56′ 13″: required the distances D A, D C, and D B.
12. The two sides of a right angled plane triangle, which contain the right angle, are 242·7 and 321·2, required the hypothenuse.
13. At the top of a castle which stood on a hill near the sea-shore, the angle of depression of a ship's hull at anchor was 4° 52′, at the bottom of the castle the

angle of depression was 4° 2′. Required the horizontal distance of the vessel, and the height of the hill on which the castle stands above the level of the sea, the castle itself being 64 feet high.

NATURAL PHILOSOPHY.—*Senior.*

1. Illustrate the different kinds of levers, and calculate the advantages gained by each.
2. State the law for the transmission of force through a rigid body, and deduce it from the principle of two equal and opposite forces balancing upon such a body.
3. Describe the formation and use of the Screw.
4. Describe the Hydrostatic Press, and explain the principle of its action.
5. Describe the Air-pump, and some of the principal experiments for which it is employed.
6. The Cylinder of an Air-Pump = one-fifth the contents of the receiver: required to find the exhaustion at the fourth stroke.
7. Explain and illustrate the principle of the Compound Microscope.
8. Explain the principles on which all telescopes are constructed.
9. State briefly the principles on which the Calender is constructed, and the nature of the Julian and Gregorian corrections.
10. State Kepler's three planetary laws, and deduce its own proper consequence from each.

ANSWERS.—AUNUND KISSEN BOSE.

Bacon.

1. The ancient philosophers, who delighted themselves in the luxuriance of imagination, rejected with disdain the aid of experience, which they thought was too humble and mean a guide to follow. They were as yet untutored by the truths of inductive philosophy, and hence they were led to make too poor an estimate of the tedious and irksome process of analysis and generalization.

This is the false estimation that Bacon here alludes to. To be much conversant in experience and particulars was, in the opinion of the ancients, a degradation from the dignity of the human mind, and an occupation which seemed to contract its powers. They feared nothing so much as to be too matter-of-fact minded. They did not deign to examine the limits of their power; they therefore plunged themselves into inquiries which are beyond the reach of the human intellect; their speculations in theology, however sublime and transcendant, were carried too far to betray at once the energy and weakness of man. These reflections they thought were congenial to their nature, and hence derided such exertions as were directed to the discovery of truths which are subject to the sense; little knowing how to rise up "from Nature up to Nature's God." They found it more easy to invent a hypothesis for the explanation of a phenomenon than to search for its real cause; hence they call the search tedious; "ignoble to meditate" in comparison with the Divine speculations above alluded to; "harsh to deliver," because on such subjects they could not make a display of their eloquence, which they were ardently fond of, their delivery being reduced to a bare rationale of facts; "illiberal to practise," because they thought it to be of a degrading occupation; "infinite in number," because they knew not how to generalize.

2. The doctrine of Plato here alluded to is that there is, nothing new on the earth, and that all knowledge is but remembrance—he supposed that the mind is filled with the image of existing things from the very beginning, and that the senses cannot be accounted as the origin of knowledge; but as instruments, by which our notion of things, which lies dormant, becomes revived.

3. Superstition requires the immediate interference of the Deity in all the operations of Nature, and claims the peculiar privilege of explaining every physical, mental and moral phenomenon, by some development of supernatural agency. Her votaries fall into an error just opposite to that of the Atheists; the latter rest on "second causes scattered;" the former deny at once the efficiency of second causes; hence superstition cannot stoop to acknowledge the genuine functions of the senses; it is her interest to condemn them as fallacious. She valueth more the false operations, and the innate energy of the man wit in, than the indispensable aid of the man without.

4. The followers of Aristotle maintained, in their dialogues and discourses, that

the senses are the origin of our knowledge, which the Platonists denied; but the latter, in their reasoning and inquiry, take a view of particular examples, and make and approach to induction, though in a manner showing that they set not the least value upon it; while the former in their mode of argumentation betrayed a supine neglect of the aid of experience, a minute attention to rules of synthesis, without regard to the nature of the results they brought out. Hence the followers of Aristotle "give the due to the sense in assertions," (which the Platonists do not acknowledge,) and deny it much more in practice than those of Plato.

6. They rested only upon agitation of wit; that is, they rested only upon the deductions of theory without stooping to compare them with those of experience, or bringing the aid of the latter to bear upon the former. The schoolmen were particularly famous for their singular array of arguments, compact and beautiful in their superstructure, but based upon an unsteady foundation.

8. Bacon points out the errors into which the ancients had fallen with respect to their low estimation of experience; he shows clearly that the feeble progress of philosophy is owing to her votaries having disdained to court the aid of this humble but sure guide; that this contempt is unjust and unfounded; that induction is the only means by which man can unravel the arcana of nature and feel that he treads on firm and unyielding ground.

Macbeth.

1. The witches had accosted Macbeth, calling him Thane of Glamis, Thane of Cawdor, and King that would be. On the arrival of the messenger from King Duncan, he learnt that he *has* been made Thane of Cawdor, and as he was already Thane of Glamis, the truth of these two assertions of the witches was consequently verified. These two truths, therefore, Macbeth considers as the prologue to the "imperial theme." The imperial theme is the promise of royalty which the witches had honoured him with.

2. The hasty fulfilment of a part of the prophecy of the witches kindled up the ambition of Macbeth, who began to see before him the prize of Royalty. He is at first perplexed what to think of this circumstance, whether it would end in good or evil; then he makes up his mind and says, it cannot be ill, for it hath given me earnest of success commencing in a truth, which is that I am already made the Thane of Cawdor; thus far his hopes being fed, there rises a secret question in his heart—why then may I not be a King.

3. Macbeth yielding to the electric current of his imagination, thinks of the murder of Duncan, but he staggers at the thought, and says to himself that the project of murder which his thought has hatched, though yet but a dream, works such a tremendous effect upon him.

4. The sense here seems to me ambiguous. It may either mean that from the perturbed state of Macbeth's mind, the functions of his body and mind were smothered and received a momentary check; or that the perpetration of the contemplated deed seems to be prevented from its being smothered in surmise, buried as it were in doubts. The mind of Macbeth is in a state of dilemma; he wavers and fears, he hopes and determines, according as he looks forward to the consequence or reflects upon the present happy conjunction of circumstances.

5. That is, that which has no existence produces an effect like a real existence. The phantasm of the imagination, a mere nonentity, torments Macbeth and forces him to make this observation.

RAJNARAIN BOSE.

Bacon.

1. The supporters of this false estimation maintained, that it is a matter of degradation to the mind of man to be much conversant with the knowledge of material nature, which is "subject to sense, and bound in matter, laborious to search, ignoble to meditate, harsh to deliver, and illiberal to practise;" but that it should rather soar on the wings of speculation, and meditate on the existence of God, his infinite attributes, the gradations of being that are links in the universal chain between God and man, and the pre-existence or immortality of the soul; that it should attempt to reconcile the foreknowledge of God with the free will of man, and the existence of evil with his infinite benevolence and infinite power, and that it should expatiate on the causes, progress, and effects of the phœnomena and qualities of the human mind.

2. The doctrine of Plato here alluded to was this, that when Nature was not created, and the germs of the universe lay in chaotic confusion, the Supreme Being had in his mind the pattern of the present system of things in the form of ideas of a general nature, and that he did create this universe by impressing these ideas upon matter, which was at first without form and void. He maintained that the human soul, which is an emanation from the Divine essence; or in the beautiful language of the Persian poet, Jellal-ood-deen Roomee, "a rose from its native garden untimely torn," was, in its pre-existent state conversant with those ideas, and did revel in the appreciation of their beauty; that it has lost them by being confined in this "fleshly nook;" that it should attempt to regain them by contemplation; and that the cold particulars of physical nature should not merely endow the mind with a knowledge of themselves, but that they should contribute to the revival, and excite its faculties to the attainment of those ideas which it possessed when it was, in its pre-existent state, a portion of the Supreme Spirit.

3. Superstition never favoureth the investigation of the qualities of sensible objects. The fancy of the superstitious man is always engaged with the imaginary beings which his own brain has created, in propitiating them in his own favour, and in yielding homage to them with heartfelt veneration. The superstitious man has hardly the time and the inclination to make physical nature the object of his study and speculation. Plato did really mingle superstition with his philosophy. He admitted the existence of demons or genii between God and man, and allowed worship and sacrifices to be paid to their Divine Nature. He also maintained that the souls of wicked men, and those who luxuriated in the enjoyment of concupiscent pleasures, after the dissolution of their bodies, did hover around their tombs, and were unable to free themselves from the earth, in whose pleasures and passions they had so much indulged.

4. In theory, Aristotle favoured the study of external nature, and Plato of spiritual nature. But, in practice, the case has been different; for Plato has given, in his invaluable works, many examples of inductive reasoning; but (as he paid superficial attention to that method of ratiocination, and whenever he uses it, uses it in a kind of rambling excursive manner), they are of no force or effect; while on the other side, the schoolmen of the middle ages, the disciples of Aristotle, who regarded the works of their master as possessing equal authority with the Bible itself, were not engaged in the study of physical nature, but busied themselves with theological inquiries and metaphysical subtleties.

5 and 6. The schoolmen were utterly ignorant of history, *i. e.*, the history of material nature. Men who were enamoured of theological and metaphysical inquiries, and pursued those inquiries with the greatest alacrity and application, cannot be expected to have much knowledge of natural science, and to pay much attention to its investigation. Their minds rested only upon "agitation of wit," *i. e.*, upon wrangling and controversy on the subjects above-mentioned. Theological controversy was the chief employment of the learned in the middle ages. Any university who could puzzle and confound a rival one with their subtleties was declared victorious, and its renown was spread far and abroad. There were prizes given to the parties victorious in metaphysical disputations. These incitements had due effect upon the minds of students, and they devoted their whole attention and time to the study of theology and metaphysics to the perusal of the huge volumes of St. Augustine, Thomas Aquinas, and Duns Scotus. The sense in which the term "history" is used in this passage by Bacon, is countenanced by his division of the intellectual faculties of man, and of human knowledge, in the second book of his Advancement of Learning. He there divides history into civil and natural history.

7. Plato saw well that if we suppose man's mind to be all-sufficient, and that it can pronounce with decision upon subjects beyond its reach, we must acknowledge on the other hand that it has not the means of doing so; for as far as induction and view of particulars go, so far can man proceed with firm steps in his inquiries and speculations. This is well shown in the case of Plato himself, for he was obliged to have frequent recourse to inductions and view of particulars in the demonstration of his opinions on spiritual subjects as, for example, in his able demonstration of the dissimilarity of the corporeal and intellectual natures of man, and the distinct existence of the human soul.

8. In the above passage, extracted from the Filum Labaryn hi of Lord Bacon, that illustrious philosopher persuades men to the study of physical nature, and refutes the false opinion that prevailed before his time, that it is a matter of degra-

dation to the human mind to exercise its powers upon material objects, which occupation was considered, by the proud Peripatetics of the middle ages, to be ignoble and illiberal. It should be observed, to the honour of Lord Bacon, that though he depreciates Aristotle in the above passage, and various others of his great Instauration, and calls him the tyrannical Ottoman who kills his brothers that he himself may be the sole sovereign, yet in the dedication of his work named "Colours of Good and Evil" to Lord Mountjoy, he bestows such praise upon Aristotle as almost compensates all his depreciations of that gigantic intellect. Lord Bacon is the founder of modern science. He it was who freed philosophy from the cloister of monks, and the jargon of the middle ages. Though he himself did make few actual discoveries in physical science, yet to him we owe a Newton, a Boyle, and a Laplace. He has been well compared by Thomson, the poet of the Seasons, to Moses, as the person who, out of the gloom of the dark ages, conducted men to the land of true science and true philosophy.

II.—*Shakespeare.*

1. Macbeth, Thane of Glamis and General of Duncan, King of Scotland, in his way to the capital, after his successful repression of a rebellion of some Scottish Thanes, aided by the Norwegians, is greeted, in his way through a blasted heath, with the titles of Glamis, Cawdor, and King, by three witches who wished to gratify their malicious disposition by enticing him to his own destruction by ambiguous prophecies. Immediately after he is hailed with the title of Thane of Cawdor by some messengers from the King. Dumb with astonishment, at the devils' speaking true, he breaks forth into the above exclamation fraught with the most vehement pathos :

> "Two truths are told
> As happy prologues to the swelling act
> Of the imperial theme."

These two truths are his being Thane of Glamis and Thane of Cawdor ; and these truths are happy prologues to the act of the imperial theme, *i. e.*, to the act of his accession to the throne of Scotland ; which act is more important than the two happy prologues, and which will be performed with imperial magnificence.

2. Macbeth intends to prove by this assertion that this supernatural soliciting cannot be ill ; for, if ill, why then has it commenced in a truth (*i. e.*, his elevation to the Thaneship of Cawdor), and given him pledge of the future consummation of the ardently desired event, *i. e.*, the performance of the "swelling act of the imperial theme."

3. That is, "my intention, the actual execution of which is but yet existing in my phantasy or imagination." Macbeth's fancy is big with the conception of some dark act of blood, *i. e.*, of the assassination of his Sovereign, in defiance of the laws of loyalty and gratitude. His whole frame is agitated, and is shivering with this mental convulsion.

4. That intention, the actual execution of which is but yet existent only in his phantasy or imagination, shakes his single state of man, *i. e.*, convulses his little microcosm so much, that "function is smothered in surmise ;" *i. e.*, his natural functions are impeded ; and, as it were, suffocated in their operations, by surmise, *i. e.*, by anticipation of the bloody and dark act of assassination which is preparatory to his ascension on the throne of Scotland.

5. Not only his functions are smothered, but he is, as it were, living in the midst of things that are not at present in actual existence, and that are only now existing in his own brain. His mind's eye is seeing only things that are in the womb of futurity. He is not at present standing on the heath ; but is, perhaps, grasping a dagger, and burying it in the royal blood of Scotland. The first conception of a bloody act, with the physical convulsion attendant on it, in such a man as Macbeth, who had much of the milk of human kindness in him, is described with a happy and inimitable exactness by the pen of the heart-fathomer, William Shakespeare.

JOORSCHUNDER GHOSE—1ST CLASS.

Replies to Historical Questions.

1st. The Gracchi were descended from a noble family of Romans. They were the sons of Cornelia, who was the daughter of Scipio. Though they were nobles

birth, yet they favoured the people, and proposed in the Senate for the revival of the Licinian law, that is for the equal division of land. This was of course rejected by the Senators: however, the Gracchi became very popular amongst the Romans, and, consequently, the Senate disliked them. Tiberius Gracchus, the elder brother, was killed at the instigation of the Senators, who pretended that he aimed at the sovereignty of Rome; a few years after, the younger brother Caius Gracchus met the same fate. Whether they actually aimed at sovereignty it is very difficult to decide now; but they were guided by motives of patriotism and benevolence to propose for the Licinian law, and their character was every way exemplary; and it was rather the sedition of the Senate against the Gracchi than that of the Gracchi against the Senate. There were two parties at that time in Rome; the one was the aristocratic, the other was the popular party; and one contended against the other.

2nd. The Mithridatic war took place between the Romans and Mithridates in the 7th century after the foundation of Rome. This Mithridates was descended from that Mithridates, who begged the friendship of Alexander the Great, and who was King of Pontus. Sylla, the Roman Dictator, defeated Mithridates at Chæronea, the same place where Philip defeated the Thebans two centuries before; and Pompey and Lucullus were the other Roman generals who were engaged in this war.

3rd. 1.—The states of Achæa and other Greek provinces combined themselves in a league to get rid of the encroachments of the Macedonian Kings, in the 3rd century before Christ. 2—They pledged themselves to defend each other against any foreign encroachment, and also they took the lead in the affairs of Greece. 3.—The Achæan league was dissolved when the Romans under the Consul Mummius defeated the Greeks. 4.—Philopœmen and Aratus were the chief characters who figured in this league.

4th. After the death of Theodosius, in the fourth century after Christ, his two sons Honorius and Arcadius divided the Roman Empire amongst themselves. Honorius took the Western Empire, and Arcadius the Eastern. The Western Empire comprised Britain, Gaul, Spain, Helvetia, and Italy, &c.; and the Eastern Empire contained Greece, Syria, and other Asiatic possessions, and Egypt and other African possessions.

5th. The line of policy pursued by Henry VII. was economy; he likewise depressed the power of the nobility, and increased the influence of the Commons by allowing them to purchase the estates of noblemen; he consulted his Parliament on all momentous occasions, and raised the dignity of that august assembly. It was in his reign that something like a Parliament was established in Ireland by Poynings; though the power of the Irish Parliament was very limited, for that assembly could not pass any important laws without the consent of the English Council.

6th. Edward III. of England claimed the crown of France by right of Isabella, the queen of England, who was the daughter of the king of France, and soon after invaded that country and defeated the French in the battle of Cressy; where his son, commonly called the Black Prince, displayed high feats of valour. Soon after Edward returned to England, and his son being ill-supported by his father lost all the conquests gradually. All these events took place in the 13th century. In the 14th century Henry V. of England revived his claim upon the throne of France, and having invaded that country he gained a decisive victory over the French in the battle of Agincourt; and soon after a treaty was concluded by which it was agreed, that Philip the king of France should be allowed to reign during his lifetime, but after his death, Henry should succeed to the throne; and Margaret, the daughter of Phillip, was married to Henry. After the death of Henry V., his son Henry VI., who was a minor, succeeded to the thrones of England and France. It was at this time that an enthusiastic woman named La Pucelle, commonly known as Joan of Arc, spread a rumour that she was destined by God to rescue France from a foreign yoke; however, by this she caught the credulity of the people, and soon after she headed an army and defeated the English; and Charles, the son of Philip, was re-instated on his ancestral throne; and thus did the English finally lose possession of their conquest.

7th. In the year 1215 the barons, sword in hand, extorted from King John his consent to the Magna Charta, the groundwork of English liberty, by which it was enacted, that in criminal matters all Englishmen should be tried by a jury of their Peers, and a free enjoyment of person and property was also secured.

However, it was not till the end of the 13th century, that the Commons obtained a share in the legislation. Henry III. was obliged to allow the Commons a share in the legislation, and in his reign it was enacted that knights, citizens, and burgesses should be summoned to attend the Parliament. This was the origin of the House of Commons. In the reign of Edward I. it was enacted, that Parliament should be summoned annually, and oftener if need be. In the reign of Edward III. the House of Commons was re-modelled, and it was enacted that no taxes can be levied without the consent of the Commons; and the House of Commons was constituted in the same form in which it continued for several centuries. In the reign of Queen Anne, the Scotch Parliament was incorporated with the English; and in the year 1800, the Irish Parliament was also united with the English. In the year 1831, a Bill was introduced in the House of Commons by Lord John Russell, for reforming the Constitution of the Parliament; after a long debate for two or three sessions, it was at last passed. By this Bill the number of electors was increased to 900,000 nearly, and all British-born subjects who possess a freehold of 10*l.* per annum are entitled to vote in the election; and some rotten boroughs were disfranchised, and Manchester, Birmingham, and other large towns received franchises. Those who enjoy a clear freehold revenue of 600*l.* per annum are entitled to become members for counties; and a freehold of 300*l.* per annum will entitle a man to become a member for towns and boroughs. The total number of the members of the House of Commons is at present 658, of which 100 represent Ireland and 45 Scotland.

8th. Sebactagin was the son of Aleptagin, and may be said to be the founder of the Afghan dynasty; and Mahomed, the celebrated Sultan of Ghizni, was the son of Sebactagin. He flourished in the 11th century.

Nadir Shah was originally known by the name of Cooly Khan, and was the leader of a band of Tartar shepherds. His valour recommended him to the service of the King of Persia, and soon after he became the King of Caubul. At this time India was governed by a weak and imbecile prince, Mahamed Shah, whose profligacy disgusted his ministers, who invited Nadir Shah to come and take possession of India. Nadir Shah invaded India in 1738, and the imperialists were defeated by him, and he soon attacked Delhi, and ordered a general massacre of the inhabitants, and after taking an immense quantity of gold and jewels he returned to his country, where he was soon after murdered in his camp by Ahmed Shah Abdalli.

Holkar was a Mahratta Chief, who ruled Malwa. About the beginning of the present century, Jeswunt Rao Holkar became a formidable potentate. Holkar intended to burn Poonah in 1803; but it was saved by the timely arrival of General Wellesley, (afterwards the great Duke of Wellington.) About the year 1805, Holkar ravaged Hindoostan, and defeated Colonel Monson at Shamlee; afterwards he was pursued closely by the English, and he fled to Lahore; soon after Lord Cornwallis concluded a peace with him. During the Government of Lord Hastings the power of Holkar was totally annihilated.

9th. In the war with Pyrrhus, King of Epirus, the Romans first became acquainted with the Oriental mode of warfare; for we know that Pyrrhus brought with him some elephants which the Orientals only use in their warfare. The chief strength of the Romans consisted in their infantry, which was known under the name of Roman legions; but the chief strength of the Eastern nations consisted in their cavalry and elephants. The Romans fought very close, while the Orientals scattered their forces; in these respects the Oriental mode of warfare differed principally from the Roman mode. In the Mithridatic war the Romans became properly acquainted with the Oriental mode of warfare.

10th. The earliest records, among uncivilized nations, consisted in traditions, ballads, and monuments; and gradually these ballads are collected and sung by minstrels, afterwards poems are composed to commemorate principal events, and then history, in the proper sense of the word, takes its rise. Thus we see Hesiod and Homer collected their great poems from ballads and traditions; afterwards true history took place of traditions and poems. The Romans originally used to commemorate their events by songs; and it was not till the time of the Punic wars that historians commenced to write true histories. The Ramayuna and Mahabharut, the two greatest epic poems of India, contain the earliest histories of India which were collected from oral traditions and ballads. After the conquest of India by the Mahomedans we arrive at the period of true history.

In modern Europe, the Druids and minstrels used to commemorate principal

vents by means of ballads and songs, and the poems of Ossian and others are collected from these ballads.

PRIZE ESSAY.

PEARYCHURN SIRCAR—1ST CLASS.

The Effect upon India of the new communication with Europe by means of Steam.

The application of steam in carrying on the communication with Europe has been the source of innumerable advantages to India. By means of this powerful agent, Europe, ere long regarded as a remote quarter of the globe, has lost that character. The appalling distance between these two portions of the world has been diminished, though not in a scientific sense. The connexion between them has been strengthened by the communication being rendered more easy, and voyages to Europe have lost their forbidding aspect, which had so long dissuaded the unenterprising sons of India from leaving her shores.

The introduction of this great improvement in guiding ships has facilitated Indian commerce to a great degree. Voyages at present are performed within less than a fourth part of the time occupied a few years ago. Vessels are no longer subject to wind and sail, and the lengths of voyages are made subjects of mathematical calculation. Merchants, enabled to transport goods much oftener in the course of a year, and receiving their returns much sooner, have found means to carry on trade on very extensive scales. Capitals are speedily set free, so as to be invested in fresh merchandise, and the prices of articles are lowered by the rapid import of large quantities of them. The application of machinery to manual labour, as existing in Europe, is daily coming into use here also. Thus the commerce of India, one of the principal sources of her civilization and aggrandizement, is indebted to the agency of steam for much of its present flourishing state.

As the enlightenment of India is owing, in a great measure, to her intercourse with Europe, the object that has been instrumental in bringing her close to the focus of illumination, must be regarded as having been highly beneficial to her. The arts and sciences of Europe, the many valuable inventions and discoveries that have been made in that Continent, the useful instruments and utensils that are there used, and the innumerable improvements that the people in that quarter have made, both in practical and intellectual knowledge, have all been rendered easily accessible to her ignorant children.

Another source of the advantages derived from steam communication is the quickness with which intelligence is conveyed from one place to another. The overland mail has been of great utility to every class of men any way connected with Europe, but particularly to Government; for owing to this rapid vehicle of intelligence, its measures are no longer clogged with unnecessary delays, and business is conducted with a degree of expedition, the want of which is sometimes productive of very evil consequences. By means of the overland mail, a speedy communication is kept up with the Court of Directors; and thus the Government here is soon relieved from suspense, and the consequent inaction, in executing measures of importance. In the case of a war breaking out, the intelligence may be rapidly communicated to any place, and the preparations commenced with the greatest expedition.

Besides these, the Government is, in several other ways, benefited by steam communication. By means of the overland mail, the state of the whole of Europe is brought under the cognizance of the inhabitants of India within a very short time; and thus these two parts of the world, distant as they are, are made to communicate with each other in civil, political, and literary matters, with the greatest ease. So we see that by means of a certain quantity of steam, the distance of several thousands of miles is made to be regarded as comparatively nothing. Such is the triumph of science.

The advantages derived from the use of steam in navigation are too numerous to admit of being described within the short compass of an essay of this nature, in the limited time that is allowed to write it. Suffice it to say, that by means of steam communication, India is daily rising higher and higher in the scale of civilization, and that the treasures of Europe, in the most extensive sense of the word, are poured upon her lap in profusion, taking into consideration not the riches of the soil only, which are very poor indeed, when compared with the inestimable boon of intellectual improvement, which it has been the lot of her sons to receive at the hands of enlightened strangers.

HINDOO COLLEGE.

The prizes for proficiency in Adam Smith's Moral Sentiments, given by the President of the Council of Education, have been contended for at the Hindoo College.

The questions were not communicated to the Students till they were all assembled in the Hall of the College, and the answers were all written in the presence of the President without any reference to books or other assistance. The answers have been examined by the President, and he has awarded the gold medal to Annand Kissen Bose; and the silver medal to Raj Narain Bose.

The questions were the following—

I. Whether is the moral estimate which, according to Smith, we form of conduct, founded ultimately in reason or sentiment?

II. Show that we have no *immediate* experience of what other men feel; and point out, carefully, the connexion of this fact with Smith's theory.

III. Whence arises our sense of the propriety or impropriety of conduct, and of its merit or demerit, in others and in ourselves?

IV. Whence are the *general maxims* of morality derived; and what importance would you attach to them as *regulators* of our conduct and moral decisions?

V. State your opinion on the following objections to Smith's theory:

1. Sympathy being a capricious principle cannot be regarded as the standard of our moral judgments, which are, on the whole, pretty regular.

2. Smith says "when we judge in this manner of any affection as proportioned or disproportioned to the cause which excites it, it is scarce possible that we should make use of any other rule or canon but the corresponding affection in ourselves." "I judge of your sight by my sight, of your ear by my ear, of your reason by my reason, of your resentment by my resentment, of your love by my love." But I may surely think my own sight bad and yours good, or both bad. Then why may I not think your resentment proper and my own improper, or both improper? and if so my own can be no rule or canon for judging of yours.

3. The principle of sympathy becomes insufficient when applied to cases wherein a good act instead of securing the affections of men subjects us to their hatred.

Annand Kissen Bose.

1. There are two sets of philosophers, who have taken different views of the manner in which we perceive moral approbation or disapprobation. The one founds the moral estimate of our conduct on reason, which according to this theory is supposed to exercise its jurisdiction not merely over the dominion of truth and falsehood, nor to confine its power in adapting means to an end agreeably to the scientific acceptation of the phrase, but to observe what tenor of conduct or tone of temper is fit and proper, deserving of reward or punishment, necessary and advantageous to be indulged and encouraged, or checked and eradicated. The other builds the theory of moral approbation and disapprobation upon sentiment, upon a certain conformation of our feelings, or what some metaphysicians call, passive affections of the mind. Clarke, Cudworth, Price, Butler, Malebranche, and Stewart, stand as the distinguished champions of the first or the rational theory. Hume, Hutcheson, Shaftesbury, Cumberland, Adam Smith, and Brown, form the conspicuous supporters of the second or the sentimental theory.

Though the writings and opinions of these philosophers go in favour of the one or the other of these two theories, yet there is no unanimity among the upholders of the same system; among the rationalists, there are almost as many distinct theorists, as there are among the sentimentalists. Adam Smith, who belongs to the latter class, has distinguished himself by the originality of his system, by the nicety and subtilty of his reasoning, by his deep and profound knowledge of human nature, and by the many apt and lucid illustrations which he has brought forward to establish his theory. He seems to be the most candid of all the founders of new theories, and betrays no desire of veiling any objections that appeared such to him; he examines every system of moral philosophy that was known in his time, declares them to be founded upon some acknowledged principle of mental operations, points out the false phases in which lurk undetected errors, and marks the points of coincidence with his own theory; he takes notice of those varieties of agents, which exert any material influence upon moral approbation or disappro-

lation, gives their due weight to those faculties which are the basis of antagonist theories, and disclaiming the sophisms and visions, which haunt thick the recluse in his closet, comes out into the broad daylight of the world, appeals to fact and experience, and traces the source of the moral estimate of our conduct to sympathy, an universal, though till his time not duly noticed, operation in the economy of nature. He defines sympathy to be our fellow-feeling with any passion whatever, with grief as well as with joy, with gratitude as well as resentment, with the social and the selfish, with the amiable and the boisterous passions.

2. Though it is a matter of question, whether by any process of *à priori* reasoning, built upon the knowledge of the natural constitution of man, we can discover the truth, that we have no immediate perception of another man's feelings, yet that we can have no such perception, is a fact of every day's experience, and too obvious to cause any doubt even in the mind of the most superficial observer. Since, therefore, it is more from experience than by any process of ratiocination that we come at this conclusion, the best means by which we can prove its reality to any who take a fancy to question it, is by citing instances and giving illustrations.

If, while I am conversing with a person, he happens to show some symptoms of an inward complaint, I observe them and grope about for some cause which excited them. I question him, and until he gives an answer my feeling is not a whit disturbed, my state is that of impatient curiosity. When I learn the cause, I ponder upon it, my imagination is set actively at work, and by a process, (which I shall have occasion to explain hereafter) a faint idea of his suffering is conveyed to me.

The external senses are the only instruments by which any emotion of pleasure or pain can be excited, and as there are no links to connect the senses of one man with those of another, there is no possibility of a feeling excited in one being immediately perceived by an observer. A culprit that is undergoing a flagellation feels an emotion of pain which is excited by the irritation of his nerves; the nerves of a spectator not being in a similar state of excitement, he cannot immediately have the same perception of pain.

There is a strong connexion between this fact and the theory of Smith, inasmuch as it may be regarded as the corner-stone of his theory. The connexion may be thus traced. If I can have no immediate perception of another man's feelings, by what process is it, that when I am acquainted with every thing regarding those feelings, I exhibit faint expressions of similar feelings? The solution of this query leads to the theory in question.

Smith argues, that as we can have an immediate perception of our own feelings only, when we observe a person under any sort of excitement, we in imagination transport ourselves into his situation, and conceive what must be the state of our feelings under similar circumstances, and, by this illusive identification, we acquire a perception of his feelings. That such is really the case our author proves by many striking illustrations. We see, says he, a person drawing back his leg when he observes a stroke aimed at the leg of his neighbour; we see the spectators of a rope-dancer writhing and twisting themselves in the same manner as the player does to balance himself; now all this can never arise from any immediate transfer of nervous influence—sympathy alone explains these phenomena.

After having established this groundwork of his theory, Smith goes on to show how, from this principle, we regulate our approbation or disapprobation of another man's conduct.

When I see a person commanding himself in the agony of disease, I approve of his conduct. My approbation cannot arise before I perceive his feelings; the perception is caused by my imagining myself to be transported into his situation, and by observing the state of my feelings under similar circumstances. Thus by *my* feelings I judge of *his;* and if, subsequently, I find that I would have acted similarly as he acts, I approve of his conduct.

Smith, moreover, observes, that our sympathy does not arise so much from the view of the passion as from that of the situation of the person. Thus, on many occasions, as in the case of idiots, of men of callous feelings, and of departed spirits, our illusive sympathy arises from conceiving ourselves in their situations and feeling an emotion which they feel not; on other occasions, when we see a person labouring under a passion, we naturally inquire the cause of it, that we may enter thoroughly into his situation and have a perception of his feelings.

From simple, double, divided, illusive, and conditional sympathy, Smith explains all the phenomena arising from the sense of merit and demerit, of propriety and impropriety.

3. Our actions and affections may be judged under two different views; in relation to the cause which excited them, or the motives from which they sprung; and in connexion with the consequences arising from, or the ends proposed by them.

When actions and affections appear to us as suited to, or out of keeping with, their cause or motive which excited them, we approve or disapprove of them.

When the ends they aim at or tend to produce, and the consequences arising from them, appear to us beneficial or hurtful, there arises in our minds a sense of their merit or demerit. When we judge of another man's conduct as consistent with propriety or not, we conceive ourselves placed in his situation, and observing his feelings, if we find every emotion of our heart corresponding with his, we approve of his conduct; if, on the contrary, we find no feelings of our heart responding to his, we disapprove of his conduct.

Our sense of the propriety or impropriety of another man's conduct, therefore, is founded upon the concord, or dissonance, of our sentiments with his.

Our sense of the merit or demerit of an action is a compound sentiment; it is made up of a direct sympathy with the motives of the person who confers the benefit, and an indirect sympathy with the gratitude of the person upon whom the benefit is conferred, on the one hand, and a direct antipathy with the motives of the injurer, and an indirect sympathy with the resentment of the injured, on the other.

We judge of the propriety or impropriety, merit or demerit, of our own conduct by the same principles with which we judge in the case of others.

We approve or disapprove of our own conduct, when, by transporting ourselves into the situation of an impartial spectator, my sentiments correspond or disagree with those of the imaginary being.

Those actions of our own which are the proper objects of gratitude or resentment, appear to us as deserving of reward or punishment: proper objects of gratitude or resentment, are the objects of that gratitude or resentment which every impartial spectator can go along with. This imaginary being, the man within the breast, is conscience.

4. These general maxims are drawn by a process of induction, acting upon the materials supplied by sympathy. They are of high importance in correcting our momentary and false sympathy, and in the moment of acting under the influence of a passion.

5. Answer to Objection.—The first objection to Smith's theory loses its force, when we recollect that Smith does not regard the first impulse of sympathy as the standard of moral judgment; this is not the 'be all and the end all' in our consideration of what is right or wrong, proper or improper.

It is true that the sympathetic emotions of no two individuals are alike, nor of the same individual at all times; but upon this vacillating and capricious nature of sympathy, we could never rely for the decision of moral truths, had it not, when called into exercise, required the assistance of the general rules of morality, and of the result of the experience of our former sympathies. As, in judging of a composition of genius, a delicacy of taste, sound judgment, habits of comparison and experience, must combine to make our decisions right; as we pronounce those productions to be models or standards of taste, which, throughout the revolutions of time, the mutations of custom and religion, have continued to please the generality of civilized nations; as we do not call that sort of writing the best, which, in the heat of party spirit and popular frenzy, has been applauded to the skies; so in judging aright the conduct of a man, a delicacy of feeling, a vigorous understanding, habits of experience, and a knowledge of human nature are the essential requisites; we call that tenour of conduct just and proper, which not only is the object of our own approbation, but which has become such throughout all ages and in almost all civilized countries. Our approbation of that course of action is not proper, which, under the influence of some passion or prejudice, we for a moment sympathise with.

To explain this view more clearly, I shall take the following instance. Here is a general moral maxim—that the good of the greatest number should be preferable to that of a few; which I observe is quite opposite to the view of my neighbour.

I charge him with bad judgment, he retorts the charge upon me; how can the dispute be put an end to? I bring forward arguments from the general economy of nature; but they do not convince him; he gives another turn to the question and says, that he sees no necessity why he should sacrifice his own interest to that of the world. Reason can go no further to convince him; he continues firm in his opinion, till enlarged experience and general commerce with mankind prove how disagreeable such a passion appears to the rest of his fellow-creatures; how little they sympathise with this selfish view. When he learns, that the moral maxim, above alluded to, has continued to guide the generality of mankind from time immemorial, the dislike, with which his selfish view was received, often and often returns to his mind; upon these facts he builds his reasoning, and the accumulation of these concurring circumstances presses upon him with irresistible force, and compels him to believe what at one time he denied. Thus is the capriciousness of sympathy corrected; thus the varying judgments of moral truths are reconciled; and thus the eternal and immutable maxims of morality produce those beneficial effects which it was intended by the Great Ruler of the universe to work.

Answer to Objection II.—With respect to the second objection, it may be observed, that as we can have no immediate perception of another man's feelings, I must, in judging of a person's affection, refer to my affection on a similar occasion. It is true I judge of another man's sentiment by my own; but I do not rely upon this until other concurring circumstances (mentioned in the answer to the first objection) confirm it: here it must be confessed, that the expressions of Smith upon this part of the subject are a little lax.

Amongst the several sorts of sympathy, Smith mentions a conditional sympathy. When I observe that conduct, which to me appears praiseworthy, is notwithstanding censured by the generality of mankind; yet I abide by my conviction by the belief, that if men were thoroughly acquainted with my feelings and motives, if they had viewed the particular conduct from the same point of view as I have done, they would undoubtedly sympathise with my sentiments.

RAJNARAIN BOSE—1st CLASS.

1. The opinion into which I have been led on this often-disputed and most intricate point of moral philosophy, after as much of candid and impartial investigation as I have made up to this time, is this,—that the moral estimate which we form of conduct is founded neither on reason or pure sentiment, but on the compounded principle of what is called by Smith sympathy. I call sympathy a compounded principle, because at every time it is exercised it is compounded of either imaginative and emotive, or imaginative, ratiocinative, and emotive processes. When I sympathise with another person I place myself in his situation, I identify myself with him, *I become he:* this is an act of the imagination. Then, when I have placed myself in his situation, I participate in his feelings: this participation is an emotive process. Sometimes he is reasoning on the ultimate cause of my sympathy, and I participate in his reasonings: this is a ratiocinative process. And then again, after he has reasoned, immediately an emotion springs up in his breast; I participate in this emotion also: here again is the emotive process. However, it is certain that, in every operation of sympathy, there are the imaginative and emotive processes. If we examine our hearts thoroughly, we shall find that every isolated thought which rises in our breast is conjoint with feeling; and that it is certain, that no man can be "an intellectual all in all," a being of pure intellect and thought.

It is certain, and is agreed to by all moral theorists, that, in every moral estimate, the final faculties which decide the point are the emotions of approbation and disapprobation; it is not certain, however, whether reason or sympathy, or moral sense *precedes* approbation and disapprobation. Now, as general rules have been formed, and at present regulate our moral decisions, we cannot decide this question, unless we take as our data the probable nature of this antecedent process, occurring in the earlier stages of society when general rules were not yet formed, and the instances of it which yet occur at this stage of society when general rules have been formed, and when remembrances of such general rules precede and

guide approbation or disapprobation. The supposition of a moral sense, which precedes approbation and disapprobation, is inconsistent with that economy of nature which prevails in innumerable works of her hand, and with which it is *probable* she has acted in this instance also, which probability being such that it almost amounts to certainty. Reason cannot precede approbation or disapprobation. Suppose the case of a savage that first of all saw a murder committed: instantly, it is certain, the emotion of disapprobation should have arisen in his breast; but it is very probable that he would have been unconscious of a ratiocinative process, if we suppose any such, that would have preceded this disapprobation. He thought, says the rationalist, of the results of this murder towards the individual murdered and his family; and also of the prejudicial consequences which this crime, if frequently committed, would have on society. If such reasonings did really precede his disapprobation, then, why was he unconscious of them? In the present state of society, I am certain that, in no case whatever, are we conscious, except very rarely, of a ratiocinative process preceding our approbation or disapprobation. Locke says that, "I cannot conceive how any idea springs up in the mi d and I be unconscious of it;" with much more truth I can say, that I cannot conceive how a process of ratiocination is being performed in my mind while I remain unconscious of it.

After the refutation (a feeble one) of the Hutchesonian and the rational system, I will attempt to prove that sympathy does really precede approbation and disapprobation. If we examine our hearts carefully, we will find that, as we are social beings, we often regard the opinions of others. When we are going to perform any bad action, we frequently ask what will *men* think? After we have done any bad action, we usually ask ourselves, after it has been brought to light, what are men thinking of it; perhaps they are thinking so and so; perhaps their feelings towards us are so and so. With respect to other men, we imagine what they have reasoned and felt before and after the commission of such and such an action. We will find that, after every such operation of sympathy, the emotion of approbation or disapprobation rises in our breast; and we will find that if we do not exercise sympathy before approbation or disapprobation, the remembrance of general rules has supplied its place.

Smith's theory is very simple and deeply founded in the feelings of human nature. I cannot, therefore, think well of the intellect of a very modern moral theorist, who has said that it requires but common acuteness to refute his theory.

2. That we have no immediate experience of what other men feel is very evident. We have no sense by which we can become conscious of other men's feelings. We have eyes to see, ears to hear, tongues to taste, noses to smell, muscular sensation to perceive the feeling of touch, but we have no sixth sense whereby we can become conscious of the *feelings* of others. It is then by the imagination only that we can become conscious of them. Unless we place ourselves in their situation, identify ourselves with them, *and become they*, I cannot conceive of any other way of which we can become conscious of their feelings and emotions. This is sympathy; this is the fact upon which Smith has ingeniously and ably erected his sympathetic theory. I have before proved that sympathy is a compounded principle, and that it does not consist solely of an imaginative process.

3. Every affection can be considered in two relations: first, its relation to the cause which excites it, and, secondly, its relation to the effects which it produces or tends to produce. Upon the suitableness or unsuitableness, gracefulness or ungracefulness of an affection with respect to its cause, depends the decency or indecency, propriety or impropriety of the affection and the conduct which it occasions. Upon the suitableness or unsuitableness of the effects which an emotion produces or tends to produce, considered with respect to the emotion itself, depends the merit or demerit, the utility or the hurtfulness of an action or a line of conduct; and it is deserving either of rewards or punishments, as it becomes the object of gratitude or resentment.

4. The general rules of morality have been formed by the process of induction. After men had felt what actions please, and what actions displease, they have, by an easy induction, formed these rules.

These solid rules of morality are very useful; for they supply the place of sympathy which Smith allows varies with the different humours and different states of the health of men. They are the great regulators of our conduct, and, by an easy reference to them, we can decide cases of morality. It is by a regard to them that

we waver many times before the commission of an atrocious act; and, after we have done the deed, it is a regard to these general rules that fills our minds with the stings of remorse, that leads us to consider that we are the object of the detestation of mankind, and subjects us to continual anguish. If we had not the general rules of morality, then, the collisions of various and fluctuating sympathies would have introduced confusion into morals; though it must be confessed that these various and fluctuating sympathies themselves were the sources of the formation of these general rules. It is plain, then, that these rules are of great importance to us as *regulators* of our conduct and moral decisions.

5. First.—Though sympathy is a capricious principle, yet it is not so capricious as its opponents think: for instance, every man on the face of the globe, however depraved his moral principles may be, admires a beneficent action, and disapproves of theft, robbery, and murder. Even the perpetrators of these crimes acknowledge that they are in the wrong, but have been led into the commission of them by want, necessity, or passion. I grant that sympathy is capricious; but then where it is capricious, it is guided and corrected by reason.

Smith, in his review of the rational system, at the latter part of his work, grants that sympathy is capricious, and that all solid and just judgments concerning right and wrong are made by reason. Some nations follow customs which, judged according to the pure and elevated standard of European morality, are morally culpable, but which the nations themselves consider as innocent. The custom of infanticide prevailed in Ancient Greece and Rome. The rites of infant sacrifice and Suttee prevailed until very lately in Hindoosthan. In the island of Formosa, promiscuous sexual intercourse is considered no crime; and in some parts of Africa the people throw their old parents from trees. All these have originated in mistaken, misguided, and rude sympathy; yet we can venture to assert that, when those nations will gain the same stock of information and civilization as the Europeans possess, their elevated reason will correct those products of misguided sympathy, and will abolish them altogether. I doubt not that if the Suttee right had prevailed up to this time, the youths who are educated in the institutions, where Western learning and literature are cultivated and taught, would not have sympathized with the perpetrators of the rite, and would have disapproved of it.

5. Second.—The objection, as far it goes, with respect to sight, is true; but the inference that "my own resentment cannot be a rule or canon for judging of yours," from the premises "why may I not feel your resentment proper and my own improper, or both improper," such inference is not correct. In innumerable cases I judge of your resentment by my resentment, and in those cases such judgment is generally correct. By my resentment of improper, hurtful, and vicious actions, I judge of your resentment of such actions, and this judgment, we find, is usually correct.

The senses in which the words "why may I not feel your resentment proper and my own improper" can be taken, are two. First, when the cause of resentment is the same; and, secondly, when it is not the same. The latter is out of the question altogether; but as to the former, if the cause of resentment be the same, it is impossible that when I call *my own* improper I will call yours proper. I cannot conceive of such a case. So that the words, "why may I not feel your resentment proper and my own improper" are a contradiction in terms. Then, as to the very last part of the objection, when we feel the resentments of both of us to be improper, in this case I judge of your resentment by my resentment. I judge my resentment to be improper, and I pass the same judgment with respect to your resentment; it is plain that I judge of your resentment by my own resentment.

5. Third.—According to my humble opinion, the principle of sympathy does not become insufficient, when applied to cases, wherein a good act, instead of securing the affections of men, subjects us to their hatred. I cannot conceive of such a case as that when a good action subjects us to the hatred of all men. Though the multitude did not relish the poem of Antimacus, yet still there was a Plato to approve of it. So a good action may be disliked by the generality of the actor's countrymen; yet still he can repose in the sympathies of his wise friends and contemporaries, and countrymen, who approve of the deed. Yet granting such a case to happen as that of a good action incurring the hatred of *all* men, yet still the actor may think that the people are prejudiced against, and have formed some misconception of the scope and tendency of, the action,—therefore they hate

it; but when they will be in their right senses, they will shower applauses upon him. If his own generation do not approve of the action, yet still he thinks that posterity will do justice to him. The applauses of future centuries ring upon his ears, and he disregards the contemporary hatred that is pouring invectives and vituperations upon him. It is this conditional and future sympathy that the actor reposes in, and contemplates with calm and serene satisfaction.

HOOGHLEY COLLEGE.

Essay.

The Effects upon India of the new communication with Europe by means of Steam.

Nothing tends so much to advance society, to humanize the manners, and to elevate men in the scale of civilization, as intercourse with different nations. It encourages commerce by supplying the wants of one country with the superfluities of another; the knowledge of one people may be made the common property of all by its means; what the people of the remotest regions discover or invent can be communicated everywhere. In short, intercourse renders the earth, separated as it is into continents, islands, &c., by vast oceans, sometimes by insurmountable mountains, into one entire whole, and all mankind as the members of one and the same family.

It was by carrying on an intercourse with the Greeks that the Romans were enabled to improve in the liberal and mechanic arts. It was Greek philosophy that softened and polished the rough military manners of the Romans, and soothed them when misfortune compelled them to look for consolation. In the middle ages, when religious fanaticism, coupled with superstitious zeal, led to the opening of a communication between Asia and Europe, the people of the latter continent, who, sunk in barbarism and ignorance, were then groaning under the pressure of tyranny and oppression, received from the hands of the Asiatics, who were their superiors in civilization, the blessings of social life and happiness. But those short days of Asiatic glory and superiority are gone, the stream of civilization has taken an opposite course; before it flowed from Asia to Europe,—now, but with more than its pristine vigour and rapidity, it flows from Europe into Asia.

The blessings that Europe now showers upon us are numerous and useful. Both in ancient and modern times Europe has been the seat of philosophy and civilization, but in consequence of there being no safe intercourse in ancient times that civilization was confined to where it grew. But now that that obstacle is removed, an entire change has taken place in the circumstances of countries; whatever is now or has been gathered in Europe, or in any part of the earth, receives an universal circulation.

England, which is of all the countries of Europe is nearest related to India by her present position in Asia, is particularly engaged in the cause of Indian improvement. She not only carries on commerce with India, but she is ardently employed in instructing the natives in the arts and sciences, in history and political economy, and, in fact, in everything that is calculated to elevate their understanding, meliorate their condition, and increase their resources.

But since from a communication with Europe these benefits upon India have resulted, if this communication be rendered more easy and rapid, would not the benefits received increase in proportion? The sooner a thing desired is had the better. But this facility of communication is beneficial in many other ways,—whether to carry on war, or manage the civil affairs of a distant empire, or communicate with a friend situated in a remote country, in every one of these concerns expedition is the chief instrument of success. To secure expedition and facility in carrying intelligence from one place to another public roads are constructed, post-offices established, &c. But none of these means has proved of greater use in answering the desired end than steam. By means of steam a distance—a distance that took 16, afterwards 6 months to pass over, now takes 6 weeks only. Hence whatever advantages existed before, is, by the new mode of communication, increased four times. Now Europe is brought nearer to Asia, and each can partake of the fruits of labour of the other with more ease than before. But since in the

event of an association of an inferior with a superior the inferior is the gainer, let not our rulers think themselves the losers, for a knife is whetted upon a stone which is in itself not sharp. The English are to us what the Romans were to the English; and as the English are the children of modern times, and command more resources and power than the Romans, we derive the greater advantage. The facility afforded to communication by the use of steam has enabled the English to govern our country with great prudence and vigilance; they do not appear to be at any time at the risk of forbearing in the glorious work which they have commenced, of improving the native mind and condition, but prosecute it with honour to themselves and favour to their subjects, till they are styled the regenerators of India.

NOBINCHUNDER DASS.

PAPER ON GENERAL LITERATURE.—ANSWERS.

Bacon.

Answer 1.—By the passage, "That it should be a diminution of the mind of man, &c.," is meant that it is a degradation of the mind of man to be very familiar in experiences and particulars; intimating that it is beneath the dignity of the human mind to be conversant in them, for they are derived through our senses and from matter: also, because it requires great labour to find out these experiences and particulars, which are too mean to be deeply thought of, disagreeable to be made known, unworthy of being practised or imitated, too many to be enumerated in the flourishing of arts.

Answer 2.—Plato maintained, that human happiness depends on the true knowledge of the Almighty, which is to be acquired from speculations, as God and matter were different things, having no connexion with each other.

Answer 3.—"Superstition never favoureth the sense:" the author means to say, that one who pays great veneration for superstition is incapable of favouring the dictates of his sense, or of allowing them to be correct, when they do not coincide with his superstitions.

Answer 4.—Aristotle's school asserted that opinions should be founded and explained by our sense; but Plato's school asserted, that the same should be accomplished by speculation. In practice, however, the first acted contrary to his own assertion in a greater degree than Plato did.

Answer 5.—The author means to say, that the schoolmen were utterly ignorant of the different phenomena of nature and the dependencies existing in it.

Answer 6.—"Resting upon the agitations of wit," means depending upon what they made out by consulting their wit.

Answer 7.—Plato observed that he could not, upon proper grounds, suppose that the mind of man is of itself sufficient to make all investigations without having recourse to anything else.

Answer 8.—From the whole passage it appears, that we must invariably make reference to the works of nature for arriving at any correct conclusion, and that true knowledge depends upon experiences and particulars.

Shakspeare.

Answer 1.—The two truths told to Macbeth (while he was passing on) by some witches and spirits. They were that Macbeth would become the Thane of Cawdor and the Thane of Glamis, and the imperial theme was that he would be the Sovereign.

Answer 2.—Macbeth, by asserting that I am the Thane of Cawdor, intends to prove that what was made known to him by the supernatural agency could not be ill; for what they prophesied was partly fulfilled, as he became the Thane of Cawdor, and similarly the rest might also be fulfilled.

Answer 3.—The word fantastical means fanciful; and therefore the whole passage means,—whose murder is not yet accomplished, but only thought of in his mind, or intended.

Answer 4.—This passage means, that considerations relative to the murder

have smothered his purpose, or have rendered him incapable of executing his object.

Answer 5.—I take this to be its meaning:—Macbeth says, that "nothing is but what is not"—smothered, alluding to his person; that is to say, nothing remains of him except his body, his senses being smothered by the thought.

HURRYMOHUN CHATTERJEE,
Upper School, 1st Class, Sec. A.

ANSWERS TO HISTORICAL QUESTIONS.

Answer 1.—The two brothers Tiberius and Caius were the sons of the high-minded Cornelia, by Gracchus. In one of his journeys through Italy, Tiberius, the elder, observing the wretched condition of the people, resolved to redress their grievances, and place them on terms of equality, at least before the laws, with their haughty lords. On his return to Rome he stood a candidate, and became the tribune of the people. The first acts of Tiberius, after being installed tribune of the people, were well calculated to gain their favour. He proposed, and carried into effect, the agrarian law; measures were taken for the rebuilding of Carthage; and he proposed, what the Senate after a useless waste of blood and treasure was obliged to concede, the extension of the privileges of the citizens of Rome to all the inhabitants of Italy. But Tiberius was not thus allowed to carry on his measures; the Senate took alarm at these dangerous encroachments on their power, and resolved, if possible, to put him out of their way. In a tumult excited by one of his measures, Tiberius was slain, to the regret of the people of Italy.

But his brother Caius was near at hand to avenge his fate. Being elected tribune, he proposed that none but the knights should be elected senators, and that the *commita centuriata* should be transferred from the senate to the people. Not content with this, he resolved to carry the measures of his brother into effect. Accordingly, he invited a great number of Italians to Rome to carry out that law, which vested the rights of the citizenship of Rome to the allies; but the brutal Optimus, at the instigation of the Senate, fell upon him while still in the Forum, and slew him with a great number of his followers.

Thus fell the two brothers Tiberius and Caius, whose patriotism has been stigmatised with the name of sedition by historians. Tiberius possessed all the talents of an accomplished statesman, and understood well the means by which he could carry on his measures with success. Caius, though inferior to his brother, was still a good statesman.

The state of parties in Rome at this time was of a most heterogenous nature. While the former distinctions of patricians, plebians, and clients remained, the new ones of poor and rich began gradually to usurp their place.

Answer 2.—The Mathridatic war was a war with Mithridates, king of Pontus. This bold and powerful Asiatic, having consolidated his own kingdom, resolved to seize on the possessions of Rome, and ordered, in a cruel manner, the general massacre of all the Romans found in Asia. The generals who were successively engaged in this war were Sylla, Lucullus, and Pompey.

Answer 3.—The Achœan league had subsisted in Greece from the earliest ages; but the part which it had hitherto taken in the affairs of Greece was either very unimportant, or was obscured by superior parts of Sparta, Athens, and Thebes. But when these states successively lost their supremacy, Achœa rose into notice.

The principle of union between the different cities of Achœa was the same, as it now exists, among the Swiss Cantons, and among the United Provinces of America; that is, each city was governed by its own particular laws and usages, but all public affairs were decided in national assemblies.

With the destruction of Corinth we may date the termination of Achœan league, which was finally absorbed in the vast empire of Rome.

The principal characters who figured in it were Aratus and Philophemen, the last of Grecian heroes, according to Cicero's judgment.

Answer 4.—The contending parties who opposed each other at the battle of the Metarans were, Asrubal (the brother of Hannibal) and the Roman generals Nero and Livius, in which fortune gave the victory to the Romans, 206 B.C.

The battle of Mycale, off the coast of Ionia, between the Persians and the Greeks under the Athenian Zairtephus and the Spartan Leotichides, gave such a fatal blow to the power of Persia that the Ionians were encouraged to throw off the galling yoke of king of kings, B.C. 425.

There were two battles off this promontory: the one in which the Greeks gained a partial victory over the fleets of Xerxes in 427 B.C.; the other in which the Spartan admiral Calicrates was defeated and slain by ten Athenian admirals.

The battle of Delian was fought between the Spartans and the people of Argos, in which the latter were completely defeated.

The field of Charonia was fatal to the liberties of Greece, because Phillip here obtained a bloody victory over the Athenians and Thebans.

The battle of Mantinea decided nothing; for both the Spartans and Thebans claimed the victory. In this engagement, Epaminondas, the first of the Greeks according to Cicero's judgment, lost his life, B.C. 362.

Answer 5.—The final division of the Roman empire took place under the sons of Theodosius, the Great Honorius and Arcadius, of whom the former became emperor of the West and the latter of the East. The Western division of the empire, with Roman for its capital, comprehended Italy, Gaul, Spain, England, Africa, Egypt, and Pannonia; and the Eastern division, with Constantinople for its capital, all those countries lately under the Turkish empire.

Answer 6.—The policy which Henry VII. pursued in his internal government was the depression of the ancient barons, and the elevation of the middling classes and the clergy: this he carried into effect by granting permission to the nobles to dispose of their estates, which the merchants and all those who had acquired wealth were easily enabled to purchase. Another method, by which he attempted to break in the power of nobles, was by the enactment of such laws which prohibited the nobles from keeping retainers in their service.

Answer 7.—The English princes in the 13th and 14th centuries embraced a notion of conquering France, or at least those portions of it which formerly belonged to the Norman line. In the prosecution of this idle plan they often came into contact with the French kings; and on one occasion had nearly completed the conquest of France, when their prey was wrested from them by a simple country girl.

The English lost their last hold in France in the reign of Mary. Without any provocation she declared war against Henry II. of France, in hopes of making a diversion in favour of her husband, Philip II. of Spain. But all her hopes were frustrated; the French, under the celebrated Duke of Guise, besieged and took Calais in twelve days, which it had cost Edward III. eight months to capture; and thus the English finally lost their last possession in France in A.D. 1556.

Answer 8.—Although the House of Commons owes its origin to the usurpations of Leicester, yet it has ben found one of the most effectual checks upon the power of kings. Leicester, in order to conceal his own usurpations, first issued writs to the counties and boroughs to return to Parliament two members from each county, and one or two from every borough. On his death, Edward, though a warlike prince, found the necessity of the support of the House of Commons to all his ambitious projects, and he thus established its legal title. Under Edward III. the House of Commons enacted those three laws which rendered their power permanent, viz., that no tax should be levied without the consent of the House of Commons; that any alteration in any law should have their concurrence; and that they should exercise the privilege of impeaching king's minister for bad government. The House of Commons had nearly lost its importance in the wars of the Roses, when, in the reign of Henry VIII., it was made the instrument of all his cruelties. Some spirit began to show itself in the reign of Elizabeth, and which further developed itself in that of her successor James I. "The Great Rebellion" decided the dispute, whether the king should govern with or without Parliaments; but it was decided in favour of Parliaments. The reign of James II. affords a curious spectacle to every reader of the constitutional history of England. The House of Commons boldly declared that James, by violating the fundamental laws of the realm, had abdicated the throne. Under the Hanoverian family were decided two questions, viz., the dispute between the constituents and their representatives, occasioned by the Middlesex election of Wilkes and the Reform Bill. By the latter Act, the right of returning members to Parliaments was extended to those cities which had hitherto remained unrepresented.

Answer 9.—There is nothing extraordinary or inanalogous in the history of Oriental despotism, when we say that both Sebaktigin and Nadir Shah raised themselves from the lowest states to the highest pinnacle of human grandeur. Both were slaves, and both became kings. The one was more ferocious and cruel than the other, and was at the same time well fitted to shine in troubled time. Both invaded India, of whom Subaktigin confined his incursions to the Punjab, while Nadir Shah carried his ravages as far as Delhi, marking his progress with devastation and bloodshed.

Sevagi, the founder of the Marhatta greatness, is a character, the like of which is scarcely to be found in the history of the world, surrounded by powerful neighbours. Sevagi found means to enlarge his territories at the expense of the kings of Ahmednuggur, and Bijapore, and Golcon, and in the course of a few years gave importance to a race of men hitherto little known. The most important event in his life was his escape from the fort of Rhijor, where he was confined by the bigoted Arungzebe.

It is hard to decide whether Mohammed Toglak was perfectly in his senses. The evident signs of derangement is everywhere visible: in one of his capricious fits he orders the inhabitants of Delhi to remove their family, cattle, furniture, &c. to Dowlatabad, because he intended to make it the capital of his empire.

Answer 10.—The religious opinions of Akber are thus stated by a Persian writer: Akber himself believed in the existence of one deity, the author of all space and matter; but he could not go all the lengths he wished for the fear of offending his Mahomedan subjects. Akber, says the same writer, was extremely fond of hearing religious disputes, and would sometimes take an active part in them. He would engage Brahmins, Molnas, Jews, and Christian Missionaries to decide on the merits of their respective religions.

The revenue system of Akber was the same as is still to be found in some of the native states. The great reformer of the revenue system of the Moguls was Raja Todarmul. He divided lands into three sorts, viz., those which require no fallows, those which after the expiration of four years, and those which are overflowed by inundations and waste-ground. The lands which required no fallows were required to pay one-third of the whole produce, which, if it were inconvenient to be paid in kind, was transmuted into money, according to the price of the commodity; the lands which required fallow were, in the same manner, required to pay one-fourth of their whole product. The waste-grounds were only to pay one-eighth of the whole, with the same conditions as before stated.

Answer 11.—The Romans first became acquainted with the oriental mode of fighting in their wars with the Syrian kings. The principal points in which it differed from their own lay in the organization of the two armies. The orientals place all their dependence on the cavalry, while the Romans generally made their infantry the instrument of their victories.

Answer 12.—The earliest records among uncivilized nations are the traditions, monuments and documents take in their place after tradition, and at last history appears. This may be finely illustrated from the Grecian history. Before the time of Herodotus it may with propriety be said, that there was no history, and its place was usurped by traditions.

(Signed) NOUROTON MULLICK.

Had I not repeatedly expressed my surprise in this paper at the intellectual powers manifested by the senior scholars in their examinations,—a surprise which I have no doubt will be shared by others, I should not have thought myself authorized to introduce the preceding lengthy extracts; but as the means to appreciate the bearing of general facts can only be obtained by a knowledge of details, I place before the public the answers of *several* of the senior scholars to the questions put to them, to prove that the reasonings and deductions are not simply those of a precocious individual, but are fairly and truly types of the capacity of the native mind.*

* The paucity of mistakes in the preceding answers; whether in language or orthography; is not less remarkable than the grasp of knowledge manifested.

Madras.—Mr. J. R. Colvin, in a note to Lord Auckland's Minute on Education, dated 24th November, 1839, in which he reviews the existing state of education in India, says,—"Less would appear to have been effected for founding any advanced system of education in the Madras territories than in the other presidencies; and my notice of what has been done in these territories must, most probably from the defective materials immediately at command, be nearly a blank."

The Court of Directors, in addressing the Madras Government, 29th September, 1830, say,—"You are, moreover, acquainted with our anxious desire to have at our disposal a body of natives, qualified by their habits and acquirements, to take a larger share and occupy higher situations in the civil administration of their country than has hitherto been the practice under our Indian Governments. The measures for native education, which have as yet been adopted or planned at your Presidency, have had no tendency to produce such persons."

The blank noticed by the Court in 1830, and by Mr. Colvin in 1839, has been so far filled up, that Madras now boasts of one Government educational establishment, which has the sounding appellation of "University." It is under the direction of a President, 12 Governors, 7 of whom are native gentlemen, 2 of them being Mahomedans and the other 5 Hindoos. The Governors have a European Secretary, Captain Pope. The object of the University is to "impart a large measure of the higher branches of science and literature among such of the better orders as may have or obtain the means and the leisure to profit fully by such a course of education, and with a view to their reasonable expectations of filling superior stations in life, or in the service of Government."

A school-fee of 4 rupees per mensem is demanded; no scholars are admissible who are unable to read and write the English language intelligibly. A Proficient's degree is scarcely obtainable in less than four years' study, and the grades of honour are not lightly given. The consequence of these elevated views is, that, at the time of the Second Annual Report, in 1843, there were only 118 scholars. The University, in fact, consists of only a "High School," in four classes, to which there are four European tutors and four native teachers; and as it had, in 1843, been only two years in operation, the prescribed degree of proficiency had not been attained by any of the scholars, although many of them had attained a correctness and facility, as well in speaking as in composition, which befitted them for easy intercourse with the well-educated classes of English society.

A native gentleman, Putcheapah, having founded a public school, where 400 or 500 children are receiving instruction in reading and writing English, a preparatory school, auxiliary to the University, was given up, and two-thirds of the cost of its support, about 250 rupees per mensem, the Governors recommended should be devoted to the foundation of Government scholarships of 10, 7, and 5 rupees per mensem each, to be held for two years. The Court of Directors sanctioned the appropriation, and called the attention of the University Council to the advantage of regulating the studies of those holding the scholarships, with a view to their future employment as teachers at schools, which it is hoped will be organized in the districts. Putcheapah had also allotted funds for an endowment in the University, which the Council recommend should be given to 30 pupilships in the lowest class at 2 rupees per

mensem, 15 scholarships in the High School at 4 rupees per mensem, and 3 studentships at 30 rupees per mensem, all to be held by Hindoos, the period of possession to be 4 years.

The University Council wished to establish two classes of medicine and civil engineering, and submitted plans for establishments, professors, officers, &c.; but as the Parliamentary grant for educational purposes at Madras only amounted to 50,000 rupees, it was found the funds were inadequate, and the plan fell to the ground.

The Governors say, that with respect to the organization of the High Schools of the provincial colleges, that there is a "promising earnest of success;" but that the "condition of the natives in the provinces, and the *total want* of public seminaries throughout, have rendered their operations in communication with those established in the districts somewhat slow; and it would be premature to discuss those arrangements which are only as yet in progress for the formation of the schools." The future, it is to be hoped, will produce more than the past.

The Appendix to the report contains the examination papers, commencing with Political Economy, in which the questions are—"Give a full account of the commercial or mercantile system;" "Explain how public debts originated;" and "Give an account of the Bank of Amsterdam." Then follow Conic Sections, Equations, Differential Calculus, Trigonometry, Euclid, and Algebra. Under the head Steam Engine, it is asked to calculate generally the point of suspension of the piston rod from the parallel motion, and to give a numerical example, with a diagram to illustrate it; and, secondly, to show how to find the latent heat of steam according to Watts' method. In Mechanics the pupil is asked "to explain the fusee of a watch." In Politics the question is asked, "What are the characteristical marks of a good Government?" and the answer is—"The main principle that characterizes a good Government is, that the laws laid down for the guidance of the people are fixed, and the people living under it should be allowed to have a share in it. A good Government, in adapting a law to its ends and objects, always attends to the habits, feeling, and manners of the people. When a change is introduced into the Government it is always gradual; for it is well known that suddenness in change will at once excite the disgust of the people. There are various other marks of a good Government that are too obvious to require an elaborate detail."

The tests of qualifications of candidates for the public service are to be of three grades,—General Tests, Superior Tests, and Special Tests. The first to consist of a certified degree of proficiency in the English and native languages, in the knowledge of moral principles, in the elements of general history, and of the histories of England and India; in the elements of mathematics and practical astronomy, in arithmetic, in geography, and in the outlines of the constitution of the English and Indian Governments. The Superior Test to consist of a certified degree of proficiency in certain books and subjects of general literature and science, according to tests to be made out and approved of by Government. The Special Test to consist of a certified degree of proficiency in the subjects assigned for the General Test; and also, in addition, a proficiency in such books and subjects appropriate to certain respective

departments in the public service, according to tests to be made out and approved by Government.

The following are the receipts and expenses of the University for three years:—

Abstract Account of the actual Disbursements of the Madras University, during the Official Year 1840—41, *or from* 1*st August*, 1840 *to* 30*th April*, 1841.

	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.
HIGH SCHOOL.		
Amount paid the Establishment of the High School and Secretary's Department from 1st August, 1840 to 31st March, 1841, being nine months	9,702 2 10	
Ditto house-rent of ditto from ditto to ditto	2,170 0 0	
		11,872 2 10
Contingent Charges.		
Head Master's outfit	3,277 9 0	
School and office furniture supplied during the year	1,397 15 4	
Books and Instruments	1,413 6 8	
Stationery	289 12 8	
Advance for building eating-rooms for scholars	600 0 0	
Sundries	596 11 9	
	7,575 7 5	
Deduct,—		
School-fees realized from the pupils of the High School during the above period 256 0 0		
Fund transferred from the late Central School 88 9 4		
	344 9 4	
Net amount of contingent charges		7,230 14 1
PREPARATORY SCHOOL.		
Amount paid the Establishment of the Preparatory School from its first Establishment on 13th October, 1840 to 31st March, 1841	1,133 3 8	
Ditto house-rent from ditto to ditto	481 4 0	
Contingent Charges.		
Books supplied during the above period	324 4 11	
Stationery	1 6 0	
Sundries	49 2 10	
	1,989 5 5	
Deduct,—		
School fees realized from the pupils of the Preparatory School during the year 1840–41	598 0 0	
Net amount of charge on account of the Preparatory School		1,391 5 5
Total charges during the official year 1840–41	..	20,494 6 4

Abstract, showing the Advances received from Government on account of the Madras University, from 24th March, 1840 to 30th April, 1841, the actual Disbursements during the same period and the balance of Cash remaining on the 30th April, 1841.

	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.
Amount of advance received under the order of Government 24th March, 1840	10,000 0 0	
Ditto Order of Government, 2nd January, 1841.	5,000 0 0	
Ditto ditto, 15th February, 1841	10,000 0 0	
Total Rupees . . .	..	25,000 0 0
Deduct,— Disbursements as per abstract account from 1st August, 1840 to 30th April, 1841 . . .	..	20,494 6 4
Balance of Cash on the 30th April, 1841, appropriable to future Disbursements . . .	..	4,505 9 8

Abstract Account of the actual Disbursements of the Madras University, during the Official Year 1841-42, or from 1st May, 1841 to 30th April, 1842.

	Rs. A. P.	Rs A. P.
HIGH SCHOOL.		
Amount paid the Establishment of the High School and Secretary's Department from 1st April, 1841 to 31st March, 1842, being 12 months	18,285 12 7	
Ditto house-rent of ditto from ditto to ditto . .	2,415 0 0	20,700 12 7
Contingent Charges.		
School furniture supplied during the year . .	153 4 0	
Stationery	52 14 6	
Books and Instruments	3,761 7 1	
Printing	1,207 5 9	
Balance paid for building eating-rooms for Scholars	12 9 7	
Sundries	495 3 7	
	5,682 12 6	
Deduct,— School fees realized from the pupils of the High School during the above period 2,988 0 0		
Ditto on account of Putcheapah's Scholars 124 0 0		
Value realized of High School Books lost. 6 13 0		
Ditto by sale of materials used in fitting up the College Hall for the opening of the Institution . . 104 4 0		
	3,223 1 0	
Net amount of contingent charges		2,459 11 6

Abstract Account of the actual Disbursements of the Madras University—continued.

				Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.
PREPARATORY SCHOOL.					
Amount paid the Establishment of the Preparatory School from 1st April, 1841 to 31st March, 1842, being 12 months				3,060 13 1	
Ditto house-rent of ditto, from ditto to ditto				1,207 3 5	
Contingent Charges.					
Sundries			10 5 3		
Stationery			5 9 0		
				15 14 3	
				4,283 14 9	
Deduct,—					
School fees realized from the pupils of the Preparatory School during the years 1841–42		1,246 0 0			
Ditto on account of Putcheapah's Pupils		20 0 0			
				1,266 0 0	
Net expenditure on account of the Preparatory School					3,017 14 9
Total charged during the official year 1841–42				..	26,178 6 10

Abstract, showing the Advances received from Government on account of the Madras University, from 1st May, 1841 to 30th April, 1842, the actual Disbursements during the same period, and the balance of Cash remaining on the 30th April, 1842.

		Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.
1841	Balance of Cash on 30th April, 1841, appropriable for the Disbursements of the present year	4,505 9 8	
	Amount of advance received under order of Government 8th June, 1841	10,000 0 0	
	Ditto ditto, 26th November, 1841	10,000 0 0	
1842	Ditto ditto, 24th February, 1842	10,000 0 0	
			34,505 9 8
	Deduct,—		
	Disbursements as per abstract account from 1st May, 1841 to 30th April, 1842	..	26,178 6 10
	Balance of Cash on the 30th April, 1842, appropriable to future Disbursements	..	8,327 2 10

Abstract Account of the actual Disbursements of the Madras University, during the first Six Months of the Official Year 1842-43, *or from* 1st *May,* 1842 *to* 31st *October,* 1842.

	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.
High School.		
Amount paid the Establishment of the High School and Secretary's Department from 1st May, 1842 to 31st October, 1842 . . .	9,553 14 2	
Ditto house-rent of ditto from ditto . . .	1,050 0 0	
		10,603 14 2
Contingent Charges.		
Books	1,507 4 11	
Stationery	282 10 11	
Printing	12 4 0	
Sundries	534 5 4	
Scholarship for two months at 30 rupees per month	60 0 0	
	2,396 9 2	
Deduct,—		
School-fees realized from the pupils of the High School during the above period 1,716 0 0		
Ditto on account of Putcheapah's Scholars 340 0 0		
	2,056 0 0	
Net amount of contingent charges		340 9 2
Preparatory School.		
Amount paid the Establishment of the Preparatory School for the above period . . .	1,566 0 0	
House rent	630 0 0	
	2,196 0 0	
Contingent Charges, none.		
Deduct,—		
School-fees realized from the pupils of the Preparatory School during the above period 496 0 0		
Ditto ditto received on account of Putcheapah's pupils 40 0 0		
	536 0 0	
Net amount of expenditure on account of the Preparatory School		1,660 0 0
Total charges during the first six months of the official year 1842-43	..	12,604 7 4

Abstract, showing the Advances received from Government on account of the Madras University, from 1st May, 1842 to 31st October, 1842, the actual Disbursements during the same period, and the balance of Cash remaining on the 31st October, 1842.

		Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.
1842	Balance of Cash on 30th April, 1842, appropriable for the Disbursements of the present year	8,327 2 10	
	Amount of advance received under the order of Government dated July 26th, 1842	10,000 0 0	
			18,327 2 10
	Deduct— Disbursements as per abstract account, from 1st May to 31st October, 1842 .	..	12,604 7 4
	Balance of Cash on 31st October, 1842, appropriable to future Disbursements	..	5,722 11 6

Errors Excepted.

Madras, 31st October, 1842. (Signed) P. Pope, *Secretary.*

Bombay.—In Bombay, the Government Institutions are under the management of a Board of Education. On the 31st March, 1843, this Board consisted of a President, five members, and a secretary; three of the members were European gentlemen, one a Parsee gentleman, one a Hindoo gentleman, and one a Mahomedan gentleman. A maximum sum of 1,25,000 rupees is fixed for educational purposes under the Bombay Presidency; and the Board control a sum of 20,000 rupees, constituting the Sanscrit College Fund. The official report to Government of the state of education under the Bombay Presidency for the year 1842, from which the following facts are derived, is of a practical business-like character; and the views expressed of the media through which instruction should be imparted to the natives—from the reading, writing, and arithmetic of the elementary village schools to the erudition and science of the College—appear to be just and rational. Unlike the Madras Presidency, they have begun at the beginning; and express their conviction that the *primary instruction* of the people should be conducted exclusively in the vernacular language of the respective provinces; and they look for their success to the co-operation of local committees of the natives, to the provision of school houses by them, and to the payment of a fee by the pupils; and on their part to the provision of *well-trained masters*, supplying school books, and the ultimate formation of village libraries. The English schools are the next step, and are for those with higher aspirations than can be realized in the primary schools; but a condition of admission is, that the pupils shall have *passed through the vernacular schools*. Here a wide field of knowledge is open to them; but to those who desire to qualify themselves for scientific professions, classes are yet wanting to enable them to do so. The Board in their report embrace the Elphinstone Native Education Institution, the Government English schools, the Poonah Sanscrit College, the Government District Vernacular Schools, the village schools in the Poorundhur district of the Poonah collectorate; the state of the indigenous schools throughout the Presidency, with a summary of the

state of education generally; notices of the local committees for the supervision of the Government District Vernacular Schools; the preparation of a series of class books for English and Vernacular Schools; state of the book depositories; financial statements; together with an Appendix of detailed Reports, Returns, &c.

The Elphinstone Native Education Institution originated in the profound veneration of all classes of natives under the government of the Hon. Mountstuart Elphinstone for that distinguished individual; and the most appropriate manner in which they thought they could testify this veneration, was by the subscription of very large sums of money to found a College, for the instruction of the natives, to be designated the Elphinstone College. Subsequent events rendered it desirable to alter this designation to the "Elphinstone Native Education Institution." It has its European professors and native tutors. Independently of the Elphinstone scholarships, it has others, founded in the names of Chief Justice West and Lord Clare. A class of scholars is introduced, called "Normal," whose duties are partly to study, and partly to teach. The institution has an upper and lower division in the English department, and the Vernacular department. The upper English is confined to the Elphinstone scholars, the Normal scholars, and the West and Clare scholars, and the number consisted of 30. The standard of acquirements for this department, which has been considerably raised, consists of a prescribed amount of knowledge of Mathematics, Natural Philosophy, Mechanics, Chemistry, Political Economy, and History. The examinations are rigid, and the Board say, that the merit of the written answers is, they think, not inferior, for the most part, to the specimens published in the reports of other analogous educational institutions in India. In the lower division, English and arithmetic are taught. The attendance in 1841 was 618, and in 1842, only 587; the falling off being attributed to the increased strictness and discipline of this class; the falling off in numbers was compensated for by positive benefit in the aggregate; 304 of the pupils in this class pay a fee.

In the Vernacular department, the attendance in 1841 was 785, and in 1842 it was 719, being a decrease of 66. This also was attributed to the increased strictness maintained. The Board attribute so much importance to a proper value being fixed on the mind of the pupils, of the education they receive, that they ordered a fee of 2 annas, or 3*d*. English monthly, to be exacted from each of the pupils, to commence in January, 1843.

At the end of 1842, the vacancies in the scholarships were 7 Normal, 9 West, and 11 Clare; total 27. This was chiefly owing to the numbers who had found situations, and had left the Institution.

With a view to judge of the practical good conferred by the Institution, the Board had traced the career of 156 of its scholars subsequently to their leaving the Institution, between 1827 and 1842; and it gives a list of them and of the situations they then filled; amongst them are the sons of some of the Jaghirdars, or chiefs of the Deccan; one is tutor to the Rajah of Kolapoor, and three others are assistants in the magnetic observatory, &c. In 1842, a native Mahratta gentleman presented to the Institution 1,000 rupees, the interest of which was to be given annually as a prize to the scholar who had attained the greatest proficiency in the Mahrattee language. It was adjudged to a lad, Dhoondoo Janardhun, for

the best Mahrattee essay on "Procrastination," in imitation of Miss Edgeworth's popular tale, entitled "To-morrow."

The provincial *English* schools are those of Poonah, Tannah, Surat, and Panwell.

The following are the attendances:—

Poonah.				Tannah.				Surat.	
1841		1842		1841		1842		1842	
No.	Paying.	No.	Paying.	No.	Paying.	No.	Paying	No.	Paying.
118	..	81	19	77	..	58	54	35	31

The Poonah schools had supplied 61 boys, whose qualifications had enabled them to find employment. The diminution in numbers both in the Poonah and Tannah schools was looked upon as temporary. The Surat school was only established on the 27th January, 1842, and was proceeding satisfactorily. The Panwell English school was in so inefficient a state that the Board recommended its abolition.

Sanscrit College.—It is, as its name implies, for instruction through Sanscrit. In 1841, there were paying 95, not paying 82; in 1842, paying 8, not paying 68. And in this period 17 stipendiary, and 51 non-stipendiary left the College; and 6 stipendiary and 37 non-stipendiary were admitted. The stipendiary system was modified with advantage; the allowance to the first class students being decreased from 7 rupees to 6 rupees per mensem. The Professor of Astronomy is a native, Vishnoo Nursing Joshee. The Professor of Medicine is also a native.

Government District Vernacular Schools.—There are three divisions of these; the 1st, under Mr. Eisdale's superintendence; the 2nd, under Professor Harkness; and the 3rd, under Ball Gungadhur Shastree; but these were temporary arrangements. The divisions again are subdivided, and each subdivision has its inspector. Government only sanctions the establishment of a school, where the population amounts to 2,000 souls. The 1st division embraces the Collectorate of Poonah, Ahmednuggar, Sholapoor, and Kandeish.

At the end of the year 1841 there were 19 schools in the Poonah Collectorate, and in 1842 two more were established. The masters to these schools had been educated in the normal class at Poonah. The total number of boys in attendance in 1841 was 1138, and in 1842 it was 1241, independently of the two news schools. The state of these schools was on the whole satisfactory; but the masters of five schools, in consequence of their backward state, were directed to join the normal class at Poonah for one year, and half their salary as master was deducted from them for that time. The minimum monthly salary to masters of *district* schools appears to be 10 rupees.

The vernacular school-books in use in Bombay are the objects of praise by the Bengal Government. They consist of translations into Mahrattee, Goojrattee, and Canarese, of treatises on algebra, geometry,

trigonometry, grammar, geography, history, natural philosophy, general knowledge, and moral instruction.

Ahmednuggar Collectorate.—The number of schools in this Collectorate was 14 at the end of 1841. In 1842 two new schools were added. The masters of the new schools had been educated in the Poonah normal class. In 1841 the number of boys in attendance in the schools was 1125, and in 1842 the number was 1288. The schools were in a satisfactory state, only one of the masters being ordered to Poonah to study in the normal class.

Sholapoor Collectorate.—In 1841 and 1842 there were four Mahrattee and six Canarese schools. The attendance at the Mahrattee schools in 1841 was 316, and in 1842 it was 345; but in the quarter ending 30th September the number had fallen to 250.

The attendance in the Canarese schools in 1842 was 225. The Mahrattee schools were in an unsatisfactory state, owing to the inefficiency of the masters, three of whom were ordered to the normal class at Poonah, and threatened with their names being removed from the list of schoolmasters. Acting masters were sent from the normal class on 7½ rupees monthly only, although the ultimate salary of the schoolmaster at Sholapoor was to be 20 rupees per mensem. The Canarese schools were not progressing.

Kandeish Collectorate.—The first report is for 1842, when there were only two Mahrattee schools; the attendance was 98 in the early part of the year, but only 80 in the last quarter. Here again it has been found necessary to send one of the masters to the normal class at Poonah.

2nd Division.—The second division comprises Guzerat and the Northern Konkan, including the Collectorates of Surat, Ahmedabad, Kaira, and Tannah. Generally the schools were backward and neglected, not having, in fact, had time to get into practical and efficient working. By the establishment of local school committees, and a vigilant superintendence, it was expected that matters would soon improve.

Principal Collectorate of Surat, including Sub-Collectorate of Baroach.—In 1841 there were 14 schools, but in 1842 it was necessary to abolish one of these, and no new school took its place. The attendance of boys in 1841 was 866, and on the 30th September, 1842, it was 1142, exhibiting an increase of 276. In the Surat school, No. 1, in consequence of the increased attendance, it was necessary to add assistant-teachers, at five rupees per mensem! Such a small remuneration will, no doubt, excite surprise in Europe.

Ahmedabad Collectorate.—The schools in this Collectorate amounted only to six in 1841, and no increase had taken place in 1842. The attendance in 1841 was 295, and on the 30th September, 1842, it was 414, being an increase of 118. The master of the school No. 1, in the city of Ahmedabad, had creditably distinguished himself by the translation from the Mahrattee version into Guzeratee of "Conversations on Natural Philosophy."

Kaira Collectorate.—The number of schools remained stationary,

being seven. The attendances in 1841 were 308, and on the 30th September, 1842, the number was 456, being an increase of 148.

Northern Konkan, Tannah Collectorate.—All the schools, 10 in number, are Mahrattee. The boys in attendance in 1841 numbered 670, and on the 30th September, 1842, the number was 661. As a reward to one of the schoolmasters, his salary had been raised from 12 to 15 rupees per mensem. Another has had his reduced from 12 to 10 rupees.

3rd Division.—The third division includes the Southern Konkan and Southern Mahratta country.

Rutnagherry Collectorate.—In 1841 the number of schools was eight; in 1842 one was added, and four provisionally sanctioned. The attendance of boys in 1841 was 635, and on the 30th June, 1842, the number was 782, being an increase of 147. With the exception of two schools in a flourishing condition, the rest were backward and unpromising.

Southern Mahratta Country, Collectorates of Dharwar and Belgaum.—Some difficulties exist in these districts in furthering education, from the official language (Mahrattee) not being the language of the bulk of the people, and the corruption of the Canarese language by the Telinghee on the east, the Mahrattee on the north, Malabarec on the west, and the Dravidee on the south. The schools, however, with the exception of those at Dharwar, Hoobly, and Belgaum, are designated Canarese schools. They were in no respect better than indigenous village schools, the masters uneducated and incompetent, and with scarcely any Canarese school-books; and yet the masters were to teach Mahrattee and Canarese. Canarese being the language of the great bulk of the people, in the Canarese schools the Board ordered the teaching of Mahrattee to be discontinued, but that at the principal towns there should be schools established expressly to teach this language. A normal Canarese school had been established at Dharwar, and the next object of the Board was to supply school books, which was effected by getting a committee of native Canarese gentlemen to superintend the translations into Canarese of the Mahrattee school books now in use.

Dharwar Collectorate.—In this Collectorate there are two Mahrattee and five Canarese schools. The attendance of boys in 1841 was 552, and in the quarter ending 30th June, 1842, the number was 531. One of the Canarese masters, from inefficiency, had been directed to join the normal class, and the operations of his school was, in consequence, suspended.

Belgaum Collectorate.—In this Collectorate there was one Mahrattee school and eighteen Canarese. The attendance in 1841 of boys was 822, and in 1842 the number was 669, being a diminution of 153, which was owing to the suspension of some of the schools, the masters being sent to the normal class.

General Summary of Government District Vernacular Schools for 1842.

	Number of Schools.	Number of Pupils.	Increase.	Decrease.
First Division.				
Poonah Collecterate	21	1,267	119	..
Ahmednuggar Collectorate . .	16	1,243	118	..
Sholapoor Collectorate . . .	10	505	..	66
Kandeish Collectorate . . .	2	80	..	..
Second Division.				
Surat Collectorate	13	1,142	276	..
Ahmedabad Collectorate . . .	6	414	118	..
Kaira Collectorate	7	456	48	..
Tannah Collectorate	10	661	..	9
Third Division.				
Rutnagherry Collectorate . .	9	782	147	..
Dharwar Collectorate	7	531	..	..
Belgaum Collectorate , . . .	19	669	..	153
Total	120	7,750	826	228

In only two instances have school-houses been built by the people; in the other cases the schools are held in Government buildings, but it is the object of the Board to induce the people to keep these buildings in repair.

Fees by Scholars.—The Board, to test the sincerity of the inhabitants of towns petitioning for the establishment of schools, condition for the payment of a fee of one anna (three halfpence) monthly by each pupil; even this trifling sum is very irregularly paid; but the Board observe that in those schools where most fees are paid, such schools are found to be the most efficient and flourishing. In the province of Guzerat not a single fee is paid, while in some of the schools in the southern Mahratta country, some of the pupils pay a halfpenny, some a penny, and some the whole fee monthly.

The following is the return of the fees paid by the latest information :—

Collectorates.	Number in Attendance.	Fees Paid.
First Division.		
Poonah Collectorate	1,267	265
Ahmednuggar Collectorate . .	1,243	291
Sholapoor Collectorate . . .	260	32
Kandeish Collectorate . . .	..	..
Second Division.		
Tannah Collectorate	661	318
Surat Collectorate	1,142	..
Ahmedabad Collectorate . . .	413	..
Kaira Collectorate	456	..
Third Division.		
Rutnagherry Collectorate . .	782	144
Dharwar Collectorate	531	103
Belgaum Collectorate	669	150
Total	7,504	1,357

Village Schools in the Poorundhur District of the Poonah Collectorate.—In 1841 there were 69 village schools and 1322 pupils, and in 1842 there were 68 schools and 1233 pupils, being a decrease of 89. The schools were established to enable the farmers, few of whom can write or read, to acquire a knowledge of accounts to protect themselves from fraudulent exactions. In reference to the population of this district, it would appear that somewhat less than half the male children between five and ten years of age were receiving instruction.

Indigenous Schools.—With a view to obtain a knowledge of the number and state of the indigenous schools, the Board has circulated forms to the different collectors to be filled up; owing to the inaccuracies in some of the returns, the Board defer sending in the whole of the statistical details; but for the sake of comparison with some of the districts in Bengal, the trustworthy parts of these returns are supplied.

Bombay Collectorates.	Total Number of Male Children between 10 and 5 years of Age.	Number of Male Children under Instruction in the Indigenous Schools.	Number of Male Children under Instruction in Government Schools.	Total Number of Males under Instruction in Indigenous and Government Schools.	Male Children between 10 and 5 years of Age, not receiving Instruction.	Proportion of Male Children capable of receiving Instruction to Male Children actually receiving instruction is as 100 to
Rutnagherry . .	17,564	2,197	782	2,979	4,585	16·9
Tannah	30,118	3,821	661	4,482	25,636	14·7
Poonah	31,979	3,195	2,460	5,655	26,321	14·5
Ahmednuggar .	42,796	4,708	1,125	5,833	36,963	13·6
Belgaum . . .	25,463	2,386	669	3,055	22,408	16·3
Kandeish . . .	16,615	2,571	250	2,821	13,794	16·0
Surat	16,373	3,002	630	3,632	12,741	22·4
Kaira	28,823	3,460	466	3,926	24,897	13·5
Ahmedabad . .	25,174	6,674	413	7,087	18,087	28·1
					Average	17·3

The means of comparison with Bengal is afforded by a statement of Mr. Adams, relative to education in the city and district of Moorshedabad; and the districts of Beerbhoom, Burdwan, South Behar and Tirhoot.

	Total Number of Children between 14 and 5 years of Age.	Number of Children receiving School Instruction.	Number of Children receiving Domestic Instruction.	Total Number of Children receiving Instruction.	Children receiving no Instruction.	Proportion of Children capable of receiving to Children actually receiving Instruction is as 100 to
City of Moorshedabad	15,092	950	300	1,259	13,838	8·3
Thana Dowlutbazar .	10,428	305	326	631	9,797	6·05
Thana Nangler . .	8,929	489	285	724	8,205	8·7
Thana Calna . . .	18,176	2,243	676	2,919	15,257	16·05
Thana Jehanabad .	15,595	366	539	905	14,690	5·8
Thana Bhawara . .	13,409	60	288	348	13,061	2·5
					Average	15·5

Mr. Adams' first column includes female children, whose education, however, is a blank; and consideriug them to be one half to admit of a comparison of the last column with the Bombay results, it will be necessary to double the proportion on the 100; this brings it to 15·5 boys educated on every 100, while the Bombay returns give 17·3. Of this number, 15 per cent. are instructed in the indigenous schools, and only 2·3 per cent. in the Government schools. Female education is almost unknown, although the Missionaries have some girls' schools as well as boys, not included in the above.

The hospital and college most munificently founded in Bombay, by that remarkable philanthropist Sir Jemsetjee Jeejeboy, and the Grant Medical College, founded by subscription, to do honour to the memory of the late Governor, Sir Robert Grant, are yet scarcely in operation, but will be productive of great good. Such is the state of education under the Bombay Presidency, comprising more than six millions of souls. It is not very extensive nor flattering at present; but the system has a vitality which argues favourably for the future. Objects to be attained are distinctly defined, and the organization to attain these objects, appears sound and practical; and the zeal manifested by the Board, if persevered in by their successors, can scarcely fail of producing favourable results.

Although not coming strictly within the objects of this paper, I should not be doing justice to Bombay were I to omit mention of the Society for the education of the poor, instituted in 1815, by the exertions of Archdeacon Barnes. It is for training up the children of Europeans in the principles of Christianity, and teaching them habits of industry. It has two schools, one for boys and the other for girls, in which are 327 children, most of whom are orphans of soldiers, and are boarded, clothed, and fed at the expense of the institution. District schools have been established at Surat and Tannah, and the Society admits native as well as European children. The expenditure has varied from 14,000 to 36,000 rupees per annum.

Elphinstone N... Education Institution.—Scholars in Vernacular Schools.

No. of Schools	—	Castes. Hindus. M. Brahmans.	G. Brahmans.	Joshies.	K. Brahmans.	Shenoes.	Parbhus.	Khatries.	Sonars.	Sutars.	Shimpis.	Kausars.	Vyshyas.	Banians.	Bhaugallis.	G. Kumbis.	Sowanes.	Bhotias.	Marathas.	Dusai.	Ghanti.	Mussulmans. Boras.	Khoja.	Kokanis.	Surtis.	Kachi.	Shindhi.	Dackhni.	Parsis.	Jews.	Total.	Maximum.	Minimum.	Average.	Remarks on the general attendance, from the Master's Register.
	Marathi.																																		
1	Central	23	..	10	1	50	65	10	30	12	6	4	1	1	..	..	..	..	16	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2	1	232	7	20	13	Tolerably Regular
2	Capurwadi . .	12	..	..	..	6	15	12	5	13	..	1	4	..	..	..	..	..	2	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	69	6	16	11	Ditto.
3	Tailors' Lane .	23	..	..	..	2	..	1	8	..	28	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	68	5	16	10	Ditto.
	Gujarathi.																																		
1	Central	..	11	..	..	1	..	4	..	..	..	..	..	10	3	1	6	8	..	..	1	4	2	..	..	..	..	..	1	92	..	144	5	19	12	Regular.
2	Fort	..	2	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	3	..	..	..	2	..	..	..	2	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	89	..	99	5	18	11	Ditto.
3	Paid honi . . .	..	10	..	..	..	..	2	..	..	..	2	..	12	..	..	1	..	..	1	3	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	33	..	69	5	18	11	Very Regular.
1	Hindusthani . .	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	33	2	1	1	1	..	38	7	20	14	Irregular.

Elphinstone Native Education Institution.—Scholars in the English Department.

Description of Scholars.	Caste. Hindu. Brahmans.	Joshis.	Shenois.	Parbhus.	Ugra do.	Kayastha do.	Khatris.	Sonars.	Sutars.	Shimpis.	Kausars.	Vyshyas.	Banias.	Bhausatis.	Marvadis.	Kumbis (Eng.)	Kumbis (Mar.)	Purdesis.	Madrasis.	Bhaudaris.	Sankara Jata.	Gaulis.	Parsis.	Portuguese.	Musulmans	Total.	Age. Minimum.	Maximum.	Average.	No. who have paid the Fee.	Remarks on the general attendance, as learnt from the Master's File No. 1.
Government School*																															
Pay	9	1	25	48	..	1	8	4	4	3	1	1	10	2	1	..	..	1	..	1	..	..	153	25	6	304	8	24	15	271	Except during the period when the late epidemic prevailed, the attendance has been, comparatively, regular.
Free	34	2	10	27	1	1	10	16	4	7	8	..	2	..	..	1	..	..	1	..	1	1	82	27	17	253	..	..	..	..	
Total . . .	43	3	35	75	1	2	18	20	8	10	9	1	12	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	235	52	23	557	8	24	15	271	

* Including those not paid, sick and on leave, and left.

Scholars and monitors, (formerly Elphinstone Scholars)	9
Normal scholars	3
(Including one honorary scholar) West scholars	7
Clare ditto	11
Total in Upper Division	30
Total in Lower Division	557
Grand Total	587

The time of the pupils in the English school is distributed as follows:—

1st Section.

From 10 to 11 A.M.	Monday, Wednesday, and Friday.	Vernacular, and English Vocabulary, Writing,
From 11 to 12½		
From 10 to 11 A.M.	Tuesday, Thursday, and Saturday.	Arithmetic. Vernacular Reading.
From 11 to 12½		

2nd Section.

From 10 to 11 A.M.	Monday, Wednesday, and Friday.	Vernacular and English Dialogues. Writing.
From 11 to 12½		
From 10 to 11 A.M.	Tuesday, Thursday, and Saturday.	Vernacular Reading. Arithmetic.
From 11 to 12½		

3rd, 4th, 5th, 6th, 7th, and 8th Sections.

From 10 to 11 A.M.	Monday, Wednesday, and Friday.	Vernacular, and English Exercises. Writing, and Book-keeping.
From 11 to 12½		
From 10 to 11 A.M.	Tuesday, Thursday, and Saturday.	Writing. Arithmetic.
From 11 to 12½		

All the Sections.

From 1 to 4 P.M.	Every day, (Sunday and Holidays excepted.	English Reading, Translation, Composition, Geography, and History.

UPPER OR COLLEGE DIVISION.

Senior Classes.

From 10 to 11½ A.M.	Monday, Wednesday, and Friday.	Analytical Geometry, Integral Calculus, and Mechanics.
11 to 12½		Geography, and History.
1 to 3 P.M.		Engaged in teaching in the Lower Division.
3 to 4		Natural Philosophy.
From 10 to 11½ A.M.	Tuesday, Thursday, and Saturday.	English Composition, Poetical Reading.
11 to 12½		Elements of Logic, Poetical Economy.
1 to 3 P.M.		Engaged in teaching.
3 to 4		Chemistry and Mineralogy.

Junior Classes.

From 10 to 11 A.M.	Monday, Wednesday, and Friday.	Elements of Natural Philosophy.
11 to 12½		Trigonometry, Differential Calculus, and Optics.
1 to 2 P.M.		Geography, and History.
2 to 3		First Division, Elements of Botany.
3 to 4		Second Division, Geography, Outlines of Marathee, and English History, and engaged in teaching.
From 10 to 11 A.M.	Tuesday, Thursday, and Saturday.	Elements of Chemistry, and Mineralogy.
11 to 12½		Geography, and History.
1 to 2½ P.M.		Poetical Reader, Translation, Composition, and the Elements of Logic.
3 to 4		Engaged in teaching.

I have already stated that it does not come within my object to notice other than Government Educational Institutions; but as a report on the Church Missionary Establishments in India has lately appeared, it may prove acceptable to subjoin a summary of the present state of the labours of the Society:—

Mission Establishment.								Calcutta North Mission.									
European Missionaries.	Indo-British Missionaries.	European Catechists.	Indo-British Catechists.	Native Catechists and Teachers.	Indo-British Schoolmistresses.	Native Schoolmistresses.	Stations.	Communicants.	Attendants on Public Worship	Seminaries.	Seminarists.	Schools.	Scholars, Boys.	Scholars, Girls.	Youths and Adults.	Sex not distinguished.
24	1	1	10	117	2	4	10	644	2180	8	204	45	2155	265	373	40

Madras Mission.													Bombay Mission.						
Clerical Secretary.	European Missionaries.	Indo-British Missionaries.	Native Missionaries.	European Catechists and Schoolmasters.	Indo-British Catechist and Schoolmaster	Native Catechists and Teachers.	Stations.	Communicants.	Attendants on Public Worship.	Seminaries.	Seminarists.	Schools.	Scholars, Boys.	Scholars, Girls.	European Missionaries.	European Catechist and Schoolmaster.	Country born and Native Schoolmasters.	Stations.	Communicants.	Schools.	Scholars, Boys.	Scholars, Girls.
1	19	1	3	7	1	382	13	9103	13,995	3	99	194	4376	1081	6	1	20	2	3	20	882	2

Himalayan Mission.					Ceylon Mission.										
European Missionaries.	European Catechists.	Stations.	Schools.	Scholars, Boys.	European Missionaries.	Native Missionaries.	European Lay Agent.	Native Catechists and Teachers.	Native Schoolmistresses.	Stations.	Communicants.	Attendants on Public Worship	Seminaries.	Seminarists.	Schools.	Scholars, Boys.	Scholars, Girls.
1	1	1	1	18	9	2	1	104	18	4	182	2870	3	65	92	2110	601

It will thus appear that Government have efficient auxiliaries in the Mission Establishment in promotion of Education in India. These scholars in India (independently of 2711 in Ceylon) amount to 8961, including 1348 girls, of which sex there is not one pupil in the Government institutions.

In concluding this paper on the Educational Institutions of India, I feel bound to observe that the present Governor-General of India, Sir Henry Hardinge, in a truly philanthropic and politic spirit, has resolved not only that successful students shall receive the reward of their labours, but that the State should have the advantage of their acquirements; he therefore on the 10th October, 1844, issued the following proclamation; and it will be seen that no time was lost in rendering it operative by an education notice to the public, published by the Secretary to the Council of Education on the 26th October, 1844, inviting parties to come forward who were desirous of profiting by the advantageous opportunities offered to them.

"EDUCATION IN INDIA.—RESOLUTION.

"The Governor-General, having taken into his consideration the existing state of education in Bengal, and being of opinion that it is highly desirable to afford it every reasonable encouragement, by holding out to those who have taken advantage of the opportunity of instruction afforded to them a fair prospect of employment in the public service, and thereby not only to reward individual merit, but to enable the State to profit as largely and as early as possible by the result of the measures adopted of late years for the instruction of the people, as well by the Government as by private individuals and societies, has resolved, that in every possible case a preference shall be given in the selection of candidates for public employment to those who have been educated in the institutions thus established, and especially to those who have distinguished themselves therein by a more than ordinary degree of merit and attainment.

"The Governor-General is accordingly pleased to direct that it be an instruction to the Council of Education, and to the several local committees and other authorities charged with the duty of superintending public instruction throughout the provinces subject to the Government of Bengal, to submit to that Government at an early date, and subsequently on the 1st of January in each year, returns (prepared according to the form appended to this resolution) of students who may be fitted, according to their several degrees of merit and capacity, for such of the various public offices as, with reference to their age, abilities, and other circumstances, they may be deemed qualified to fill.

"The Governor-General is further pleased to direct that the Council of Education be requested to receive from the governors or managers of all scholastic establishments, other than those supported out of the public funds, similar returns of meritorious students, and to incorporate them, after due and sufficient inquiry, with those of the Government institutions; and also that the managers of such establishments be publicly invited to furnish returns of that description, periodically, to the Council of Education.

"The returns, when received, will be printed and circulated to the heads of all Government offices, both in and out of Calcutta, with in-

structions to omit no opportunity of providing for and advancing the candidates thus presented to their notice, and in filling up every situation, of whatever grade, in their gift, to show them an invariable preference over others not possessed of superior qualifications.

"The appointment of all such candidates to situations under the Government will be immediately communicated by the appointing officer to the Council of Education, and will by them be brought to the notice of Government and the public in their annual reports. It will be the duty of controlling officers, with whom rests the confirmation of appointments made by their subordinates, to see that a sufficient explanation is afforded in every case in which the selection may not have fallen upon an educated candidate whose name is borne on the printed returns.

"With a view still further to promote and encourage the diffusion of knowledge among the humbler classes of the people, the Governor-General is also pleased to direct, that even in the selection of persons to fill the lowest offices under the Government, respect be had to the relative acquirements of the candidates, and that in every instance a man who can read and write be preferred to one who cannot.

"Ordered that the necessary instructions be issued for giving effect to the above resolution, and that it be published in the official gazettes, for general information."

"*October* 10, 1844.

"EDUCATION NOTICE.

"With reference to the resolution of the Right Honourable the Governor-General, dated 10th October, 1844, relative to the employment under Government of all qualified persons educated in the colleges and schools, public and private, of Bengal, it is particularly requested that all governors or proprietors of Schools intending to take advantage of the benefits held out, will send in to the Secretary to Council of Education, with the least possible delay, complete returns of the Institutions under their charge; specifying their situation, the means of affording a complete education possessed by them, the number of masters or teachers employed, the number of pupils attending them, with a syllabus of the course of study pursued, and such other information as may enable the Council of Education to prepare the lists of candidates for public employments, required by the resolution above referred to.

"Further particulars relative to the amount of qualification required, and the nature of the examination to which all candidates for public employment must be subjected before they can be recommended to Government, will be made known hereafter.

"By order of the Honourable the President and Council of Education.

"F. J. MOUAT, M.D., *Secretary.*"

"*Council of Education, October* 26, 1844.