$$
1953
$$



## निब्धा>

প্রতি সংখ্যার জন্ম চ゙ஈদার হার :-
ভারতের মধ্যে ( ডাকমাশ্রল নিঢ়়ে) マ॥০টাকা প্রেসিডেন্সি কলেজজর ছাত্রছাত্রীদের জন্য— $\quad$ ॥॥ " ভারতের বাইরে

সাধারপতঃ বৎসরে ছুইতি সংখ্যা প্রকাশিত হাবে।
প্রেসিঙডন্সি কনেজের বন্ত্তমান ৫ প্রাক্তন ছাত্র এবং অধ্যাপকসমূহের নিকট এই কলেজ ও বিশ্ববিছালয় সম্পকিক এবং অন্ঠান্ঠ বিবিধ রচনা সাদ<্রে আছ্বান কর৷ হচ্ছে। বলা বাহুন্য, প্রকাশিতব্য রচনাগুলির c্্রসিডডেন্সি কন্রেজ পত্রিকার
 বোধ্য র্রচন্ন बই পত্রিকার পঢক্ষ অনুপযোগী। টপযুক্ত ডাকট্টিিট্সদেত শিরোনামালিথিত ললফাফা সর্স না পাঠালল अমনোনীত রচনা ফের্ৎ ৎদওয়| হয় ना।

রচনা পাঠাঢত হত্ল নিম্নলিথিত নির্দেশগুनি পালন কর৷ প্রয়াজন :

কাগজজর এক পৃষ্ঠায় পরিকার হস্তুলিপিত্ অথবা টাইপ কারে লেখ্| দিতত হাব। শব্দ এবং পংক্তির মধ্যে এবং পৃষ্ঠার শिররাচদশ্শ এবং বামপার্শ্বে উপযুক্ত ব্যবধান থাকা আবশ্যক। বিভিন্ন সৃক্ককের পরিবcত্ত সংখ্যানুক্রমিক পাদটীক। বাঙ্ন্নীয়।


পত্রিকাসংহ্রান্ত অন্থান্য বিষয়ে প্রাশনাবিভাগের



Signed Portrait presented by Rastrapati Dr. Rajendra Prasad
as a memento of his visit to his old College on the 24 th December, 1952.




Sri Debendranath Sen, a former Professor of History in this College and an old teacher of the
[By courtesy of the "Hindusthan Standard".


The Principal presenting the Rastrapati with a specially bound volume of the Presidency College Register
[Photo.: D. Saha, First Iear Arts.


The General Secretary presenting the address of welcome on behalf of the College Union,

CPhoto. : B. Barman, Third Year Arts.

rBy courtesy of the "Hindusthan Standard".




## ফাল্ডুন, ১৩৫৯: চ চতুT্ত্রিংশে বর্ষ : ম মাচ', ১৯৫৩

## অन্য6ঙ্ষন্ন चাণী

অামাদদর এই মহাবিদ্যাল্য়্রতিষ্ঠার পর একশত ছত্রিশ বৎসর অতিক্রান্ত হইয়াছে এনং ইহার ৷ে বিভাগটি পরে প্রেসিডেন্সি কলেজ নামে পৃথক সত্তালাভ করে, আগামী আড়াই বংসরেরে মব্যে তাহার একশত বংসর পুণ্ণ হইবে। এই করেজের সুদীর্য জীবনের মধ্যে ১৮৫৭ সানল কলিকাত। বিশ্ববিছালয় স্ছাপিত হয় এবং ১৯০২ সানে একটি নৃতন বিশ্ববিছালয়্র অাইন প্রণীতত হয়। একটি ঢৃতীয় অইন অধুনা প্রবর্তিত হইয়াছে এবং এই বৎসরের মধ্ধেই কার্যকরী হইবে।

এই কনেজের বিরাট ঐতিহ সর্বজনবিছিত, কিন্তু ইহার ভবিয়তের কথ্য আমাদের অধিক চিন্তনীয়। এই শিকাকেক্দের্র উন্নতির জন্ম স্বভাবতঃই অমাদদর সর্বাদ্রে প্রেয়োজন অथিক স্ছ|नসংকুলান এবং অার্টস্বিভাণে বিভিন্ন বিষয়ে শিক্ ও ছা|্রদের গবেষণার স্মবিষ্র ও ব্যবস্থ|-বিতশেষ করিয়্রা অর্থনীতির গবেষণার জন্য পৃথক্ কতকগুলি ঘর ও ঊপযুক্ত আয়োজন। ইছ ছাড়|, বর্তমান ভারতে বিজ্ঞানশিক্ষী ও ও গবেষণার স্মচনাক্ক্রকুপে এই কলেজ প্রসিদ্ধ। অামাদের এথনকার বিজ্ঞানবিভাগগুলি যদিও গবেষণার স্থনাম
 উন্নতির পথে বাধ। স্থী্টি করিয়াছে।

यঁছারা ঢদশে উম্চশিক্ষার মানোন্য়়নকামী, এই কলেজের ক্রমবিকাশের পরবর্তী পর্ৰায়ের জন্ঘ তাঁাদের ঔ২স্ুক্য এ চাঞ্চল্য স্বাভাবিক। স্ততরাং, কনেজজর অগ্রগতির জন্য এবং তাহার স্ননাম অক্ষুন্ন রাথিবার জন্য প্রঢ়়াজন একটি সুচিন্তিত পরিকল্পন।। শীঘইই এইরকম একটি পরিকল্পন কনেজ হইতে প্রস্তাবিত হইতৈছে। সরকারের আশা|ুক্রপ সাছায্যের উপর ইহার সাফল্য নির্ভর করিবে।

## 

## कढबनজ 배퓩









 ভার লে নিচ্যেছে।
















































 Presidency College men might make a gift to the College of its

Hall of Assembly，an idle dream？Or is it a true vision ？＂】斤斤 অধাক্ক

 জেম্স্－এর সসয়ের 氏েবক অনেক বেবী জটিল হয়েছে－তার বে 戶িকটট অyু ঘরবাড়ীর

 করতে घথ্থষ সাহস পান নাই，আজ অার চেয়ে বৃহত্তর অভাবও মাত্র একজন প্গাক্ননছাত্রের


 সন্তাননর কাচছ মাতার অভাবমোচনের প্রার্থনা অপেক্ষ অধিক অসঙ্গত নয়।







 অভাব অামরা বহুক্ষেত্রে নিয়ত অন্ুভব করি।

 বিজ্ঞানাগারেরে বাইরেও ইনি বহ্মুখী দক্ষতার অধিকারী। থেলাধূলায় তঁর এত উ২সাছ বে






 তাঁকেই। শামরা তাঁর পৃণ্ণসাফল্য कামন। করি।

 एক্টর দেবেন্জনাথ মিত্র থড়গপু্রু Indian Institute of Technologyতে বোপাান

 তাঁর শূন্মম্থানন এসেছ্নে ख্রীষ্যাসসাধन মুহ্থাপাধ্যায়। Astronomical Observatoryর হুযোগ্য সহকারী ख্রিস্থরেক্র্রাথ দাস সুদীর্থকাল কাজ করার পর অবসর গ্রহণ করনেও কলেজ ऊা＜ক ছেড়ে দিতে পারে নি। গত জুলাই মাসে অাংশিকভিত্তিতে তিনি পুনর্নিযুক্ত হ হ্রেছেন।

রসায়ন্রিভাগের প্রেধান অধ্যাপকের স্থান পৃর্ণ কৃরেরেন ক্ততী অধ্যাপক ডক্টর প্রতুলচন্দ রককিত। জামসেদপুররর National Institute of Sciencesএর ভ্তপূর্ব Research Fellow，ডब্টর স্রধীরচন্দ্র সোম এই বিভাতগ যোগ্ান করেছেন। ক্বষ্ণনগর থেকে এসেছেন ख্㐅্র্গগウীশ রায়।

খড়গপুর্রে Indian Institute of Technologyতে যোগদান করার জন্ঠ অারেকজন
 অধ্যাপক，ডক্টর নীরূদুমার সেন। এঁদের মত সুযোগ্য অধ্যাপটক্র অভাবে আমাদের কঢেজের পভীর ক্ষতি। কিন্তু নবপরিকপ্পিত জাতীয় প্রতিষ্ঠ斤নগুলিঢক গড়ে তোলার কাজে আমাদদর কল্লেজের বিশিষ্ট অঁশ থাকবে এটl খুবই সঙ্গত।
 Industrial Co－operation Scheme অন্যোয়ী পশ্চিম জার্যানীতে Bonn বিশ্ববিতানয়ে শিক্ষালাভের জন্ম প্রেরিত হয়েছেন। তাঁর স্ছানে নিযুক্ত হর্রেছেন ঐনিরুঞ্জন পাল। অজকাল বিদেশ্রে উচ্চশিক্কালাভের বে নানারকম পরিকল্রনা হয়েছে তার স্থযোগ অামাদের পার্থবিছা－ বিভপের লেক্চারার্র শ্রীসত্যেক্রকুমার ভট্টাচার্যও পেয়েছেন। তিনি আমেরিকায় Indiana প্রদেশের Notre Dame বিশ্ববিছালয়্যে সহকার্রী গৃবেষকক্রপে উচ্চশিক্ষালাভ করছছন।


 শ্রিকমলচল্দ রায়েচৌুরী।




































 জাতির ইতিহাসসঙ্কলনে বিশিষ্ট অংশ গ্রহণ করার জন্ম তিনি অমন্ত্রিত হয়েচছন। এই বিয়াট










 এব্জন প্রাক্তন সদা্য।



 thesis-











## b <br> প্পেসিডেন্সি কলেজ পত্রিক

























 D. C. L. টপাপি এ্রান কর্রেন।






 সभ্ধীত এনং নাট্যকলার ট২সাইী রুগ্রাইী ছিলেন তিনি।





 खীব্রেঙ্দনাথ বন্দ্যোপাধ্যায়।
 ইতাनীয় দার্শ নिक Benedetto Croce এবং আামর্রিক।-প্রবাসী ম্প্যানিশ দার্শনিক -





















## so প্রেসিডেন্সি কলেজ পত্রিকা



































 হবে বোম্রা কঠিন।





















লাইত্রের্রিতে অনেক মূন্যবান ছুশ্রাপ্য বই जাজ পুরাiতন जীণ হতে চনেছে।











 ल বিষ্য়ে উদাগীন।


























বৃত্তিলাভ, পদক বা পুরুস্কার প্রাপ্তি ইত্যাiির ককান বিবরুণ থাকে না। এই সব খবরের জন্য
 বিড়ন্থনার মৃল্লে অাছছ সরকারী হস্তক্কেপের অবশাস্তাবী কুফল। সরকারীরপ্রেসর ঊপর পেজেট প্রকাশনার ভার দিয়ে বিশ্ববিছালয় ছাত্রসমাজকক এই বিপর্যয়ে জड़िত করেছে।
 গেজেট ছাপান্াীর ব্যবস্থ। হহাক।

বাংলাদেশের ছাত্রদদর बিভিন্ন পরীক্ষীয় ব্যাপক এবং ক্রুত অবনতি লক্ষ করে সম্প্রতি
 এর কাছে তাঁর ইদানী? এ বিষয়় তথ্য অন্থসন্ধানও করেছেন। এই পত্রিকার রজত-জয়্তী সং:্যায় খ্যাতনামা প্রাক্তন অধ্যাপক ख্রীহিরীকুমার বন্দ্যোপাষ্যায় "Presidency College-

 enabled us to separate the honours classes entirely from the pass and to inaugurate a scheme which aims at giving special assistance to promising under-graduates who intend to appear in the public service examinations after taking their degrees." बই পরিকল্পন। সেই সম্ম কিছ্রুূ্র
 উদ্জাবিত হয়ৌিছ তথনকার চেট্যে এথন এর প্রয়োজন অনেক বেশী। কারণ, প্রथমতঃ শিকার মান অनেক नেন্ম গেছ巨 ; বिजীয়ত:, Public Service Commissions बशन কর্ম


 পরবর্তী মন্তব্য বর্তমান সমন্ড| সম্বক্ধেও ब্রযোজ্য-

Candidates appearing in these examinations from Bengal are handicapped for want of proper coaching facilities and it is in the fitness of things that Presidency College with its splendid resources should take the lead in this matter.
 কথ্ধা বিবেচনা করতত অনুরোধ করি।

[^0]
































 বিক্তত হ্বার অবকাশ পাবে।
 Physical Chemistry Laboratory অবস্ছিত লেইখান্ন রক বিব্রাট চার্রতন্ন বাড়ী টৈত্রী

























 বিব্রে।

Astronomical Observatory-এর নীচে অবস্ছ্তিত সব ঘর কনেজ ইউনিয়নকক
 বাসস্ছান निি্মিত হবে আর্টস্ नাইব্রেরির পশ্চিম জীণ প্রাচীর বরাবর্।
 মাঠর ঊত্তর-পশিচম কোবে অধ্যাক্ষাবাস নির্মিত হবে।



## সাঙ্কিতিক সাহ্ত্য

তপনকুমার বন্নোপাধ্যায়——ষ্ষ্ঠ বর্ষ, বাংলা
পাশ্াত্ত্য সাহিত্যের বে বিশিষ্ট form বা রচননাশিন্প অামাঢদর ঢেশের সাহ্ত্যি-ভূমিতে অসিয়া স্গান জুড়িয়া বসিয়াছে, "সাত্ক্রিতি সাহিত্য" বা "Symbolic Literature"


 যাইতে পারে, কিক্তু Symbolic Literature-এর যে অভিনব র্রপ পাশ্তাত্যা সাহিতো


বলাই ছয়ত্তে বাহল্য, পা凶চাত্তা সাহিত্যের ইতিহাসে এই সাক্乛ুতিক সাহিতেের অত্যুয়্য থুব বেশী দিন एয় নাই। কিন্ত এই সাহ্ত্তি-শিল্পটি সাহ্ত্যেসমালোচনার অসরে
 বनिয়া গাল পাড়িয়াছেন, কেহ ব। ইহার অাবেদনন মুগ্ধ ইইয়্য ইহার স্তুতি গাহিয়াছেন। কার্লাইন তো স্পা্টী বলিয়াচেন-
"It is in and through symbols that man, conscionsly or unconsciously, lives, works, and has his being; those ages, moreover, are accounted the noblest which can best recognise the symbolic worth and prize it highest."
 সষ্বে সাধারণভাবে অলোচন্গ করিব।

























 2. বিতিন্ন অর্থ প্রকাশ করিতেছে।








এই அ্রীী আবার ছুই শ্রেণীন। এক্প্রকার প্র্রতীক আছছ যাছাতে বিষয় ও
























 ধ্ধরিতে পারি না।






পুব্বেই বলিয়াছি, এই ইঙ্গিত বা ব্যঞ্জনা ছুইভাবে ছইইতে পারে এবং তাছাতেই সাত্কেতিক সাহিত্যের শ্রেণীবিভাগ অগসিষ্ যায়। সাক্কিতিক সাহিত্যের এই প্রকার়জ্রেদের অবতারণার


আমাদের জীবনননর মোটামুটি ছুইি বিভাপ-এপটি বাহিরের, অপরটি ভিতরের।









 সাহিত্য স্ষষ্টির ইহাই মূল কথ্।। কার্লাইল বলেन-
> "In the symbol proper, what we can call a symbol, there is ever more or less distinctly and directly some embodiment and revelation of the Infinite; the Infinite is made to blend itself with the Finite to stand visible, and, as it were, attainable there."







 মব্যে লাভ করা যাইবে কি ঊপায়ে? তাছাকে প্রত্যক্ক করিবার উপায় নাই, কিন্তু তাছার


 অপ্রত্যককে প্রত্যক করিরিতে চাহ্তিতেছেন।












"The essence of symbolism is its insistence on a world of ideal beaty and its conviction that this is realised throngh art......A peculiar intensity is what the symbolists sought to give. In their loyalty to this aim they had to break with many familiar characteristics of poetry. Above all they avoided those public and political themes which were dear to the romantics. For the symbolists absorbed in an ideal beauty, politics is an alien and hostile theme."

এইরূপে দ斤শি, সাক্ককতিক সাiিত্য একটি বিশশষ ধরনণর জীবনকথাকক একটি বিশিষ্ঠ


 বनिতেছছন-
"It is an attempt to spiritualise literature, to evade the old bondage of rhetoric, the old bondage of exteriority......In attaining this liberty it accepts a heavier burden; for in speaking to us so intimately, so solemnly, as only religion had hitherto spoken to us, it becomes itself a kind of religion, with all the duties and responsibilities of the sacred ritual."

 এই অপ্রত্যক্কের জগং রচনা করিতে থাকে, সেই জীবনধর্মের মাধ্যমে গ্রহণ করিতে না পারিলে সাক্কিতিক সাহিত্যের রসাস্বাদন ঘটে না।

সাক্কিতিক সাহিত্ত্যের बই থে বিশিষ্ট প্রক্কতির ক্থী বলিলাম, ইহাতে তাহার পরিচয়ীট পরিক্মুট ইইবে। অতঃপর পূব্বে যাহ। বলিয়াছি তাছা হইতে সাক্কিতিক সাহিত্যের বিভিন্ন প্রকার ভৌটি দেখাইব। সাত্কেতিক সাহ্ত্যে বলিরে অামরা ব্যাপক অর্থে সাহিত্যের








 ঞ্গপুলিকে ( form ) বিভিন্ন নান দিবার চেষ্টী করির।
 তখন সেই সাহিঅ্যকক ‘জপ-প্রতীক’ বনিতে পারি। প্রত্যক্করপ সব সমড্যেই নির্দিষ্, তাহার
 দ্বায় অহুসরণ করিতে পারি। ইংরাজীতে যাহাকে Allegory বল্| হ্র, ইহ অনেক্টা সেই




সাহিত্যের অবলম্নীয় বিষয়ী যখন ককান একটি অপ্রত্যক্ক ভাবের সঢক্কেত দেয় তখন जেই সাহিত্যকে ভাব-প্রতীীক বলিঢত পারি। অপ্রত্যক্ষ ভাব ছুই প্রকারের হইতে পাঢর;

 সাহিত্য' এই নামে অক্রিহিত করিব। এঋানন ‘সাঙ্কেতিক’ কথাটিকে এই বিশিষ্ট অর্থে গ্রছন



 কর্রিতে হয়।




 ভাবের আভাস পাই। এখাটন সেই সরক্কতট যুক্তির দ্বার়া অনুসুরণ করা ষাঁয না, আমারের এক আध্যাण্মিক সংস্কাররর কাচू ইহার আবেদন। সাহিত্যিক এখাcন নানাভাবে আমাদর



 চিত্তের পক্ষে সন্তব হ্য। তখন,
"The visible world is no longer a reality and the unseen world no longer a dream." (Yeats).
সাক্কিতিক সাহিত্যের এই বে প্রকারভ্ডে ঢেখাইলাম, ঠিক এই ছাঁচের মব্যেই বে সকন






 ঢাই চরম বলিয়| দাবী কবিবার্র অবকাশ নাই।








































 ঢেতন জাগ্রত इই
 শর্রাশ্গা নাভ করিতে সক্ষম ইইয়াঢে।

# বাংলা সাহিত্তের ভবিষ্যৎ ও রবীন্দ্রনাথ 

বিনয় ঢৌধুরী—ธত্থর্থ বধ্ষ, ইতিহাস


















 বিম্মে কেতালাত সুর্রে অনুরণন লেলে।








 নিবিব্রেষ, ননব্যাক্তিক এ ক্রপ-তাতে রিয়ালিজরের অঙ্গহানি।



 তার পরের অবশ্যস্তাবী পরিণতির দিক্ থে<ক সगশ্যাকক ঢদখtর কোন প্রেরণা ছিন না


 চেষ্য হতোনা। ও্তনিবেশিক কেশে সাআাজ্যবাদীশক্তির স্বার্থ্র সমাজ-বিপ্লবের্রন লে ব্রপ






 তাকানন্ন খুব স্বাভাবিক। ইতিহাসে দেখ যায় জাতীয়অাবাদদর উন্মেষের সক্পে বুর্জোয়

 কার্লাইলের ভাষায় "Cash-payment is the sole nexus between men and

 মাক্মের্র ভাষায়-
> "All fixed, fast-frozen relations, with their train of ancient and venerable prejudices and opinions, are swept away-all new-formed ones become antiquated before they can ossify. All that is solid melts into air, all that is holy is profane, and man is at last compelled to face with sober senses his real conditions of life and his relations with his kind.'
 অক্য করত্তে হবে। নূতনের যে বীজ উগগমের আশায় আढোবাতাসের জন্ঠ দিন গুণছিন অার চারপাশে আবরুণ স্থি্টি করল মধ্যযুগীয় একরাশ বিধি-বিধান। ঢাই


 নৃতढनর পথে মুক্তির উন্মাদনা, न। ছিল জীবনनর ব্যাপ্তি। ব্যক্তি অসমাজ্রের মধ্যে






 অভিজ্ঞজার বিভিন্ন স্তর-পরিক্রমার ঐশ্বর্বের বে অজাব—তার প্গাড়াকার কথা এই ঐতিছািিক

 জল-বায়ুর মত স্বাজাবিক হ্য়ার স্থযোগ থাকে। ফরাসী ইতিহাসের এক বিশেম




 बেতে পাca "truthful reproduction of typical characters under typical

 আসল সঢ্তের দিटে অঙ্গুলিপাত করেছিল। জতীয় জীবন্নর গ্ীীরে আপন সত্তার বোগ















 भात्रुनि।











 गাহ্বের্রে অগ্রগতিত্ত বিশাস ছারানোকে তিনি মহাপাপ বনে মনে করতেন। দানবের











এই মানবঅবোব্বের থেকক বিচ্ছিন্ন হত্রে বাংলা সাহিত্যের ব্যাপ্তি অসস্তব। অধা-লামচ্তভান্ত্রিক, ঔপনিবেশিক অরন্বর্বে থেকে রবীন্দনাতের সংস্কারমুক্ত צন সত্যের অবির্খবকে
 অর্গनিত হ্তত পাঢররি।



 স্বীক্বতি জানাঢে অসমর্থ। এলিয়টটর ঐতিহ্বাদ সম্পৃণ কালনিরপেক্ষ, এজন্ম অটুতিছাসিক।






 মানুযের মূন্যবৌধের মৃ্যে নৃতন কোন বিপ্লব ঘটাঢে পারেনি। টেকনিকের চুলচের্র



 পরীক্--নিরীকার স্তরে। রবীক্রনাথের পর বাংলার ইতিহাসের অনেক পর্ব কেটে 小াছে।






 থেকে পেব্যেছি অমর্গ এই প্রকাশভন্ধী। রবীক্দুনাথের ভাষ। 3 ভাব ম্বীপের ছারभাবরর
 এ অহংকারেররই পরিচায়ক।

রবীল্দনাথ ভাবী বাংলাসাiিত্যের র্যাজ－দরবারে যাবার পথে বির্নাট চোরণ－ঘ্মার। রবীক্রনাথের ঐতিহাসিক সীমাবদ্ধতাকে ঢাঁর বির্াট মানবতাবোধ অনেকথানি ঘুচিয়ে斤িয়েছে। মানুষের্র প্রতি অালবাসায় ও মমত্ববোণে রবীী্র্রনাথ জনগণণরইই কবি। আার


 কবে এগুতে পারবেন। বিরাট প্রতিজার স্বর্মপই হন অগামী ছ’তিন শতককর
 বৌঁ অগামীকালের ইতিহাসেরইই নির্তুল প পদচিহ্ন।

## স্রষ্টার ম্ত্যু

## অলোকরজ্জন দাশগুপ্ত－চতুর্থ বর্ষ，অার্টস্

অাজ দেথি অামাদ্দর মনের কপাট
বব্ধ অর্র অন্ধকার ঘরের্র ভিতর্র
অন্যক ডাকিনা কেউ ；জানালার শণিত অধর
দাতে দাত চেপে রাত্থ，আছ য়ি এমন প্রহর
আচষ্থিতে নামে যার ছই ছাতে হাত র্রেথে দেখ। যায় মাঠ
তৃতের নিবিড় ধ্রেমে，আর ঘগি দেথা যায় বন
আলোয় অপ্শুত বৃক্ষে ：অবারিত ভোরের অকাশ
बতিশ্র阝ত স্ূর্বে স্থথী।
বিক্তু এই মন
যতোবার পৃথিবীর সুত্ৌমুখ্থি হ্য，ইতিহাস

অথচ ঘুম্মর স্বপ্নে কেটে যা়্যি 斤িন
কথন জানি না，তব্ बইুকুই অনেক বাঁচোয়া，
নাছলে বুক্পি－বা এই কলঙ্কিত ব্ব্ত－প্রাদক্ষিণ
ছর্বিষহ হতো আরো，এীুকুই ঞ্
শতাকীর কাছে। অজ সভাতার ब্রাণ শীণত্ণতো
নীীর মতন，তাচে যাবে না হাত－পা－মুখ ধ্রোয়া।

 অর্রের বিশ্রাম করের ব্যাহত, কালো ননীতটট ঊত্তান ঢেউট্রের পর ঢেউ দেথে ন্নাকো এসে জোটে


 এনে দেয় পেদিবৈেব্রা রাত......



প্রমিথিম্মুসের মরো হরাশায় উজ্জনত। করে যাই জম!

অবিচিত্র পथাতিবাহ্ন, ক্কাননা বোছানার হ্কমা


দরেনা দরেেনা কেউ, অুু এসো পার হর্যে যাই

এই সব উত্রাই চড়াই।


बই তামসীহ তীরে ঘুর্রে কিতে আাাদ্দর গান
শুনে চার কানোজলে প্র হবে ওচি ও শ্শেতাভ-
দौপ্রিत সক্ত্পে স্মুহান

চার্রোপর মদনন কপাটট
যদি কেউ থিন তুলে অাড়ালে লুকার, সপ্মোহিত লেই ঘরে 斤িনরাত ইাটট,




## ব্বন্তत्रूতি

## 

নनীতত নেনেছি কতলিন অবগাছন্ন কত সক্ক্যায় সহ্থর পার্য আনসে,
 ভরেছ্রি তখনই কাদোজন এই কনরে।

লেহ হ’ঢে খলে ভ্রেে গেন ব্রোতোগতিতে ;-

লেখা বাধ্য পেন শুব্ অবিরাম צতিতে।
 বে ছিন জীবনে জালোডরা কত সকানে;

ব্যর্থ করতে পান্লনন crন অকালে?


উত্তরरীন পর্নত ঢাকা বনেরে;

কভ ছায়াপপ্ অারা গ্রাহ অালো অাকাৈশ
কত্দিন ধরে লেই অলো অােে নয়নন ;

সারারাতাত কাটট আপালি মশার্তি বয়্নে।
লেও কি পারে না পৃথিবী ভরাতে (শাউারত
কান্তার-কেস্ ধরার কাননে কাননন,

কেন তবে «রে কোরক বিরস অাননে ?


মোছানাঁ অ’’র কৃন্রোল ‘नি সজোরে


## প国

কল্যাণকুমার দাশগুপু—চতুর্থ ব্্ব，ইতিহাস

রাত্রি অার প্রভাতের নিত্যদ্ভ，যেথান কেবন
गবুজ্জের সমারোছ，বেথা শুধু ছায়া－স্ুশীতল শান্তির কুটিরগুনি মর্মরিত মর্সের্র অজানে， কনক－ধান্যের ব্রোতে হাওয়ার তরণী বেথী আনে স্বて্নের সৌরভ－স্রর，ভেれানে প্রাণের শতছন গাননর কিরণ－স্পর্শে অষুরান আনন্গ－উ死ল，

 তোমারি মতন 分ক সেলিদনর অসতক্ক ক্ষণে গথ ভুলে ভুল করে কেন যে এরেছি，নোছাবেশে কেন বে সেদিন অামি সমুন্তত উদ্ধত বৌবঢন দাবিট্যে রাথার চেষ্টী করেছি নির্সম ছাচত，এর অब্d কোন মানে ছিল ？—এক্মাত্র য়ণ্য কুচকীর বুটিল চঅ্রান্ত ছাড়l‘বলো পছ্য।，বলো অমাবদর অার কে ফেরাতত পারে যৌবন্নর অানন্দ－নিবিড় স্ষাভাবিক পথ থেকে？ —তবু তুমি এঋন্যা ছর্বার উত্তু ছ－তরম্প－শীয। ；স্নিপ্ধ－শাম এই বাংলার斤িগন্তবিহ্ত্ত কোনে দূরান্ত－উন্মুখ্র শিশু－প্রীণ， জন্মদাত। ঈশানের বজ্র্－গা়় ভয়াল বিষাণ এখনন৷ বাজ্রিয়ে যাও আত্ম－হারা অরুঙ্গের রোলে， কিল্ুু আমি পারি না ঢো ঢোমারি মত্ন পেইর্রপ
 তুমি কী আমাকে কর্বে ক্ষমাহীন বিছ্যং－বিদ্রপ ？

> স্বীকার্य : অক্ষ্ম অমি, ঢোমার্রি মতন পূণ্ণ-প্রীণ মত্তপ্রাণ প্রাণ-শিশু নই অমি অজ, জেন্গা তবু একদিন তোমারি মতন তীব্র ত্রেজে দীপ্তিমান ছিলাম, চঋল- িিত্ত হিমাদ্রির শক্তির প্র্তিজ্য় ছিলাম সেদিৰন জেনৌ, ঢারপর কোন কুচক্রীর কুটিল চক্রান্ত-ফলে হয়ে গ্গেছি ডোরের শিশিরু, 一 সে কথ্য জানি নী, ভাই অবরুদ্ধ শক্তির্ম বেদনা তোমার্রি তরঙ্গ-ভজ্গ মঢে হ্য়, যায় যেন শোন্য। আমার অ|ত্মার অfoি অপ্রকাশ্য, তাই তুমি তার সার্থক স্থন্দর ক্রপ মনে হয়-তে পশ্যা অামার॥

## ক্প|ন

## শ্ঐীবিশ্বনাথ চট্টোপাধ্যায়-পক্ম বর্ধ, ই্রাজী

त্রিথ্যা










 আাজ সভ্ার স্তরে এসে পৌঢছেছে।





 गে অাগুন জ্মালতত শিখন। অই অাওুনের ঊত্তাপ ও আढোক অার পক্ষে অনেকयানি


 বিরাম ননই। ग्रষ্টি হত্যে চढলেছে অাকাশयান, অাকাশবাণী ও অণবিক বোমার।
 কাজ মাছ্য করেছে তার মূল্লে জাচছ কল্পনা।



 পরিণত হ্বে। বাস্তুহারা মানুষ মগ্গ-গ্রহে পির্যে নতুন টপনিবেশের স্থাপনা কর্নবে।

অনগণত, ভাবীকালের কথ্খ যে রকম আমরী কল্পনা করঢত পারি সেই রকম কল্পনাঁ অামরা ইতিহাসের প্রাটীন অধ্যায়েও ফিতর যেতে পারি। প্রাচীন ইতিব্ত্তের উঢল্লেথবোগ








কল্পনার ল্রাচুর্य থাকা খুবই ভাল, কিন্তু কল্পনার অপব্যবছার্র ভাল নয়। ক্ম্নন

 অর্থইীন মন্নাবিকার মাত্র। যাদের কश্পনাশক্তি নেই অার৷ সত্যিই অমুকম্পার পাত।

 সত্য, সৌৗ্দ্র ও মাধুর্বের অনেক্যানি থেকেই আমরী বক্চিত হইই।




 বबनाছन 'Heaven lies about us in our infancy'.

লেক্সীপীয়ার্রে মিড্গামার-নাইচ্স্ ভ্রীম্ নাটকে অছ্-
The lunatic, the lover and the poet
Are of imagination all campact.

 ক্রেহন 1











> But, soft! what light through yonder window breaks?
> It is the east, and Juliet is the sun.
 गাनदी অiর অष্ধেক কह্পন।



 সাদর অহ্বান জানিয়েছেন-

> ছুমিও আইস मেবী,
> তুমি মধুকরী কক্পনে।

 লক্ষ্য করেই সংস্কৃত অালক্ষারিিক বলেছেন :

অপারে কাবাসংসাt্র কবির্রেকঃ প্রজাপতি:।


 উজ্জ্রল করে ঢোলেন। ভেগ্তলি স্নুর্দর সেগুলিকে তিনি স্ুন্দরতর করতে চান। তাই তিनি বলেন :

> এঁएक जिएয় যাব घনত্র ছায়,
> ক ব্রে দিয়ে যাব বসন্ত কায়|
> বাসন্তীবাস-পর্য।

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { সাগর্রের জcc অরাণ广ছাম্র }
\end{aligned}
$$






 ঢদন্থের উণ্ধেন চলে ৫েতে পারবে। অার এই মহামানবই একদ্নিন পারবে ধরার ধৃলিতনে স্বর্গের সুষমা স্থষ্টি কর়তে।

# ইতিহাদে ব্যক্তির স্থান 

অংশুরঞ্জন সেন

ইতিব্ব্ত্তের প্রবাছপথে একট্য সমাজ-প্রগতির নীপ্তি অাবত চঙ্পল করে তেরিল মানবমাসসকে। স্থদূর অতীত হতে বত্ত মান যুগ পর্ষন্ত এই অশ্রান্ত কব্লোলই ইতিহাসেরু ছিশান্রী অালে হয়ে ওঠে। নানা ঘাত-প্রতিঘাতের মধ্য দিয়ে মান্ষে এগিয়্রে চনেছে শাত্তিময়
 ইতিছাস-সচচত্ন মনে। তাই সমাজ-ব্যবস্থার প্রাথমিক যুপে আা্্মবিকাশের নানাপথ ঘথন উপস্থিত হোল মাহ্ৰষের সামনে, সমসাময়িক ইতিছাসসও দেখখ গৌো অার ब্রকাশ। অাবার ইতিহাসের পুর্রোগামিনী গতি যখন স্তক হয়ে আসে, তখন সেই প্রাণছীন অবর্জনাকক দূর করত্ত অবির্ভাব ছয় কোন অজেয় ব্যক্তির, ষিনি ছর্গমকক করে তেলেন সুগম, দান্রকে টপলক্ক।
 লাভ বরূছে প্রত্বতির সংস্পশ্রে এসেই। এইভাবে সে চিনেছে তার পারিপার্শ্বিককক, চিনেছে গোটে পৃথিবীকক। আর এর থেকেক্ জন্ম নির্যেছে নতুন ভাব, নতুন শক্তি, নতুন অাদর্শ। স্তরাং প্রক্বতির অভিজ্ঞতালক্র জ্ঞান অার সমাজ ও মাহুযের স্বার্থূক অষ্বিক পরিমাণে ক্রপায়িত কঢরে ঢোলার শক্তিই মানুষের্র ব্যক্তিব্রে করেছে সমাটে

 দেথার অভ্যেস হয়ে দাঁড়িয়েছিলৌে মাহুযের। সেই ঘটনারাশির ত্তুপ হতে বেরিয়ে অাসাই
 কথথ উদ্ছাটিত করলেন আমাদের কাছছ। পেছিন থেকক খুরে গেলো ইতিহাসের আর একীট নতুন পথ।

কিন্তু সমসাময়িক কানের উচ্ছুসিত অভিনন্দন লাভ করলেও কার্লাইলের ঐতিহসিক


 দ্নিিক উন্নতির পক্ষপাতী, আবার অন্নদিকে বাস্তব অগ্রগতির বিরোধী। এর ফ্লে তিনি
 সাহাষ্যে তিনি নতুন বিজ্ঞানকে বিড্রুপ ক্রলেন, প্রাচীন র্ধর্মকে বিচার কর্রলেন সেইডাবে।

```
> প্রাক্তুন ছ\ত্র (১৯8৭-৫))।
```



 গগা|ড়া


 কার্নাইলের্র টત্দেখ।



 করতে পারবেন। ৭টাই হোল ফদাররননিিক কার্নাইনের ব্যাক্ত-বিচার্রের নিরিথ। রিত





 ৫ ব্যক্কিদ্ষের ঘটনো অপমৃত্যু।








































 बवियेगण










 উৎপীড়িত এ শোষিত মানুবের কাহিনী七ক বেরকম মর্মশ্পর্শী ভষষায় ব্যক্ত করেছছন অাঁর
 ভাবেই জনম্বার্থ্র সঙ্গে জড়িত বেকক যুপে যুপ্গে ব্যকক্তিত্ব এগিত্রেছে আপন সার্থকতর পথে।













এইভাবে ইতিছাচে ব্যক্তির ভূমিক। রঢেছে একট। বিশিষ্ট স্থান অধিকার করে।



































 बালোকের দূত।

## ग্বপ্ন



সবুছ স্বপণन ভরা মাঠ জাজ ঘুমাব্ এখন।
 বিশ্মরণণর ঠীরে ভেস্সে ভভলে চ'নেছি মথন।


 বনানীর মায়া ঢেড়ে ম্পপ্ম চঢল অজানার পথথ।

মন-बটিনীর ককান ছনো ছলো জোয়াররতে ভভেে ;



## ভুত্লের স্বর্গ

বর্ট্কৃ্ণ দে—বষ্ঠ বর্ধ, র্রাজনীতি

 ককন মিথ্যে ছরাশার মৃণা্য মৃর্তির ধ্যান, বলো— यদি-বা প্রাণেণর স্পাল্ণ নযিত চোてথ-৫ ছনোছলো
 নৃপ্রের্রে মজো তার কানে-কানে যতো बোনালামजा’ দিত্রে কী হবে? সেই ভোরের বিভোর ৃৃভবে




 এক লে পথিক－্র্রা ভোমারই ম্বপ্নের গানন কবি


এ－ও যদি ভুল，অবে অার কেন，কেন হহ হদয়
 কেন অার সময়ের্র তীক্ন তীরে তোমার সক্ধ্প্র


তীর্থ্রে পথথর রেমু দুই হাতে কামনা কৃড়ার，一



## ছুটির গান

সুস্নাত গস্গোপাধ্যায়—পগ্পম বর্ধ，বিজ্ঞান

অন্েে কনেজজ শান্তি নামলে।，





নামন্｜সবাই মৃক্তির इাબ্য！পাবার জন্যে－
এबদ亠 শান্তি－
থাকে य斤ি সেই घন বনানীর
ন্নিধ্দ ছায়ার্ত শাত্ত নিবিড়




বনেন্র ছার্যায় সবুজ পাতার বুটির জুনঢত।

বিজন বনের অनস সক্ষ্য

कि 川াन্তি ঢাनে ？


সরির্যে হুদ্য ছোটট কিন্ন এই স্মরণণর পানে



মিলিত্রে চনার গান পেল্যেছিলো। লেই পथ চनা
मনन क’রে এई রাত্রির নो匕়়
यিि উমনা इও बাজ，য价 পেই একসাしথ




## বিজ্ঞগপননর অর্থ নীতি

অমর্তকুমার ।সন—চতুর্ধ বর্ষ, অর্थনীতি








 কাজে অাি নার্রাজ।














 (Monopolistic Competition)। गেれান बত্যেকের জিনিলের সঙ্গ অন্থের
 বাড়রে প্রুহ।














 गন্ত্ব ন নয়।

| 小ৌট খরচ | דেন రৈרী | বিজ্ঞীনেন খ্র | जিনিচেস্র প্রিমা¢ | पाম | মৌট আয় | बाड |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| \＄00 | 68 | S® | 82 | Ollo | 289 | 89 |
| 300 | 6o， | २०， | 80 | 8 | 260， | boy |
| 200， | 96 | 2® | O6 | 8110 | 298） | 92 |
| seoy | 90 | 90， | ง¢ | © | 290， | 90 |
| 2009 | い | 08 | $\bigcirc 2$ | 810 | ごけ | bt |




লোট খরচের পরিমাণট। মঢন করুন এবার কমাননা হোন। অাপনি 户িক করলেন








৮o, টोকা। এই শে আলাஈ অালাஈ পরিমাচে খরচ কর়া হচ্ছে, এরও এক্ট তালিক্ বানানো ব্যেে পারে।

| ब্যেট খ্তু | সবচ6ঢয়ে বেশী আয় | সবঢБয়ে বেশী লাए | জিনিস কৈরী\্র খরচ | বিজ্ঞাপনের খরচ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 201 | د, | 901 | いく | २® |
| 300, | 290 | $9 \times$ | 901 | 90, |
| 350, | ১৯o | bo, | 90 | 901 |
| 220, | 320 | 9¢ | 6-\ | $8^{\circ}$, |

 वেশী। ৭ও, টাকা জিনিস তৈরীতে আর ৩৫, টাকা বিজ্ঞাপনন খরচ করে নগদ আনিটি টাকালাভ করা যাচ্ছে ! এই হচ্ছে বিজ্ঞাপননর "বাঞ্ৰনীয়" (Optimum) থরচ।

 বিষ্ঞাপন আছছ—এক এক্টার এক এক রকম ফন্ন। বিজ্ঞাপন ভো অার হিন্দী সিনেনার




 ঢাই এ সমম্মাটির সমাধান করা খুব কিছু কঠিন বল্লে ভুল হবে।









 হাসল, এর মধ্যে ও বিজ্গাপননর অামজ অছছে। এমন কি কোন জিনিসকে ভাল ভাবে రতরী



 তাকক যদি বিজ্ঞাপননন খরু বলি, তবে প্রায় সব খরচই বিজ্ঞাপনের খরচ।


 নিতনन্তই অসষ্তব।




 নিজ্জের অজ্ঞাতে সে এই নিয়মটি অজ্রসরণ করবে।


 মারফহই পেয়ে থাকি। কিন্তু এর উন্টো 斤িকটাও आাছে। বিজ্ঞাপনন భবররর শেরক "অখবর" " आারা বেশী পাই। বিজ্ঞাপননর কাজ নয় বিজ্ঞজনকক অপন করা-তার কাজ





 বিজ্ঞাপননই একমাত্র সত্যি কথ্য পাওয়া যায় ("Advertisements contain the only truth to be relied on in a newspaper"), অমর্| জানি কল্পনাশ্লির উগ্রতার সেয়া পর্রিচয় নেনে বিষ্ঞাপনে।

এ সব অলোচ্র ছেড়ে এবার ঢোক্য যাক্ খাস্ অর্থনীতিতে। কেম্র্রিজের এক অর্থনীতিবিদ্ দেখিত্রেছেন বে অযোপ্য ব্যবসাদাঢর্রোই (inefficient producers) বিজ্ঞপাঁন সবচচঢেে বেনী খরচ করে। এর ফনে লোঢক অযোগ্য কোম্পানীর কাছ থেকে বেশি জিনিস কেনে। ফলে, ভাল প্রতিষ্ঠাননর জায়পায় খারাপ প্রতিষ্ঠানই বাড়বার বেশী স্যোগ পায়। ঢাই বিঙ্গাপদনন্য ব্যবহার্রে সমাজের ক্ষতির পরিমাণ, লাঙ্রের অঙ্ক থেকক অঢনক বেশী।

এর উত্তরে বিজ্ঞাপনের সমর্থকেরা বলে থাঢক্ন বে বিজ্ঞাপননর একট্য ভালো দিক লোকক অনেক সময়ে বুব্ধঢে পারে না। বিজ্ঞাপনন ঢৌশর বেকার সমশ্যার সমাধান হয়। বিষ্ঞাপন রৈতীর কাজজ কিছু লোক চাকরী পায়। এই সমস্তু ললাক আাবার এই অর্জিত টাকার কিছু অংশ খরচ করে। ভে সব জিনিস কিনতে এ টাক। খরচ হয় সে সব জিনিস
 তারা আাবার তাদের রোজগার কিম্হ খরু করে। আাবার কিম্জ নতুন লো6ক চাকরী পায়। এই ভাবে বেড়ে চলে চাকুরে লোকের্র সংখ্যা (multiplier process) ।

বেকার সম্্ারর অরর এক ভাবেও সমাধান হতে পারে। বিষ্ঞাপনের দরুণ লোটক জিনিস কেনে বেশী—ফনে সেই সব জিনিग לতরীও হ্য় বেশী। কাজেই বেশী বলাকের চাকরীর সং্ছান इন্য।

 বেশী জিনিग কেনার ইম্ছার ফলে জিনিচসর দামই শুধু বাড়বে, অর ব!ড়বে ব্যবসাদাররর


 বিজ্টী বাড়ার চৌ়্ে 斤াম বাড়ার সম্তাবনা অনেক বেশী। এই সমস্যাটি নিয়ে পুর্রে অালোচন।
 হিসাবে বিষ্ঞাপনের দান খুব সামান্যুই।

জার অাছাড়| য斤িই ব। ধরে নিই बে "লোক জোটানো" বিজ্ঞাপনে জিনিস কেন্।
 লাভ কুই। তার ঊপর সাত্যিই যাি অযোগ্য ব্যবসাদারেরা এতে স্ববিধ। পেরে যায়, তবে




 एनল এক রকম অহুথ হয় ("Night starvation") যাচত সারারাত ঘুমের মণ্যেই জীবনী-





































## র্যা|্ডম् (RANDOM)

## ঞ্রণণ বন্দ্রাপাধ্যায়













 रत्तन।













[^1]
 রককম ভারে नि
 বলা হবে।
























 হতে পারে।












 কदাত পপার্ছছিলেন।






















异ঙ্| কর়| মৃস্কিন।


 সাজান আচছ:-

| ২৩ | 20 | 9¢ | 86 | $b$ - | 97 | 『ล | 20 | 9৬-28 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ล9 | -6 | 86 | 2u |  |  |  |  |  |

















 কার্ল cal হবে।




 बোuccul


































## গ্রন্থ-পরিচয়

## অধ্যাপক লেবীপদ ভট্টাচার্य













 সায়া লাগল cোৰ্য!"






cোমার crux Mাজ এলসাহ মেয়ে,
 কচি পাতায় সোণানি র্রোশ খিল খিল, ডালিম গাত্ কাঠবিড়ালিত্র ছুটোছুটি ঢালু ঘাচে इর্রিষ-শিশ্র পেলা।

 বেণী:ত সোনালซ|, তোমার বুাক্ক কমলা-য়ঙের কাঁুলি ক্টিতে মেষ-せপ্বরী,



















(চাच থুলি—্যস, পাছ|ড়, সোলালি রোদের সকান
গাছাড়ি मকাল—ওাtাড়ি 'बৌ’-
©b

```
आयু চোখ বূজি
—পানকক্小ী
চোথ খুলি-
ইরিনি!
—কাनে কাক্木ন ফ্র
```



```
ইরিনি !
इাनव1 हून
```



```
नीन ББ†ข
ইরिनि!
```

[ পৃ\% 8.8 ]



চुত্ন উঢ্ড়া बেব
cচাた্，नोল পাহাড়
থिनण্থি ねর্ণার হাি－
दन－পরি।




 অथচ நুল্ণভ রেথায় অক্শিত ：

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { চুমকিকে রোর্থি সোিন }
\end{aligned}
$$

> इয়াজ কোে্না পাথি.
> গ্গেটের ওপাশে
［ ไุะ 2！］






```
उली चे भाठ|न
ম<< \\গডড় মাখlয়
```




```
[ পृ: <2]
```







```
স্লু
```






```
                                    অขबा
```



```
কোি চলন্ত চাক্গ
```







[ भৃ: จ৫]

बে
 रुष्न C Crरचन :





বৌমা আর শেল ফাটছে


নংথু সর্দার！


কে চালাচ্চে？
হ্রেের বুক থ্থেক উড়়ে আাস এক লাল প্রি
小卜শl মেরে ট্রাকটরে বনে－
ইर्रिनि।















$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { কে যেন এণে দাঁড়ায মन্দির লগ্ন কূপఠটট }
\end{aligned}
$$





## গ্রহ－পার্পিম্র


 কানে হীরার ছুল侖 ঝকমক করাছ











এমন সময় এল ধর্মপা，বিশু মহারাণার
কেনে－অসা－সঙ্তান।


 প্রচিভার নিঃসহপ্ণায়িত ম্বক্কর দৃষ্টিতে।
बাপসী মার কাছ巨 অার শিল্ত সীক্শ，
लে সী刑 অগ্মিপীশ্শ।












इলएে উग্তাত কামনার লোনুপ（नলিহশিথ৷

 झूढढ अठす。



দুরপথ অত্তিত্রম কটর্রে আাসছে তারা
Єসয়াচcোর গথে 飞্যোতিষান্ পথিক， লनাটট তাদদর অক－অাশীবাদ， ঋন্িিত ছুতি যার পতিহত হর্রে অजানিত অন্বাকার্র পथ অবার্রিত কর্রেছ তাদের সামনে।
 তারা সমাপু কর্রবে তাদ্র ভতー অার ধতিষ্টিত করবে ঢোমার মহিমা।

PRESIDENCY COLLEGE STUDENTS' UNION COUNCIL


[^2]

## 

## 






























[^3]





















 অड्ভিাষণ দেন।





[^4]









ভারতের রাষ্ট্রপণি
ইডেন হিন্দू इন্টোলের পাত্তন অাবাসিক
ড্ৰক্টর রাজেন্গ প্বসাদের
পুরাতন আবাঢে শুভাগমন উপলতক্ষ

## आ नउमक,















 काख़्य कतिश़।















$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { কহ নোর্র বীর্য কার কমারে করেন্ অতিক্রম, }
\end{aligned}
$$









বन্ছে মাত্রম্।

ইডডন ફিন্দ হন্ত্যল,


কলিকাউ-১2




## 

## মাননীढয়ম ।























## ইजिー



## শ্রিছ্ছাচৃ-দিবস :











 ক















## 






 এ户丹ঙ্গিত পাক্নন।


## 小্র্ত্র ছাত্রসংনাদ：














## 







भानि: অसिणाड बুলु।










 बतात्रो मां।








पर्वन : बभान







 ऊাविका निर्म्य পকা⿵িত্ ₹ন :-

















বিশ্বনাথ ভট্টাচার্य (2.৫৫૨)।


অর্রককুমার ভাহড়ী (১৯৫৪)।


সোহননাল बাগরওয়াল (১ঝ৫২)।





मেবব্রসাদ চক্রবর্ত্ত (১৯৫२)।












## ছাত্রপধ্রিষদ :






 এর পেছো





 रु্যেত্ছি।
















 ছ










স্থুনীতিকুমার বশু-সাধারণ সम্পাপক

## প্রকাশন বিভাগ:














 কন্যা|ণকুমার পাশভুপ্ত—সম্পা| ক

## विতर्क-পরিষম :
















 ব革त পার্খ

























 4








 व. 4 "Violation of order is not the right way to solve the food problem of W. Bengal" *




















## जबীब্র अরিমছ:




 बনুঠtcन তउটl সাম








 রহ্মা Cসনগুপু।








 उ विमल नाগ।




> অর্রা হাহ্য-

## সমজজঢনবা বিভাগ:

















## নাট্যপরিষদ :











 ग|ই\य কর্রো









ছা্রাবাস :







 ও সাধার্র সম্প|ৈক।








 निर्বালিত্র হয় নাই।

 stand taken by the Kashmir Constituent Assembly is unjustifable.'










 ষলকের অাবর্ণ টন্মেচন 孔ার্নন।





## 





 खाए़ बामत्रा कृषজ।







## জ্জিন্মর কমনরুম :






被酸!


## बशनाधूना বিতাগ :




























 সুযোগ চিরকাল্লে জন্থ হারাব্রন।




 Ball প্রতিন্ডাগিত্! শীइই অারষ


 ৩ ढেনিক








## 




















## 












२। Role of Religion in History -নীঠিサ দেনগুন্ত।



















## অর্থনীতি দাপ্তর :









 प्रृ্仑े



 (2) Political democracy withoat economic equality cannot thrive in modern times. (ง) The Amsrican President and the British Prime Minister ₹





## 

 पिঢয়ে রাজনীতি সেমিনান্ন সাফলালাভ করর্রেছ বরে মরে করি।















## দर्षन भरियৎ:






















खik

## 



 নজ্র রাথ্লে নির্রাশ ছ্বারও কিছু নেই।








 जোলা হ़।






 न्मমबীয়।


## শারীরব্তত্ত গগ্িিম :


 ছুাশা হবেন্। ।



Symposium on "Mammary gland"

२। "Yeast as food." বख্তা-ডড! ডি. ©ক. র্রায়
৩1 "Muscle." रক্তা-ডা: ভন. কে. সরককার
81 Symposium on "Adrenal Cortex"
অसण

4) Symposium on "Life"

, , "My experience about American Universities"







 Jet ; Achievements in the air.

२। U. S. I. S.-এর मহন্যাগ্গিচায-In the beginning ; Green mountainland.











 !









 Haffkins Institute এवर Teddington Chemical Factory.









## অয় ব]য় :






## खায় :





## বJয় :




## আমাদের কথা





## গ্রक্তিত্ঠাজ্যিন্ম ：

| G1য় | ब］ग़ |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | ছায়াছবি প্র্শন－২৫०， |
| বিতক্ক दिडाগ＂－ $0^{\circ}$ | বিচিৰ্রানুষ্ঠান —－${ }^{\circ}$ |
|  | প্তাকা টত্তোন্ন |
|  | 史পলক্ষ－－ |
| （ম16－98． | বিত্ক অনুষ্ঠ｜न－ 0 |
|  | इサथायाना－ 80 |
|  | नानाবিষ－－0． |
|  | মোট－4＊0， |

## 川णन्त्रु সश्टाइ：－

बाप्र


नাটাপরিষম „－©

বিত্ক বিভাগ，＂－©゚，
সাধারণ সম্পাসক —＞৫•，


ब！
বিতর্ক अন্মষ্ঠান —e•， （Symposium）
एায়াছবি প্রাপ্শন－৮，
বিচিত্রান্মু্ডান —२••，
প্রার্শनो－－



图সঞ্জীবকুমার বিশ্বাস－জুনিম্য়র（ট্রেজারার）
প্রেসিডেেন্সী কटলজ इাত্রপরিষম

শুদ্ধিপ্ত

|  |  |  | অণ্ৰক্ধ |  |  | শुप্ন |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ¢ৃ： | 3； | পক্তু ： | $\cdots$ | $\bigcirc{ }^{3}$ | $\ldots$ | 3 |
| ＂ | २； | ， 26 | $\ldots$ | বাख্রনী\য় | $\cdots$ | বাঞ্হুনীয় |
| ＂ | ১৬； | ＂ 30 | $\ldots$ | পাশ্াד্ত | $\ldots$ | পাশ্｜דত্য |
| ， | $90 ;$ | » २も | ．．． | एक | $\cdots$ | 万可 |
| ＂ | १ง； | ＂ 00 | $\ldots$ | প্রীমাধ্ধে | $\ldots$ | প্রথমার্ধে |
| ＂ | け৮； | ＂ง® | $\ldots$ | টটনিকয়ে | $\ldots$ | টেনিকঢয়ো |
| ＂ | bo； | ， 28 | $\ldots$ | खढ़য়ী | $\ldots$ | জায়ী |



Thei Chid of thy Whit.
[Photo. : Prof. N. R. Kar,
Dept. of Gcograpliy


A Quiet Cove.
[Photo.: Krishna Chaudhuri Sixth Year English


## EDITORIAL

## University Education

THE universities have lately come in for a good deal of criticism. The season just past of convocations and conferences, with its usual crop of annual educational reflections, would provide enough of a text for an editorial sermon. When we think, however, that our own University, the oldest in the country, will observe its centenary in a few years, thoughts about university education come to acquire a more than seasonal interest for us.

Not that recent criticism lacked a motive deeper than what occasional surveys can be expected to rest upon: it is noteworthy that the most eminent leaders of the nation, frankly expressing their scepticism about the products of our universities, have shown their anxiety for what they love to call a complete re-orientation of the educational system under the changed conditions following independence. The general complaint against the universities today is that they have been "reduced to factories capable of producing only office employees for whom there are not enough jobs." The social and economic implications of the situation have been considered in the context of political independence. But the educational history of a century shows the University in its own struggle for independence, which may be summed up in terms of an aspiration to free itself from the degrading function of an examining body and realise the higher aims of teaching. But the steady expansion of numbers beyond effective teaching power and the consequent deterioration of standards show that the University, still considered to be the purveyor of degrees which, being the sole guarantee of employment, tempt a huge number to oppress the fields of pure learning, has failed to gain the independent status of a teaching body pursuing its own ends. The recent University Act, with its provisions for

[^5]distribution of the faculties among constituent colleges, would seem to be the outcome of such a frustration.

Contemplating the strenuous movement of university education down the years, one notes with regret the sad state of neglect in which humanistic, especially literary, studies have fallen. In the growth of the idea of the University in this country and its evolution into practice one can trace the succession of two distinct ideals. The spirit of the older, nobler ideal of liberal education was enshrined largely in the passionate pursuit of literary studies. In course of time the emphasis has shifted on to scientific studies and technical training and the later history of the growth of universities shows the dominance of utilitarian considerations. We in Presidency College cherish the inherited task of "imparting the knowledge of English langtage and literature" which was the aim with which Hindu College was born. As we think of our University, we recall with pride that the higher study of the mother-tongue was started here on the initiative of one of the greatest of university reformers. For us the old quarrel between literature and science resolves into the ultimate simplicity of the feeling that this thing, literature, is so old, so much older than science. And yet the pity is that its proper study has not yet begun in our universities. Its neglect presents itself in everyday experience in the shape of heterogeneous, overcrovded classes. It is worth noting that admission is restricted in the Science departments of the University. In the Arts classes it is not merely that the majority of students admitted lack an honours degree but, further, there is a discrepancy of standards even among those who have it, owing to different standards of honours teaching in different colleges which, in the case of Arts, are generally low. All this calls for not merely a rigorous principle of selection but also a structural reorganisation of the educational system.

Suggestions have been made to the effect that earlier, self-sufficient courses must be devised for those many who cannot be expected to profit by university education and should learn their proper business instead of wasting invaluable years trying on the gown that simply would not sit on them. The Secondary Education Commission now touring the country is expected to make valuable recommendations towards effective planing for vocational training. Such a bifurcation, whatever be the evils of specialisation at an early stage, would serve to eliminate the present architectural confusion in the design of the general educational scheme. It would imply the need for closer integration between the different stages of higher learning which is dissociated from immediate utility and necessarily restricted to the few who are likely to profit by it. There are immense gulfs separating the post-graduate course from the honours and, still more mysteriously, the honours course from the intermediate. With a vague sense of uplift we have tacitly accepted these artificial marks of distinction as natural barriers, legitimate gradations. We must now give
up this negative way of determining the successive stages of intellectual maturity. If we want to establish the integrity of university education, the Honours teaching should make for a more effective approximation to the standards required for post-graduate study and should be confined to one or two selected colleges. And we must not stop there. We must also be prepared, logically, to think of what may be called, somewhat paradoxically, an Intermediate Honours course specially devised for those who mean to to go up for the real honours study and, of course, have the capacity to do so.

It will not do to flinch at the austere vision of lean classes. If there is a real recognition of the evils of unrestricted admission, its logical conclusion, however relentless, must be faced. The dark fate of the great mass of students who face yearly failures or, even if they can scrape a pass, swell the ranks of the unemployed or unemployable educated, is enough to show the wastefulness, from the national point of view, of unrestricted admission to the universities. National interest also demands that those few who have the ability to profit by university education are not submerged in a mass of those who have not. As talented students in our country mostly come from small-income groups, a generous and diversified scholarship system is also an urgent necessity. Nothing could be more sickening than the sight of large numbers of the idle rich lounging in the fields of higher education.

In our country there is a strange etymological confusion in the perverse craze for universal university education. But 'university' has nothing to do with universality; it simply means a society (universitas), a corporate body which obviously possesses such unity of aim and homogeneity as we have been speaking of. Here in this society students must be regarded as ends in themselves and not as means. At the university stage the pattern of education should have no direct aim, but must be content with bringing out the intrinsic excellence of the student by offering him ample opportunities of coming under stimulating intellectual influences. The curriculum, also, must not be allowed to petrify itself from any external, purposive direction, but must grow continually from within, as it were, through an almost musical correspondence between the learner's mind and the subtle personal influences around, through the constant variations, modulations and readjustments which will make up the proper internal conditions favouring the growth of individual talent.

It is strange that though there has been much talk, in recent pronouncements, about the need for intimate, personal relationship between the teacher and his pupil, accompanied by the familiar lament over modern departure from ancient Indian practice in this respect, they show, generally, a very imperfect awareness of the approach towards students as ends in themselves which forms the vital element of such
a relationship. On the contrary, the linking of ends to means as being likely to produce a tonic effect throughout the educational system has been mentioned (in the context of the problem of the unemployed educated) at several Convocations in such terms as to encourage public opinion to hold that university education must lead on to satisfying employment and that no university reform will be effective unless more attention is paid to 'the later stage of earning a livelihood'. The theory of adaptation to economic change behind such statements--to which some even like to give a historical colour by describing it as a constant in educational history-reflects the same attitude towards education as existed in the British days when grammar schools were started with the purpose of supplying office staff to serve the new economy. The dominant stress on vocational and technical training that this old colonial attitude under a new national garb implies, may, at best, claim national prosperity as its supreme purpose. But will that serve as a philosophical basis of education?

The problem of university education, as we have sought to look at it, is essentially artistic--the rendering of a homogeneous whole. There is a widespread notion that it is moral. Some of the recent Convocation addresses are marked by familiar pious statements about the moral purpose of education. One of the great defects of traditional morality, as Bertrand Russell says somewhere, is the low estimate it places upon intelligence. It neglects, nay, usurps the importance of what Russell calls intellectual virtues. Its solemn profundities are quite inapplicable to the university stage when the sole stress should be upon intellectual development. The building up of character should be mainly a matter for earlier years. Given the right early training and proper environments, a student is expected to have habits and desires which will lead in the right direction. Such further virtues as are required ought to result naturally from purely intellectual training. The fundamental basis of character, in the shape of certain habits spontaneously induced, should be laid at an early age, further development being produced naturally by intellectual progress.

The psychological necessity of a gradual and consistent transition from boyhood to youth and its corresponding implications for the educational system are not sufficiently realised. The intellectual and imaginative faculties, which are the essential elements of creative education, are not allowed to develop through constant exercise from the pupi1's boyhood. When he enters the university, enormous demands are made on his creative power which has been imperfectly developed through neglect of the intellectual and imaginative faculties which can never be had for the asking, but have to be worked up in unison to the requisite degree of fertilisation. All along the educational ladder we trust to memory as the sole guide. But memory alone cannot create. The result is that we go on heaping up materials but we never build anything. The evil at the root of this
confusion of purpose is, of course, the prohibitive presence of a foreign medium of instruction the naturally imperfect knowledge of which would inhibit the free play of imagination and intellect, throwing the young learner on the mechanical resources of his memory. To induce in him a natural desire to exercise his intellect and venture on imaginative thinking it is necessary to make the material (of knowledge) available to him in his mother-tongue. Without such an intimate and effective mode of expression to work with, the student will never attain intellectual independence. The lack of this proper symbol of spiritual independence has its effects on the moral behaviour of our youths which has catsed much concern lately. We have already indicated the abrupt transition from boyhood to youth. Arriving at the critical stage of youth one suddenly finds greater freedom in social conduct. But unless it is accompanied by a gift of the more real independence of the intellect ensuring a moral control over conduct, this liberty becomes licence, and in the conduct of the accused youth we find that essential exaggeration and immoderateness that belongs to adolescence which, never really sure of itself, ends in asserting itself in a violent fashion. When we shall be able to solve the problem of enriching the expressive capacity of our own languages, national life will be so much fuller that moral aberrations will have no reason to appear. If an Indian university is accused of neglecting the morals of its alumni, its best answer would be to evolve the organic remedy that resides in the collective spiritual heritage of its classical literature, English literature and its native literature, from an integrated study of which in concrete terms of practice will ennerge a significant medium of culture containing the grarantee of our intellectual autonomy.

We have now arrived at the familiar problem of developing a vernacular medium of instruction capable of communicating the spirit of a cuiture at present imprisoned in a foreign medium. The independent choice of our own tongue is likely to appear so much of a privilege that we may not be sufficiently conscious of the obligations it implies. We are familiar, in discussions of this problem, with suggestions for translation of standard texts and finding equivalents for foreign terminology, as if it were a matter of vocabulary alone. It should be clear, however, that the problem is not as mechanical as that, but one of evolving an artistically organised mode of expression, of inventing a style, in short. And this is where the select society at the university comes to transform itself from a sort of masonic brotherhood, existing in isolation from social reality, into the very springs which will overflow into the vast, barren country outside, quenching its thirst for an expressive medium. In impressive contrast to the majority of students haunted by thoughts about 'the later stage of earning a livelihood', there is something fascinating about the vision of the young university student, anxious to earn his title to an independent utterance of his spirit, in his silent progression towards a vivid symbol of his spiritual
enlightenment, his pilgrimage towards a style. In the personal struggle of every university student to achieve an individual style will lie the ideal pattern of the speech we are to devise for the nation, if we are to educate it.' What is wanted to-day from every university is an individual movement for a literary revival the aim of which will be to enrich the possibilities of every regional language to attain its autonomy as a selfsufficient vehicle of culture. This may seem heretical in the face of the commonly accepted view of cultivating only one of the languages as the medium of instruction for the whole country in order to secure national unity. But the deeper unity of the spirit will be secured, if the artistic possibilities of every important regional language of our country are developed with our literary heritage of English and Sanskrit as the common cultural basis. Europe once recognised Latin as the only language in the higher spheres of life. But when, after the Renaissance, the cultivation of Latin gave way to the independent growth of the modern European languages, this linguistic individuation made for greater integration of the European culture as a whole, instead of disintegrating it. Our Indian culture would, similarly, achieve a greater degree of synthesis with the individual development of all the modern Indian langtages which will mean, in terms of this vast sub-continent, a new Renaissance. And for such a Renaissance the sources of inspiration exist in the shape of our collective literary heritage, ancient and modern, English and Sanskrit. But we have yet to discover a proper approach to these springs of inspiration.

Our political independence, which has perversely imposed a constitutional directive for shortening the life of English education in the country, has, however, unconsciously emancipated English from a degrading material status. Our approach to this rich store of creative thought has always been vitiated by its humiliating association with an economic advantage of the knowledge of the language. But now it is possible to imagine that it will not be necessary for an Indian to learn the language in order to secure employment. English is now, so obviously, a spiritual possession sufficiently removed from the utilitarian context to assume its legitimate status as an Art. The larger passage to a new worl'd of ideas that English opened out to those Indians who were able to perceive in it a medium of spiritual enlightemment instead of an economic panacea, ultimately led to the gates of independence. And now India's freedom has, in its turn, set English free! The way now lies open to us to make an artistic use of the language and its literature towards the ends adumbrated in the foregoing paragraph.

What about Sanskrit? It is time its place in university education was boldly defined. We congratulate the Chancellor of the Nagpur University on having attempted such a bold definition in his address delivered in Sanskrit to the last convocation of that university. It is a pity that even after the attainment of independence our universities are slow to grasp the
cultural opportunities offered by Sanskrit. If there is any sulbject that could serve universities in free India today as the focal point of a school of studies corresponding in status to the Greats at Oxford, that is Sanskrit. If the Greek and Latin classics can provide Oxford with its leading honours school, there is no reason why Sanskrit should not similariy scrve Indian universities. In the subjects we have borrowed from the West Indian universities can never possibly hope to riva? their westeril counterparts, but in Sanskrit and Sanskritic studies they can absolutely hold their own and do some really first-hand research work. By an appropriate elevation of standards they could, if they would, make their M.A. degree in Sanskrit a stamp of very real distinction (which, most unfortunately, it is now far from being).

One notes with regret that there is a greater awareness of the importance of Sanskrit in other States than in our own, which was once a great centre of Sanskrit learning. The recent establishment by the Bihar Government of the Mithila Institute of Sanskrit at Darbhanga and also the Nalanda Institute of Pali on the outskirts of the ruins of the famous ancient university shows a commendable desire to revive Sanskritic learning. The recommendation, made at a recent conference of the Vice-Chancellors of the U. P. universities, of a compulsory course of Sanskrit for B.A. and M.A. students taking Hindi as one of their main subjects, is a recognition of the importance of the study of Sanskrit as enriching the study of languages derived from it. This elementary need is ignored, however, in this University where honours students in Bengali are not allowed to take Sanskrit as a pass subject. Many of them, however, are expected to get through a rather severe test in elementary knowledge of Sanskrit in order to qualify for the M.A. degree.

We have lately been told that the West Bengal Government has a Sanskrit University in contemplation. It is difficult to feel sincerely optimistic about such a notion materialising. Apart from practical difficulties, the desirability of setting up such an isolated unit may also be questioned : it reflects the deplorable tendency of disintegration visible in the new University Act. Moreover, it is a dangerous concession to the traditional snobbery which would confine classical learning to a group of mere scholars. It is time we realised that the study of a culture, however complex, must justify itself by its larger effects on the general cultural enlightenment of society. We should think of Sanskrit as co-existing with its modern descendants in an integrated scheme of a literary revival. Long accustomed to "the daily teaching of dead languages by orthodox, athletic grammarians which little avails to arouse the imagination or trouble the intellect with questionings or doubts', we are dead to the creative aspect of classical studies and are slow to realise that the old masters are the "spiritual begetters of practice." It may not be out of place here to quote the following passage from the late Sir Walter Raleigh's introduction
to Sir Thomas Hoby's translation of Castiglione's The Courtier, deploring the modern system of classical education in England:

> The great pagan civilisations march their eternal round, like weary ghosts, through the schoolroom; at the stroke of the clock they vanish, and the activities of real life are resumed. By the time that the child reaches manhood, he is so inured to these habitual intruders that he regards them as honourable appanages to an English homestead; hardly does the thought occur to him that these too, like other restless spirits, have a message to deliver and are burning to speak.

When will it occur to us that the ancient culture enshrined in Sanskrit has a message to deliver and is burning to speak?

A passing reference may be made in connexion with all this to the view expressed in recent years in some very high quarters that our universities should reduce their financial commitments by getting rid of subjects like Sanskrit or Pali, Arabic or Persian-subjects which are not 'popular' and which therefore do not pay their way. It is greatly to be deplored that market considerations such as this should be imported into discussions about university planning. 'Paying one's way' is a hopeless criterion to apply to university management. Apply that criterion and there would hardly be a subject left for a university to profess. In fact, this is exactly where the State comes in. It is one of the primary obligations of a modern State to rescue its universities from abject dependence on fee-income and to make it possible for them to pursue their own cultural programmes untroubled by financial worries. Need we stress that the money spent on a university pays itself back a hundredfold in invisible returns of tremendous value for the life of a nation? The ideal of university economy ought to be that a department should be run with its full complement of staff and all equipment that might be necessary even if there was only one student on its rolls. If the State cannot live up to this strenuous ideal, it had better give up its pretence of fostering university education, wash its hands of the entire business and openly confess its failure to discharge a basic responsibility.

# The Concept of Ecstasy Reviewed in the Light of Sanskrit Poetics 

Jogeshchandra Bhattacharya, M.A., Lecturer in English, Darjeeling Government College. ${ }^{1}$

THE word 'ecstasy' in modern Engtish usage generally means 'rapture' or 'an exalted state of feeling'. This, however, is only a secondary sense of the word. 'Ecstasy' in Greek literally means 'standing out', i.e., going out of oneself. Going out of oneself and becoming another is Ecstasy in Art. In European criticism the concept of Ecstasy is to be found first in Aristotle. To quote from his Poetics, Chapter 17 (Ingram Bywater's translation): "Hence it is that poetry demands a man with special gift for it, or else one with a touch of madness in him ; the former can easily assume the required mood, and the latter may be actually beside himself with emotion' (i.e., 'ecstatic', if translated literally).

What Aristotle means to say may be best expressed in the words of Matthew Arnold (in the Strayed Reveller), that the doom of the poets is "to become what we sing'". The poet, in other words, has to become one with his creation, be it the creation of a character, or a mood or an atmosphere. It is indeed a sort of martyrdom, a supreme self-immolation on the part of the creator. The poet may have to create a character entirely unlike his own. There, in fact, lies the test for him ; and it is precisely there that the poetic life scores over the non-poetic one. We can, in the non-poetic life, lead at best a kind of partial and fragmentary existence. The poet, on the other hand, must have the capacity to become all things at a time. Perhaps the greatest example of this is "myriad-minded Shakespeare". He is at home with Iago as perfectly as with Desdemona, with Hamlet as with Claudius, with Antonio as with Shylock-men and women who lie at the opposite poles of human character. In fact, it is this plasticity, this protean quality of his genius, that is the greatest marvel about Shakespeare.

Coming to English criticism, we find a fine exposition of the concept of Eestasy in the letters of Keats. When Keats, in his famous letter to Woodhouse (October 27, 1818), wrote that the poetical character has no self, he meant that the poet steps out of his fixed and circumscribed self and becomes another. For a perfect description of the poetical character, we should go to his letter to George and Thomas Keats (December 22,

[^6]1817). "It is everything and nothing", he says, "living at all levelshigh and low, mean and elevated. But all kinds come equally and easily to him. . . It has as much delight in conceiving an Iago as an Imogen. Therefore what shocks the virtuous philosopher delights the chameleon poet." And again, "the poet is the most unpoetical of anything in existence, because he has no identity. He is continually in for and filling some other body'. Logically, we cannot ascribe to the poet even the poetic chatacter, for he has no unchangeable attributes. Here, however, we should note in passing that the poet becomes that which he creates only for the time being ; he does not mean to fix himself there.

The first two lines of the last stanza of the famous Ode to a Nightingale will provide us with a concrete illustration of our point:

> Forlorn! the very word is like a bell
> To toll me back from thee to my sole self.

In this poem Keats achieved Eicstasy in the deeper sense-a complete merging of his own self in that of the bird. But suddenly with a jerk he is thrown back to the trammelled self of his everyday existence. That 'sole self' is exactly the problem of the non-poetic life: how to liberate ourselves from our fixed, circumscribed identities-how, in other words, to universalise our selves? One of the channels of emancipation is offered by poetry, or for that matter, by all Art, through Ecstasy.

Keats gives us yet another beautiful description of the nature of Ecstasy in a passage in Endymion, Book I:

Wherein lies happiness? In that which becks Our ready minds to fellowship divine, A fellowship with essence; till we shine, Full alchemiz'd and free of space. . . . .

This "fellowship divine," the becoming one with things, comes through some very absorbing sensuous or aesthetic experience:
that moment have we stept
Into a sort of oneness, and our state Is like a floating spirit's.

The concept of Ecstasy is also traceable in a famous passage in Shelley's Defence of Poetry. To quote only a few lines:

[^7]The great secret of morals is found by Shelley in 'a going out of our own nature'-in other words, in Ecstasy. It is only through Ecstasy that we become moral in the fundamental sense, for mere moral doctrines by themselves are not a sufficient impulse to morality.

The yearning for the universalisation of the isolated individual self did not leave the Indian mind untouched. The way suggested by Indian philosophy was the complete merging of individual existence in the Absolute. This is the supreme instance of Ecstasy, a going out of our finite selves and becoming one with the Infinite ( बह्मास्वाद ). Indian Poetics pointed to an analogous process in the experience of poetry. Thus:

## सत्त्वोदेकादुखण्डस्वप्रकाशानन्दचिच्मयः। चेद्यान्तरस्पर्शशून्यो जहास्वाददसहोदरः॥

(Sahityadarpana by Viśvanätha: Chap. III).
Just as in the experience of the Absolute the difference between the knower and the known vanishes, so in poetic creation. The reader or the auditor, too, undergoes a similar process. How is it possible for us, asks the author of the Sahityadarpana, to feel pleasure or pain with Ramachandra or Sita while reading the Ramayana, when their delight or sorrow does not concern us in any way? How do, in other words, the feelings of a particular man or woman become universal? To quote a few lines from the Sahityadarpana, Chapter III:

> ननु कथं रामादिरत्यायु द्ब्बोधकारणँ: सीताद्विभि: सामाजिकरत्याद्यु द्बोध इति, उचयतेब्यापारोऽस्ति विभावादेनर्न्ना साधारणी कृतिः। तत्रभांजेण यस्यासन् पाथोधिप्लवनाद्वयः॥ प्रमाता तदूभेशेन स्वात्मानं प्रतिपदाते।।

The objects which arouse emotions have a function of producing a oneness between the writer or the reader and the creation. It is due to this that a right-minded appreciator finds his own self engaged in crossing the ocean like Ramachandra or Hanumana. It is due to this again that an average man can, for the time being, feel himself able to do all sotts of things with the hero. Such experience can, however, continue only for the time being, because, as we have already noted, the poet or the reader does not mean to fix himself in the state of oneness with the creation. Visvanatha, speaking of the appreciator, says that he will have no sense of his own different self so long as he is absorbed in the creation in hand:

## परस्य न परस्येति ममेति न ममेति च। तदास्वादे विभावादें: परिच्छेद्रो न विद्यते॥

Once, however, the experience is over, the reader will regain the consciousness of coming back to his "sole self".

This साधारणीकरण, as Sanskrit Poetics calls it, this तन्मयत्र (becoming that), is essential for the creation as well as for the enjoyment of Art. Neither the word "absorption" nor the word "Ecstasy" is so apt as the word साधारणीकरण or तन्मयत्व in describing this process of identification. What was merely touched on by Aristotle, and casually referred to in some of the letters of Keats, found clear and systematic treatment in Sanskrit poetics.

# Sinclair's New Epistemology 

Sachindranath Gangopadhyaya-Sixth Year Philosophy.

MR. ANGUS SINCLAAR, lecturer in Philosophy at the University of Edinburgh, has lately published an interesting book in which he claims to have discussed problems of the theory of knowledge in a way which opens up a new approach to the field neglected by philosophers for many years. He names the book well: 'The Conditions of Knowing'. All our knowledge is dependent on some conditions of entirely subjective origin, which he calls our 'situations'.

Epistemology has to-day gained a unique and overriding importance in philosophical circles. Mr. Sinclair attempts to show that attitudes play an important part even in our noëtics. So many things depend on a man's attitude. Eipistemological attitudes are, in one respect, unique. They are unlike all other attitudes in the range of their relevance. All opinions, particularly in philosophy, are affected by the attitudes we hold about the nature of knowledge. And these our attitudes, according to him, form a hierarchy or pyramid of them. They tend to, or actually, build up a system of thought in a man. The particular simple facts are not known without reference to the more general outlook. The true function of a philosopher in a community can therefore be regarded as one of identifying and examining the general attitudes.

The difficulties in epistemological enquiry at present are not due to the subject itself, but are created by not infrequent attempts to bring the particular facts of enquiry under a single epistemological attitude the range of which is wrongly limited. Often, for instance, a point is reached in an enquiry where to have any more effective progress demands a change in the general attitude altogether. But the person, being impervious to that amount of dynamicism, always tries to bring the facts under his own attitude and makes a show of problem.

Mr. Sinclair has given a graphic representation of this puzzle. If we represent any given theory at any given point in time by $D$ in the following diagram, we usually find that it continues more or less unchanged until some later point $E$, by which time a crop of fresh data has appeared which it cannot account for. Various alternative modifications are tried, retaining the general attitude intact. But the attempts fall, as indicated in the diagram by $\times$. We may find a point of modification where the fresh data get explained ; but again some fresh data appear, followed by some modifications, and the process is repeated until all attempts are failures.


And then we have to turn our attention to the earlier assumption involved in the general theory. In time somebody lays bare some such assumption at an earlier point $C$ and discovers an alternative to it ( $I$ ), which does account for the accumulated data.

The normal epistemological attitudes in Anglo-American culture are, according to Mr. Sinclair, all derivations of some such unconsciously held epistemological attitude or complex of attitudes, which is primitive and misleading, and to it we have to find an alternative.

Thus, attitudes (general) are so important in their rôle that they baffe, if wrongly clenched, all attempts of fruitful enquiry in any field of knowledge. Our theories, our explanations of particular facts all depend on our general attitudes.

To prove his contention Mr. Sinclair takes various basic metaphysical problems e.g., causality, progress, inference, probability, space, time etc.,
and discusses them in this light. He attempts to show that they represent only some particular way of knowing, a group of events selected in our attention to build up a general attitude.

Now, let us see how he tackles the problem of causality. Until near the end of the eighteenth century it was believed that an effect is bound up in or with its cause, and that we can foretcll the effect if we can know enough about the cause, but Hume then pointed out that we can not. In some Ipicurean and othet writings and in some Arabic writings thete are scattered remarks which may indicate a recognition that this view is too simple. The seventeenth century occasionalists seem to have first pointed out the fact that the cause cannot, in any way, contain the effect, but the issue was narrowed down to the mind-body problem.

Mr. Sinclair says that there are no causes and effects existing as such or, to put it more clearly, we cannot hold that there is an objective principle of causality. So far he follows his precursor Hume. But the explanation he gives of the problem is somewhat peculiar and rather amusing. He opines that when one speaks of a cause and an effect, i.e., of a pair of events and conditions, and their being so related, they form a situation within which holds what we call a causal relation. This situation exists only because one carries a process of selecting and grouping in one's attention in one's own particular way (a unique blend of empiricism, scepticism and solipsism). Thus, 'striking a match' and 'its lighting' are names for certain selections which I take and group in my attention from the range before me at the given time in the given conditions. Any other man forms the situation by selecting and grouping in his way when he asserts that the striking of the match is really the cause of its lighting up, and that all this pedantry about selecting and grouping is only another example of the notoriously perverse ingenuity of philosophers in obfuscating matters that would have been clear enough, if only left alone; he is, in effect, asserting that all other people follow ways of knowing i.e., selecting and grouping in their attention, which are so similar to his own that nobody notices any difference between these ways and therefore does not notice the ways themselves.

Now the question may arise: why do we believe in such a law? The answer is that we must. If a man did reject that principle and that belief and acted accordingly, he would find that instead of living his normal life he had involved himself in utter confusion. He could not take any action of even the simplest kind because, on the view he had adopted, anything or nothing might be the consequence of it. The same thing happens in a particular case, only the confusion there is not total but local, limited to the field concenned.

Now the nature of this process of selecting in attention is, like others, not an act once done and thereby completed, but is a continuing process which must be sustained if our experience is to continue as it is.

He derives additional support or evidence-at least he thinks soon this line from the study of mental disorder. Certain types of psychotic breakdown are marked by an incapacity to experience events as causally related in the same way as normal people experience then.

Sinclair clearly says, "These principles are not inevitable. We can hold them or not hold them ; but the penalty for not holding them is confusion in all fields or in many or in any one, or as the case may be." Now it is very strange that he repeatedly points out what the penalty is for not holding such principles, but he remains conspicuously silent about the question: 'why the penalty?'

From the above, it will not perhaps be presumptuous to think that what Mr. Sinclair wants to say, if he says any thing at all, is not quite clear.

Undoubtedly, there are some interesting points in his approach. But he states his view too vaguely and carries his inclinations to a point of absurdity. He never clarifies the exact meaning and connotation of the terms he uses, e.g., 'attitudes', 'selection and grouping in attention', 'way of knowing'. Does he mean by this 'way of knowing' a form of knowing or category, as Kant means? Obviously not, because Kant has stated his philosophy with much more pains than Mr. Sinclair and the latter in that case turns out to be an outdated disciple of the old master.

Attitudes play a part in our knowledge. We select and group in our attention. But that does not in any way mean that there is no objective determination. If Mr. Sinclair claims any novelty in his exposition he becomes illogical (as we shall see afterwards), and if he is to prefer logic his claim to novelty is demolished.

Why do we select in a particular way which is more or less fixed for all, and not otherwise? He will answer that otherwise there will be confusion. But why such confusion? His eloquence is significantly bridled here. The answer is simply that in that case there will be two different worlds which will not square-the world of our ideas and the world of the real objects. The real objects behave in a certain way. And we know these objects only as behaving entities in their entire range. And their behaviour in a particular way determines the corresponding way of our knowing. We have to know the objects as they are and as they behave. And we select events accordingly, and not arbitrarily. Our arbitrary selection will only lead us to a bottomless abyss of nonsense and confusion, where knowledge loses all its significance. Moreover, it is not that we know the objects first and then select them at will, but that events get related in our mind, because they are so related in nature and because we can know the objects and orders of nature directly. If we know the objects, there is no reason why we should not know their behaviours and orders. And even if we try, we cannot know them (i.e., select them in attention) otherwise, unless we are unusually indifferent to the data of
our knowledge. Again, why do I perceive in an after-thought that my selection is wrong? Because, the objective grounds for that way of selection are lacking.

It is not infrequent that we group in our attention real objects quite unfamiliar to the nature outside us and feel betrayed. Selection presupposes an amount of elimination which badly requires a standard mote or less fixed for all. We always try to reflect nature, as it is, within us. And this process is carried on by our selecting, grouping and empirical verification. We constantly refer our experience to the outer world. That we cannot select at random proves that these principles of nature are not selections; they are the given of our experience. If selection means only knowing particular facts, that is simply on account of our physical as well as mental inability to know the entire nature at a time. About causality in particular, as a principle, Mr. Sinclair says that it is a way of our selecting events in attention. Philosophically, one cannot say 'yes' or 'no' to its objective existence. But this is a challenge to the progress of scientists. Science is possible only because as philosophers we believe-and not with out reasons-that we know objects of nature and there are principles operating there. We see that when we throw up a body it comes down to earth. When we strike a match it lights up. Because we see this recurring principle in nature, our knowledge sustains a relation peculiar among the events. And if, owing to my arbitrary selection, things do not come down to earth when thrown up, fires do not burn, I shall feel like a fish out of water. Whenever I know, my knowledge or experience incurs a belief that events in nature behave exactly in their native sphere. If fire and burning were not objectively and universally related, I would not have selected events of fire and burning in a particular relation of causality.

Again, Mr. Sinclair says, "there is a similarity of ways." We admit that, but we as simple souls-however naïve he may call us-want to admit something more. We believe that the similarity in our ways of knowing clearly points to an objective sameness of behaving events. Mr. Sinclair falsely alleges that the similarity of experience makes $d s$ oblivious of the fact that they are our ways of knowing. Nobody denies that we have our ways of knowing. But we cannot accept his illogical and mysterious emphasis on ways only, excluding their similarity. We clam humbly that 'similarity' in English vocabulary is not an unmeaning sound.

Mr. Sinclair uses the term 'work'. It has such a strong flavour of pragmatism that Mr. Sinclair appears to be a pragmatist. But he cannot mean anything similar to the pragmatist conception of the word. By 'working', William James only wants to convey that the truth has a content as different from the intellectualists' merely formal truth. But he also says that there is an 'ambulatory relation'. (The term is used by Mr. Strong.) And if followed up, our sensations melt themselves into real
objects. That is why they work. Mr. Sinclair does not and cannot attach any such sense to the term 'working'.

In conclusion, it is possible to agree with Mr. Sinclair, if he only concedes that the objects in nature bchave in a fixed way and, in trying to know them, we obtain the principles. There is no reflective selection for the principles to emerge late in our understanding or better attention. There is an objective compulsion in our picking up and arrangement; and this compulsion is only the real nature and behaviour of the objects in the world outside us.

# A Trip to Totopara 

Sunil Kumar Mukherjee, M.A., I.A.S. Additional Deputy Commissioner, Darjeeling ${ }^{1}$

THE fast dwindling Toto tribe has given Totopara its name as well as its importance. The spot is on the foothills of high mountains and, apart from its ethnological interest, the visitor who goes there gets ample reward for his pains in the scenery he comes across. When I was Subdivisional Officer of Alipurduar, the only outlying sub-division of the Jalpaiguri District, I first found Totopara mentioned in the District Gazetteer and was interested. The interest was quickened when one day the wife of an Assistant of a European Tea Estate enquired of me: "Have you managed to visit Totopara, that semi-mythical spot the allurements of which are but partly summed up in its name?"

The opportunity came when I went on tour near the area. Totopara is within the limits of the Madarihat Police Station in the north-eastern corner of the Alipurduar Sub-division. There are two different routes to it-one via Lankapara Tea Estate and the other branching off from near the Hantapara Tea Estate. I was informed that the Lankapara route was shorter but was only suitable for those who were travelling on foot. I therefore went up to Hantapara Tea Estate on a jeep and from there mounted an elephant. It was the 24 th of March, 1950. I started from Hantapara Tea Estate at about 9-20 a.m. At first the elephant had to wade through a considerable stretch of mud. Then came dense forest.

[^8]After about two hours the officer-in-charge of the Madarihat Thana who was accompanying me suddenly exclaimed: "We have arrived". My tour diary shows that we arrived at Totopara at 1 P.M. My impression was that the distance from Hantapara Tea Estate to Totopara was some 14 miles-an elephant can move fast.

Our approach however was already being announced from a clump of bamboo trees. A shrill sing-song which was wholly unintelligible to us was emerging from it. Nearing it, we could make out a short dwarfish figure, that of a youngman with Mongolian features. He had only a loin cloth on.

At that time we were on the fringes of Totopara. The elephant passed a field where maize was growing. The road took a crazy turn after that and we found ourselves near a shady open space where a few huts had been built in close proximity. It was the market-place. The huts were shops built by bhatias (plainsmen) from far away with their usual bania ingenuity.

A crowd soon gathered. A squat, thickset man came forward, announced with an air of importance that he was the headman and immediately started a tirade against the shopkeepers from the plains who, he claimed, had been fleecing them mercilessly. It was with difficuity that he could be soothed and made to talls about himself and his tribe.

From his account I gathered that only some fifty families constituted the Toto tribe. Only a rough guess can be hazarded about the total number of Totos. I would put it at 500 . Physically the Totos resemble the Bhutiyas and the Gurkhas. They have the same short, sturdy stature and flat-nosed, round face with scanty beard and beady eyes. The huts in which the Totos live are round in shape and are double-storeyed. They usually stay in the first storey while the ground floor is littered with refuse of all sorts. Usually they keep pigs and poultry in the huts and this factor does not improve matters in point of cleanliness.

As regards the food habits of the Totos, rice is their staple food, while maize is also taken in times of need. Rice is of course also used for preparing handea which is so commonly drunk that no stigma whatsoever is attached to it. The Totos are by reputation fairly omnivorous in their tastes and on lean days even mice do not escape their attention. Pan is a general favourite and the Totos can be seen chewing pan almost all the time. Another favourite is biri. Even small children are addicts.

The Totos are a dying tribe. They are rapidly dwindling in number, Malaria and glandular ailments have been chiefly responsible; the survivors suffer, almost without exception, from some form of skin trouble. A very high percentage of the incidence of tuberculosis and leprosy is also to be found among them. Anthropologists will perhaps cite inbreeding as the cause for their gradual extinction.

The Totos grow maize, millet and rice in their fields. They are however well known for their flair for growing oranges. Up in the hills they have their orange groves and in January and February ply quite a brisk traffic. Silhouetted against the blue mountains, the orange groves provide a feast for the eyes.

The Totos, however, now complain that oranges are becoming more and more difficult to grow as the hill-sides are gradually being shorn of their vegetation. Oranges are the chief source of trade and it is difficult to envisage them after a few decades as thriving, if that trade is lost to them. They have no other means to fall back upon. They are soft, meek, ease-loving and easily satisfied and therefore have little incentive to better their lot or improve the prospects of survival for the tribe.

The Totos worship Mahakal (the God Shiva) who, according to them, lives in the hills which lie beyond the horizon. They are a superstitious lot. When asked whether they were given to hunting, they replied: 'No, that is prohibited by Mahakal'. When asked to adjust themselves to changing social conditions by learning to read and write, they replied: "Nomahakal has definitely put a taboo on these things". One who hears their patter cannot but be struck by a curious combination of naïveté and native cunning, straightforward acceptance of the ills of human life and the all too human tendency, to attribute their woes to caprices of the Designing Hand.

The return journey was uneventful. The headman demanded a price for his "talk". Afterwards he accompanied us up to the outskirts of the forest. We left Totopara at 3 p.m. and returned to Ramjhora Tea Estate at 6 p.m. at the end of a strenuous day.

# Satish Chandra Mukherjee and the Dawn Magazine (1897-1913) 

Haridas mukherjee, M.A.<br>Lecturer in History, Central Calcutta College ${ }^{1}$

SATIS CHANDRA MUKHERJEE (1865-1948) was one of the chief architects of the Swadeshi Movement of 1905, and a prophet of Indian nationalism in the first decade of the present century. His name has been rendered immortal in the cultural annals of Bengal for four notable contributions: the foundation of the Bhagavat Chatuspathi (1895), the establishment of the Dawn (1897), the organisation of the Dawn Society (1902), and last but not the least, the inauguration of the National Council of Education (1906). Each of these items requires intensive and detailed study. For the present, however, I confine myself to a study of Satis Chandra in relation to the Dazen alone.

The foundation of the Dawn Magazine (1897) was an epoch-making service of Satis MukHerjee to the nation. Originally, it was a journal of the Bhagavat Chatuspathi, but later it became an organ of the Dawn Society and still later, an organ of the Swadeshi Movement, particularly in its 'National Education'' aspect. The Dawn was founded by Mukherjee in collaboration with Rajkumar Banerjee who was Professor of Physics in Bangabasi College, and Manmatha Nath Pal who was a pleader in Alipore Court, but Mukherjee was the life and soul of the Dawn throughout its long career of sixteen years (March, 1897-November, 1913).

The Dawn was a monthly magazine intended to be a vehicle of higher Eastern and Western culture. Its object was "to make a special study of Hindu life, thought and faith in a spirit of appreciation, while remaining fully alive to the usefulness and the necessity of the existence of all other systems, secular or religious, Eastern or Western'". The spirit or policy of the journal was thus cosmopolitan and all-embracing. The journal carried as its motto a famous utterance of Sankara which means in English: "That which is ever permanent in one mode of being is the Truth."

## The 'Dawn' in its First Phase

Several well-marked phases are easily discernible in the evolution of the Dawn. The first issue of the Dawn was published in March, 1897 and

[^9]the initial phase of the journal continued till July, 1904. During this period, the office of the journal was stuccessively at the following addresses:
(i) 44, Lansdowne Road, Calcutta (March, 1897-December, 1898), (ii) 3, Puddopukur Road, Calcutta (June, 1899-February, 1902), (iii) 79, Puddopukur Road, Calcutta (March, 1902-July, 1904).

The Dawn in its first phase was distinguished by high-class religions and philosophical writings. It occasionally contained articles on science, history and sociology as well as critical papers on education. Among the chief contributors in this period may be counted such names as Annie Besant, Swami Abhedananda, Mahendra Gupta (author of Ramakrishna Kathamrita), Dr. Nishikanta Chatterjee, Ramaprasad Chandla, Durgacharan Sankhya-Vedantatirtha, Principal Nagendra Nath Chose, Principal Jyotibhusan Bhaduri, Dr. Mahendra Lal Sarkar, Jadunath Sarkar, Brajendra Nath Seal, Pandit Satis Chandra Vidyabhushan, Rajendranath Vidyabhushan, Pramathanath Tarkabhushan, Hirendra Nath Datta, Bepin Chandra Pal, Sister Nivedita, Atul Chandra Chatterjee,. I.C.S., Kiran Chandra Dey, I.C.S., Haran Chandra Chakladar, Radhakumud Mukherjee, Rabindra Narayan Ghose, Sir George Birdwood, Dr. Coulson Turnbull, W. A. Rodman, Prof. A. A. MacDonnell and Principal E. B. Havell. Among these names one will encounter some of the most brilliant men and creative thinkers of the age. The topics of discussion were as varied as possible, though the predominant bias was for philosophical writings. Satis Mukherjee, as the Editor, regulariy contributed serious and thoughtful articles on philosophy, religion and education, although these writings rarely bore his signature in print.

Within less than a year of its first appearance in March, 1897, the journal made a profound impression on contemporary Bengali thought. It created a stir among the intellectuals of the time on account of its high quality and standard as well as the seriousness and originality of most of its contributions. Sir Romesh Chandra Mitter (offg. Chief Justice of Bengal) wrote on April 12, 1898: "I have been a regular reader of the Dawn since its first appearance. The analytical power, evinced in expounding abstruse thoughts, is of a superior order. It is a valuable addition to journalistic literature in our country." Mr. Kiran Chandra Dey, I.C.S. (Offg. Magistrate and Collector, Faridpur) observed on March 31, 1898: "I wish to state that the Dawn marks a new departure in journalism." Sir Asutosh Mookerjee, then a member of the Syndicate, Calcutta University and a Vakil, High Court, Calcutta, wrote on April 16, 1898: "I am a subscriber to the Dawn and have been a regular reader of its pages. What has struck me most about it is that it does so much original work. It is an altogether new thing of its kind in India and deserves for its originality to be encouraged in every possible way by the Government in its Education Department, by other educational authorities, and by the more thinking portion of our community." Similarly, high
opinions about the character and quality of the Dawn were expressed by Mahamahopadhyaya Haraprasad Shastri, Senior Professor of Sanskrit, Presidency College, Calcutta (September 24, 1897), Chandra Nath Bose, then a Bengali Transfator to the Government of Bengai (March II, 1898), Rai Pramada Das Mitra Bahadur, the distinguished Sanskrit scholar of Benares (May 28, 1898) and other competent judges. The Dazen also attracted the notice of scholars and journalists beyond the seas as early as August-September, 1898. On August 20, 1898, The Leeds Times of England, a well-known weekly of that time, published a leading editorial on it under the titie of "Our Influence in Yndia." It was spoken of in that article as a "unique production." The whole article was reproduced in the Dawn (October, 1898). It also rose in the estimation of some scholars of America by that time. As time went on, the quality of the journal was more and more improved under the all-absorbing personal care of Satis Chandra Mukherjee. At the turn of the century it succeeded in firmly establishing itself in the world of journals. Commercial motives were entirely lacking in its set-up. The only thing that was always sought to be maintained was the quality of the journal, and the writings were marked by a noticeable breadth of view and depth of thought.

In its first phase the organ propagated, among other things, India's moral and spiritual ideals and values. The comparative methodology was very often resorted to and Indian thought was frequently thrown in boid relief in the perspective of Western ideals. Attention was constantly drawn to the distinctive mark of Indian culture, viz., primary stress on spiritual ideals as central to good living. Young Bengal learnt from Satis Mukherjee that India has a spiritual mission to fulfil. This was in consonance with the spirit of the teachings of Vivekananda and Abhedananda, the two monks of the Ramkrishna Order who were propagating Vedanta and Indian culture in the West during the same period. Like the two great Swamis, Satis Mukherjee was a staunch believer in India's inherent spiritual superiority to the West. The Dazon expressed and diffused such sentiments among the educated classes. They were made conscious of their worth, dignity and manhood, notwithstanding political enslavement and economic backwardness. A new spirit of self-confidence was instilled into the heart of the nation. This was the first and foremost contribution of Satis Mukherjee during March 1897-July, 1904.

Again, the Dawn in its first phase sought to drive home to the readers the truths and triumphs of modern science. The Editor himself occasionally contributed articles under this head, while as a rule he teprinted scientific articles from English and American journals of science. Original articles from well-known scientists, such as Dr. Mahendra Lal Sarkar, Principal Jyotibhushan Bhaduri, Dr. W. R. C. Latson, were published in its pages.

The Dawn was also responsible for publication of many historical and
sociological writings bearing on Indian and Western themes. Dr. Nishikanta Chatterjee's English rendering of "The mystic story of Pcter Schlemihl by Adelbert von Chamisso" from the original German was serially published in the Dawn during 1899-1900. The same anthor's "Leaves from an unpublished Diary: some Reminiscences of England (1882)' was also published in Mukherjee's journal. And the Ciditor himself made several historical contributions to the magazine, and wrote many valuable articles on educational problems also. His long article, "An Examination into the Present System of Education in India and a Scheme of Reform', offers a masterly analysis of all the varied problems of Indian education and constitutes a landmark in the listory of cducational reforms in India. It was published in three issues, April-Junc, 1902. Few educational charters of early twentieth century can claim so much historic importance as this writing of Satis Mukherjee.

The Dawn was at first published as a monthly journal almost regularly on the completion of every month. But after the twenty-second issue (December, 1898), there was an unexpected delay in its publication for five months (January-May, 1899). The sole reason for this delay was the severe illness of the Editor, and the magazine, lest it should lose in quality in Satis Mukherjee's absence, was not published for five months. From a circular letter issued in March, 1899 over the signature of the Honorary Manager, Tinkari Mukherjee, we learn the following fact: "The Dawn being the property of the Bhagavat Chatuspathi, a Free Hindu Public Religious Institution conducted under the direction of Sir Romesh Chandra Mitter, Kt., the authorities of the said institution have decided that it would be in the interest of the magazine (having regard to the high-class character which it has always sought to maintain) that its publication be suspended during the period of illness of the Editor". ${ }^{1}$ The Editor regained his health by May, 1899 and the Dazw resumed its career from June, 1899, with renewed energy and zeal. Every issue of the magazine bore the unmistakable impress of a master-mind-the stamp of Satis Mukherjee's ability and erudition. No thought of personal glory, no desire for reward animated Satis Mukherjee who worked as Editor out of love, being urged by idealism, "from pure patriotic motives at a personal sacrifice," as Jogesh Chandra Mitra (Offg. District and Sessions Judge, Nadia) observed on June 7, 1898. The proceeds of the Dawn were entirely devoted to the support of the Bhagavat Chatuspathi for the benefit of young students. From June 1899 to July 1004 the magazine was published every month without any break. Haran Chandra Chakladar rendered a splendid service to the magazine during this period as an assistant to Satis Mukherjee.

We learn from Mr. Chakladar that at first only 300 copies were printed every month. But every year the number increased and the area of its circulation became wider, and by 1902-03 the Dawn began to exert a

[^10]tremendous influence over the students and scholars of Calcutta. It alsc circulated in the districts of Bengal and beyond. Several dozens of each issue were despatched to the writers and scholars of England and the U.S.A. In its first stage the Dazon had, besides, several eminent contributors from 'Germany, England and America.

In fairness to Satis Mukherjee, it must be recorded that he was not content with merely running a first-class periodical; he went a step further in addressing himself to the self-chosen task of training up a band of young enthusiastic writers who would carry forward the spirit and tradition of the Dazen. In this regard he faithfully followed the idealistic tradition of Akshay Kumar Datta, the Editor of Tattva-bodhini Patrika, ${ }^{2}$ and Bankim Chandra Chatterjee, the Editor of the Banga-darshan, both belonging to the nineteenth century. Satis Mukherjee's name will go down in history as one of the best journalists and creative thinkers of Bengal along with Iswar Gupta (1812-1859), Akshay Datta (1820-86) and Bankim Chatterjee (1838-94). Journalism was with him, as with the other three, a mission, not a profession.

## The 'Dawn' in its Second Phase

The Dawn, throughout its first phase, had been an organ of the Bhagavat Chatuspathi (founded in 1895). Its second phase began in September, 1904, when it ceased to be an organ of the said Chatuspathi and became the mouth-piece of the Dawn Society founded in July, 1902. During July, 1902-July, 1904, the Society and the journal had separate offices and management till they were linked up and fused into one. The Dawn Society found its mouthpiece in the old Dawo which, therefore, in its new series (since September, 1904) took the name of The Dawn and Dawn Society's Magazine. The Dawn Society functioned in full vigour up to September, 1906, after which date it gradually declined and became defunct early in 1907. The Dazen with its new title was published from Séptember, 1904 down to November, 1913 after which the magazine ceased to exist, During this entire period the journal did not evidendy function as the organ of the Dawn Society alone. Even after the dissolution of the Dawn Society, the journal retained its title as The Down and Dazen Society's Magazine and was successively intended to be an organ of the National Education Movement (1906-1909), and an organt of Indian art, architecture and music (1910-1913). As a real and effective organ of the Dawn Society the Magazine, functioned for about two years (September, 1904-July, 1906).

[^11]The Dawn in its second phase became a bi-monthly magazine, being issued every two months since September, 1904 and containing 48 phoses of reading matter (Royal size). As a bi-monthly magazine its catcer continued till July, 1906. During this period (Suttmoner, 1904..-July, 1906), the office of the Dawn Society and the Dawn Magazine was at 23 sankar Ghose Lane, Calcutta.

## Special Features of the Magazine.

The Dawn in its second phase introduced several special features, such as Indiana, Topics for Discussion, Sludents' Seclion ete. The joumblu's, aim was purposively reformist and propagandist. The slogan of the magazine became at this stage: "To love the conntry, one must know the country." As the Editor put it: "At the present day we, Indians, have hardly any real or extensive knowledge about India, its people and its princes. We know almost nothing of the actual condition of the teming masses in the different provinces, of their social manners and customs, their languages, means of livelihood, religion, education or gencral character. And where there prevails this widespread ignorance about each other's concerns in a community, it is idle to expect that there should be any effective bond of sympathy or unity among its members. All our present unity is because of our living under a common administration, which, however, in our case, is not a growth from within, but a structure imposed from without. Hence this sort of life requires to be strengthened by a strong internal unifying force such as is likely to grow among us from a more intimate acquaintance with each other's actual wants and conditions in life." It was, therefore, intended by the Editor that the Indiana portion of the Magazine should be devoted to articles on things Indian -its provinces, peoples, princes and nobles. This portion, the first in the new series, remained a permanent feature of the Maqazine down to November, 1913. Among the writings published in the Indiana section during September, 1904-July, 1906, Haran Challadar's serial papers on "Bengali as Spoken by the Bengalis" (September, 1904-January, 1906) as well as his article entitled "Fifty Years Ago: The Woes of a class of Bengal Pesantry under European Indigo-Planters" (July, 1905) deserve special mention. Among the unsigned writings from the pen of the Editor himself, published during this period, "Principles of the Swadeshi Movement: Its Influence on the Indigenous Cloth Industry" (November, 1905), "The True Character of the Boycott in Bengal," "The True Character of the Swadeshi in Bengal" and "Prospect of the Swadeshi" (March, 1906) were outstanding contributions. Many unsigned articles written by the Dawn students were also published in this section.

Apart from Indiana, there was another very important section devoted to Topics for Discussion. This was the second part of the Magazine and included "short paragraphs on important national
subjects, not political, presented to readers as Matters for Discussion." We learn from Mr. Chakladar that this section usually contained the thoughts of Satis Mukherjee, but not infrequently writings from other leading celebrities of India and abroad were presented to the readers for debate and discussion. This section had the great merit of focussing attention on the more important aspects of modern problems.

The third important section was the Students' Section which contained, first of all, the writings of recognised members of the Dawn Society in its two weekly classes. The English portion of this section contained writings of members of the General Training Class, while the Bengali portion published writings of members in the Moral and Religious Training Class. This Students' Section was introduced as a regular feature of the Dawn Magazine in September, 1904.

But several months 1ater, a Correspondence Column was opened under this section for the students alone. In response to a suggestion from Bhanushankar Manshanker Mehta of Bhavnagar, Gujrat, a Students' Correspondence Column was started. In the July (1905) issue several questions from Mehta were published, inviting students to offer solutions. The Editor in the same issue exhorted the students throughout India (whether subscribers or not) to utilise the magazine as a common medium for exchange of thoughts and views (Dawn, July 1905-Part III, pp. 63-64). The Editor's call was at once responded to from diverse parts of India by the students who began to take a keen interest in the magazine. Among the students who participated in this Correspondence Column during July, 1905 to July, 1906 the names of Popatlal Govindlal Shah (Ahmedabad), Bhabani Charan Mitra (Patna), Kripashankar Prabhashankar Acharya (Kathiawar), Haripada Ghoshal (Tamluk, Bengal), H. H. Maniar (Kathiawar), Hari Raghtnath Bhagvat (Poona), Rajendra Prasad (Saran, Behar), Rabindra Narayan Ghose, Kishori Mohan Gupta, Surendra Nath Das Gupta (Calcutta), G. Krishan Poti (Trevandrum), Satis Chandra Guha (Barisal, Bengal), Venka Swami Rao (Chittoor, Madras Presidency) may be picked out as the more important writers. The Dawn thus offered a platform to the Indian students for mutual exchange of views. The students throughout India were invited to suggest important and useful questions for discussion and to provide answers to the questions. The questions were usually set on Indian topics of national or social importance. The main object of these questions and answers was to enable the Indian students to come nearer one another through the medium of the Magazine and increase knowledge of each other and of the country. Maximum freedom was allowed to students in the matter of framing questions, but the Editor reserved the right of disallowing questions which in his opinion were "of a purely abstract nature" or "of a technical character" or would not serve "any practical or useful purpose," (Dawn, November, 1905, Part III, p. 8).

In its second phase (September, 1904-July, 1906) the magazine became an all-India influence and rose very high in the esteem of thoughtleaders of the country, as is borne out by the numerous reports published in it. Its subscribers were drawn from different parts of India such as Calcutta, Travancore, Gujrat, Baroda, Tanjore, the Punjab, Vizagapatam, Behar, Poona, Ahmedabad, Madras and Bombay.

During the same period, the Dawn rendered several other memorable services to the country. From September, 1904, it began to encourage discussions on and researches in economic topics and values. Satis Mukherjee himself wrote (in the period following September, 1904) numerous articles on economic topics and tendencies and he inspired his pupils with his characteristic research-spirit and guided them quite creditably in that drection. The Editor made it a point to publish facts and data about the economic conditions of contemporary India, both rural and urban. Well-written articles on trade and industry, banking and commerce, agriculture and population frequently found a prominent place in the Indiana section of the Dawn. Statistical reports as well as facts and figures about economic life were always realistically approached and published in the Magazine. The readers were thus used to 'objective, quantitative and statistical conceptions' of economic movement and morphology. So far as Young Bengal was concerned, Satis Mukherjee functioned as one of the early Gurus of economic researches during the first decade of the present century. Public attention to this important aspect of Mukherjee's life has been repeatedly drawn by Benoy Sarkar in his Badtir Pathe Bangalee (Cal. 1934), Creative India (Lahore, 1937) and other publications, as well as by Shib Chandra Datta in his scholarly publication, "Conficting Tendencies in Indian Economic Thought"' (Calcutta, 1934).

The Dawn as an organ of the Dawn Society functioned effectively during September, 1904-July, 1906. The Dawn Society continued to exist till the earlier part of 1907, but between September, 1906 and the dissolution of the Dawn Society, the Magazine was only formally the Society's organ ; it materially became a mouthpiece of the resurgent Bengal in its economic and cultural aspects. After July, 1906, the patriotic and national character of the Magazine became conspicuously prominent. It was openly and directly employed in the dissemination of ideas and schemes of National Education under national control. Considering this, the thitd phase of the Dawn Magazine may be said to have started not from early 1907 after the formal dissolution of the Dawn Society, but from September, 1906 when the National Council of Education was functioning in full vigour and overshadowing the Dawn Society.

## The Third Phase of the 'Dawn'

The Dawn in its third phase approximately covered a little more than seven years (September, 1906-November, 1913). The first important
change was the transformation of the bi-monthly magazine into a monthly organ. From September, 1906 down to November, 1913 The Dawn and Dawn Society's Magazine was published almost regularly as a monthly journal. The only four months when the Magazine was not published in this period were November-December, 1907 and November-December, 1908. The office-addresses of the Magazine during this whole period were, in order of sequence: (i) 191/1, Bowbazar Street, Calcutta (September, 1906-May, 1907), (ii) 166, Bowbazar Street, Calcutta (June, 1907-October, 1909), (iii) 12, Lall Bazar Street, Caicutta (November, 1909_April, 1911), (iv) 8/2, Hastings Street, Caicutta (May, 1911-November, 1913).

The second important change was that the Dazon developed into a fullfledged organ of Indian nationalism in its broadest sense. The cultural aspect of this nationalism, in which Mukherjee himself was more interested than in anything else, naturaliy received greater prominence than the economic or political. During 1906-1908 the Dazon was, above all, a most powerful organ of the National Education Movement in India. The Magazine published regulariy detailed notes and news as well as critical essays on the prospects and progress of the National Education Movement in the country. The movement was not confined to Bengal alone, but overstepped its boundaries. In Bombay, Madras, Gujrat and the Punjab it roused numerous men to have National Education under national control, The Dawn was functioning as a most powerful force in the intellectual world of India. Even outside India, the influence of the Dawn was felt in many quarters-in Switzerland, England and America. The number of its western subscribers rapidly increased at this stage. For a historical study of the National Education Movement in our country during the first decade of the present century, the issues of the Dawn, particularly for the period of 1906-1908, are invaluable aids. Benoy Sarkar's article on The National Council of Education-and National School at Maldain Bengal (Dawn, August, 1907) is a most valuable historical document of the Swadeshi days. It at once drew the notice of Aurobindo Ghosh and Bepin Pal who commented on it in editorial articles of Bande Mataram and New India respectively, during August-September, 1907.

The economic studies and investigations were continued in the Dawn during this period as in the previous phase, but major attention was gradually concentrated on historical researches. It is not perhaps generally known that Satis Mukherjee was one of the most energetic and vigorous research workers in ancient Indian history. His historical papers, published in the Dawn, were numerous. He also inspired his pupils to carry on intensive researches in historical topics. From 1909, the Dawn became virtually a journal for the publication of historical research-papers. In quality as well as in infuence the journal achieved the height of success. Late in 1908 he had withdrawn from the Bengal National College and devoted himself whole-heartedly to his old magazine, the Dawn.

Krishnadas Sinha Roy, one of his young pupils, was chosen as his personal assistant. Satis Guha, another pupil, was appointed manager of the Magazine.

The Dawn throughout its career since March, 1897, had functioned as an organ of patriotic propaganda. Nevertheless, the patriotic character of the Magazine became more pronounced during 1904-1908. But the height was reached during 1900-1913. It became one of the most eloquent exponents of nationalism and patriotism in India. Its circulation further increased and its appeal spread in different parts of India and beyond the seas. The distinctive character of Indian civilisation was constantly stressed and the achievements of the ancestors in mental and material progress were frequently displayed in the pages of the Magazine. Its articles on Indian creations in trade and commerce, art and industry, education and society, architecture and music as published during 19091913 belong to an exceptionally high category of scholarship. The Editor himself was as ever the most prolific contributor to the journal on a variety of topics.

The Dawn was at its best in its final phase. Its services to the mation in this period were something which any institution can be proud of. Its contribution to the enrichment and expansion of historical scholarship deserves the highest recognition. The old pupils of the Dawn Society were some of the best writers of the journal at this stage.

Radhakumud Mukherjee contributed several historical papers of which "The Wonderful Unity of India: A Deeper View" (January, 1909) was the most illuminating. Brilliantly written with a historian's outlook, the paper was a contribution to Indian nationalism and was intended to stimulate the spirit of Indian nationalism by drawing attention to the fundamental unity of India in the midst of her immensity and variety. And that unity, argued the author, was not wholly the product of British rule, but had a proud heritage behind it. In a revised form the paper was subsequently published as a brochure entitled "The Fundamental Unity of India" (London, 1914), with an Introduction by J. Ramsay MacDonald, M.P. As a historical study of Indian nationalism the book is still valued by scholars.

Rabindra Narayan Ghose, another brilliant pupil of Satis Mukherjee, contributed several historical papers, each giving proof of the writer's deep study and careful thinking. His papers on "India's Literary Wealth : A Connected Story of Her Libraries from the very Earliest Times Downwards" (April to June, 1909 and January, April, 1910), "Indian Nationalism and Indian Art" (May, 1910), "Indian History and Indian Nationalism" (October-November, 1910), "Indian Civilisation and Indian Nationalism" (December, 1910) and "The Civilisation of Northern India: A Contribution to the Study of Hindu-Moslem Relations" (May to July, October and December, 1911) are remarkably illuminating and can still be
regarded as documentary contributions to Indian historical scholarship as well as to Indian nationalism.

Haran Chandra Chakladar, the seniormost pupil of the Dawn Society, made during this period (1919-13) some historical contributions the value of which is only now being properly understood. His papers on "Maritime activity and Enterprise in Ancient India: Intercourse and Trade by Sea with China" (May-August, 1910, February, May, August-September, 1911 and February-March, 1912) and "Ship-Building and Maritime Activity in Bengal" (September-October, 1910, Jantuary, March-April, 1911 and September, 1912) were not only outstanding contributions, but pioneering works on the history of Greater India. Chronologically, these writings anticipated Radhakumud Mukherjee's "History of Indian Shipping and Maritime Activity" (London, 1912) and had long been predecessor to Dr. Ramesh Chandra Majumdar's "Champa" (1927). These articles had at that time attracted the serious notice of scholars. In the leading editorial article of the Indian Mirror (June 5, 1910), the first of these two serial articles from Chakladar's pen was highly spoken of. The second article attracted the notice of Prof. Vidhushekhar Shastri whose controversy with Chakladar illustrates the kind of reaction that the latter produced on contemporary Bengali scholarship.

The most precious of all writings in the Dawn at this stage (1909-13) was Satis Mukherjee's monograph on "Swadeshi India or India without Christian Influences" (July-November, 1909, January-April, July. August, November-December, 1910). It was powerfully conceived and boldly executed. The mass of facts employed to substantiate his proposition as well as the method of analysis, was indeed superb and incisive. The greatness of Indian culture or civilisation before Christian influences was the main thesis of Mukherjee on that occasion. This monograph of Mukherjee is one of the best writings contributed by Indian scholars to historical scholarship at the beginning of the present century. India's nationalism and patriotism were powerfully fed and encouraged by this and other writings of Mukherjee during this period.

In connection with the visit of George V to India and the shift of the capital from Calcutta to Delhi (December, 1911), the India Government made a declaration of their policy of modelling the New Delhi buildings on the European Renaissance architectural style. The Indian architectural tradition was flatly disregarded by the Government. This provoked sharp criticism of the Government policy from the Indian press and platform. Non-Indian lovers of Indian art and architecture also raised their voice of protest against the India Government's move. In the opposition, thus organised, Satis Mukherjee as the Editor of the Dawn took a leading part. His article on "Wanted a New Policy : The Government and Indian Craftsmen" (February, 1912) powerfully pleaded for the acceptance of Indian claims of architecture in the construction of the

New Delhi buildings. He criticised, in a like manner, the India Government which had been "quite unsympathetic to Indian art-traditions." The Dawn since then became a mighty vehicle for the propaganda of Indian art-ideals and Indian architectural traditions. The Eiditor was in constant touch with Dr. A. K. Coomarswamy, Mr. E. B. Havell, Major J. B. Keith and other recognised authorities on Indian art and architecture. Their numerous articles and papers bearing on Indian art-traditions, which were published in the Dawn during 1912-1913, created a stir among scholars and Government officials both in India and England. In a letter to the Editor, Major J. B. Keith condemned the India Government's plan of accepting the European architectural style for the buildings at New Delhi as "a projected act of vandalism, the worst I have known in India." Keith wrote further in that letter (Dawn, January, 1913) : 'My devout hope is that Government will reconsider this before it is too late, for it is deceived on the subject. And I hope every lover of a beautiful, traditional and living art such as we have in India will enter a righteous protestation. No other country that I am aware of in the East has a traditional Art, nor in the West either. It would be a flagrant injustice to the Native Architect and to my old friends the masons and craftsmen, and a fine illustration of the extent to which Europeanisation is being carried." The movement in favour of a better recognition of Indian art and architecture by the Government of India soon assumed remarkable dimensions and behind that movement there were none more active than Satis Mukherjee, J. B. Keith, E. B. Havell and A. K. Coomarswamy. This movement produced tremendous reaction even in England and was accelerated by the London Morning Post's advocacy of the claims of Indian Craftsmanship (Dawn: March, September-October, 1913) in the contemplated building-constructions at New Delhi. In view of this tremendous agitation in the country, the India Government had to revise its policy in favour of Indian art-traditions. The buildings at New Delhi constructed since 1912-13 owed their ideological planning in part, at least, to the constructive criticism and suggestions of the Editor of the Dawn.

# "As Civilization Advances Poetry Declines" 

Kádunasanear Roy-Fourth Year English.

IT is Macaulay who made this startling statement. The statement means that poetry cannot thrive in a civilized world, that when we were getting civilized through all these centuries our poetry was actually on the decline. The statement, while it means all that, implies much more. It implies that poetry is going to be extinct. How shocking! But before we agree with Macaulay, it is necessary to examine the validity of the premises that warrant such a grim conclusion.

We should know first of all what civilization is. It is, as Clive Bell says, the means to the good states of mind. It also implies reformation and recreation of social values, if and when necessary. Now when civilization means all that, it is difficult to imagine how its advancement signifies the decline of poetry. Poetry is the expression of certain primary emotions which have nothing to do with civilization. They were there ten thousand years ago ; they still exist and they will be there ten thousand years later. Thus hopes and disappointments, joys and sorrows were there in the past and will be there in the future. And so long as primary emotions will be there, poetry will continue to exist.

If we turn to the past, we shall find numerous historical events confirming it. Poetry is not the antithesis of civilization. Thus, in the Elizabethan era when we find new learning pouring in, new discoveries taking place, in other words, when we find the advent of a great civilisation backed up by material prosperity, we also find brilliant efflorescence of poetry. There was Marlowe, there was Spenser, and above all there was the Titan, Shakespeare. If, indeed, the advancement of civilization implies the decline of poetry, Elizabethan period should have been barren. But it was not so. And it had not been so at least in the case of another civilization. In the 5th century b.c. Athens was at the height of material prosperity. Marathon had given her fame and renown in the Hellenic world and Salamis did the rest. It gave her a rich civilization. If we turn to the literature of the period, we are certainly not disappointed. Eschylus, Sophocles, Euripides were dramatists and great poets, too.

Is Macaulay's saying then to be rejected? Are we to regard it as an empty, categorical assertion with no logic behind it? Perhaps not. The author of the statement must have had some reason, though it may
be assailable. By poetry, possibly, he means a particular species which is born of a sense of wonder and is nursed by crude beliefs. And if poctry means that and that alone, then Macaulay is justified.

In ancient poetry there was wonder. The ancient man could believe that gods lived on the Olympus, that like men they had their quarrels too and that to settle their disputes they had to invite human beings. Hence the ancient Greeks could figure Pan by the woodside on a summer noon trolling on his pipe until he charmed the hearts of upland plonghmen. Hence they could think of Iliad, of Helen's face that launched a thousand ships and burnt the topless towers of Ilium. This sense of wonder gave birth to magnificent imaginative poetry. The ancient man was credulous. Hence he could believe Alcestis' return from the underworld or conld think of a Prometheus stealing fire from heaven, and fighting for man against the might of Jupiter. If we turn to 'Macbeth' we find the same old truth repeated. The story has a stormy background of strange and mysterious highlands where the weird sisters dwell. This clement of wonder that we find in the setting produces in its turn marvellous imagination. In 'Othello' again, when the hero describes his adventures on sea and land, we find once more a brilliant masterpiece of rich and virile imagination. Here, too,-at bottom lies the sense of wonder that is roused by the land of the Anthropophagi, of men whose heads do grow beneath their shoulders.

As civilization advances, this wonder declines. Thus the imaginative splendour is lost. Reason replaces old beliefs, and man puts everything to the severe test of reason. The startling discoveries of science help man in the execution of the test. And what had so long been the crude beliefs of a preceding age now collapse before the severe scrutiny of the modern man. The modern man no longer believes in the weird sisters and his whole civilization induces him to regard Hellenic stories as myth. Thus, what appeared vast and hence, strange and mysterious to our predecessors, is now reduced for us to a finite stretch of time and space. We know it, every bit of it,-we know it well and too well perhaps. Hence, though the Atlas mountain is still there, Shelley's Atlas has flown from our midst. If our ancient forefathers were extremely credulous, we are all born sceptics. That is why the poetry that had its roots in wonder is practically non-existent in the modern times. And that is why the works of epic grandent that were produced in primitive times cannot be expected to be writen again in an age when the ever-swelling tidal wave of civilization is destroying old beliefs and wonder. Modern poetry is written about familiar objects. We know them closely, we know them well. Hence it lacks that imaginative splendour which was of the essence in the primitive times.

To conclude, if we mean by poetry one of its special kinds, Macaulay is right. But poetry is not all wonder. Poetry must keep pace with our
life. And it does so in modern times. T. S. Eliot thus expresses the despair, the deepening sense of frustration in his "Waste Land". Indeed our life is bleak and barren, presenting a dismal spectacle of a sad and lamentable waste. "Waste and void, waste and void and darkness was upon the face of the deep". Thus modern poetry has its roots firmly planted on the earth. Poetry is, as Arnold says, the criticism of life under the laws fixed for such criticism by the laws of poetic truth and poetic beauty. Now the laws fixed for such criticism are not the old ways of the past, but they are laws all the same. And that is why Macaulay's words hold good no longer.

# Mirza Raja Jai Singh-A Forgotten Rajput Statesman 

Barun De-Fourth Year History.

THE Rajput state of Jaipur has seldom conformed to the usual standards of Rajasthani statecraft, standards which have grown up round the tales of folklore and balladry, which James Tod has so admirably retailed in his "Annals and Antiquities of Rajasthan" and on which a number of Bengali authors like Rangalal, Madhusudan, R. C. Dutt, Rabindranath and finally, Abanindranath have drawn. Their typical Rajput has, by now, become almost a mythical figure. He is represented as an intrepid warrior possessing a self-effacing loyalty to tradition and principle; scrupulous to the core, he seems to be devoid of cunning and deceit. In fact, instances may be cited where Rajput princes have wasted opportunities of getting the better of the enemy, simply because they thought it was not the right thing to do. This idealized portrait bears a remarkable likeness to that of their predecessors, the Kshatriyas of the Mahābhärata, or in fact, the Knights-errant of the Middle Ages with whom the medievalist romantic Tod almost certainly compared his heroes.

The rulers of Jaipur of the Kacchwaha clan are, however, as Dr. K. R. Qanungo has remarked, unlike their compatriots, proverbial for their unwarlike nature. This statement should not be taken as an imputation, but may in fact be explained by their environments. Unlike the more liberty-loving Mewar or Marwar, Jaipur or Amber, as it was known in the Mughal Period, has been endowed by nature with an indefen-
sible terrain which enabled the sovereigns who held Delhi and the Jumna Doab to overrun her territory with ease. This explains why there are few sieges of Amber like the famous sacks of Chitor. The rulers of Amber had nothing for it but to play second fiddle to the Agra rulers, and the Deosa Interview in 1562 between Beharimall of Amber and the young Akbar marks the beginning of a long entente between them and their successors. This would explain why we find no prominent mention of a Rajput prince on the roll of great Rajasthani patriots.

But their peculiar situation made the princes of Amber as good statesmen as soldiers. Though, perhaps, no match in valour for their compatriots of Bundi and Marwar, they possibly knew the art of war better, serving as they did all over India under the Mughal colours. The pliancy of her rulers enabled them to aggrandize steadily their territories by keeping in the good books of the Emperors, while their more chivalrous and nationalistic compatriots kept themselves fruitlessly aloof.

This essay tries to give some account of one of the greatest Amber princes, one who so represents the characteristics which have been described that he might almost be compared with Brasidas who, according to Thucydides, was so un-Spartan, but yet the best Spartan of them all! A mighty captain and a consummate statesman, he was one of the major moderating influences in the reign of Aurangzeb, and it would be no exaggeration to say that with his death and that of Jaswant Singh one of the main checks on the monarch's fanaticism was removed.

Jai Singh I, given the title of Mirza Raja by a grateful emperor, came to the throne in the closing years of Jahangir's reign on the death of his worthless cousin, Maha Singh, who had succeeded his equally worthless father, Bhao Singh. Bhao Singh's father was the great Man Singhperhaps, the greatest of all Rajputs including even Rana Pratap-whose career deserves a monograph entirely devoted to it. After his death, much of Amber's fame had suffered a diminution, thanks to his degenerate offspring, and it was at a very low ebb when, in 1625, Jai Singh came to the throne, destined to raise it to a pinnacle of glory. An interesting anecdote about him when a lad of eighteen, narrated by Tod in his Annals, gives us a glimpse into the control which the Mughal harem in those days exercised over the investiture question. According to Tod, there were several claimants for the gadi, and Jahangir threw his power in favour of the grand-nephew of Man Singh only on the advice of Jagat Gosain, his Rathor consort. When Jai Singh went to perform obeisance for the investiture, the emperor directed him to the Rathorni, for she, he said, was his benefactress. But the punctilious Rajput refused to offer salaam to Jagat Gosain, as it ill became one of princely birth to bow before a fellow-prince's daughter. "It matters not," cried out the good-natured princess, "I give you the Raj of Amber". The story might be inaccurate and anachronistic, but it is illustrative.

As regards bravery, Jai Singh made his mark early in the reign of Sbah Jehan. The young prince, Aurangzeb, was once attacked at a show by a mad fighting elephant and although he encountered it bravely, he would probably have been killed, had not his brother Shuja and the Raja galloped up amid the general confusion, the latter putting the monster to flight with his lance. His first venture, worthy of note, was with the ill starred expedition which Shah Jehan sent to fulfil his "famous but fatuous" idea of reconquering the ancient Timurid dominions of Baikh and Badakshan. The expedition bears a remarkable resemblance in motives and difficulties to the British army in the First Afghan War. Aurangzeb's army, though it fought bravely, found its supply lines cut off and bad to fall back as precipitately as the British army which retreated to Jalalabad in 1840. The Amber Raja played a prominent part in covering the retreat and bringing his troops out of the passes of the Hindu Kush. He certainly handled them better than Elphinstone and the rest of the British generals in 1840.

We next hear of him at the beginning of the fratricidal wars of succession at the close of Shah Jehan's reign. The prince seems to have been high in the imperial favour, for he and Dilir Khan Ruhela were appointed advisers to the son of Dara Shukoh, the young prince Sulaiman Shukoh who was sent to quell the insurrection of Shah Shuja who had been marching on Agra with the Bengal army and the "nawara" (navy). Although Sulaiman was the nominal commander, "the real power", says Sir Jadunath Sarkar, "lay in the hands of the politic and experienced Rajput chief, Jai Singh". The first adjective sums up the situation well, for although Shuja was checked at Bahadurpur on the Ganges, Jai Singh must have divined which way the wind blew. We do not know when he left the army of Sulaiman and transferred his valuable allegiance to the rising "Southern Light", Prince Aurangzeb, but he managed to keep the Amber contingents out of the well-known battles of Dhatmat, Samugarh and Deorai. He was, however, detached later by the new Emperor to pursue Dara out of India and, if possible, capture hitn. Jai Singh revelled in this type of campaign. He hung on to the fleing prince's flanks-he possibly did not want to imprison a man whose salt he had partaken of. But Dara had no way of getting rid of the Raja, and was driven unceremoniously out of India into Sind, only to be betrayed later on by Malik Jiwan. During the pursuit occurred what, according to Sarkat, was 'a most remarkable feat", that of crossing the Great Ratn of Cutch in record time with an already worn-out army. The Jaipur Raja's diplomatic manoeuvres are as remarkable in this period as ever. The Mirza Raja's son, Ram Singh, was instrumental in making the hill chiefs of Kangra give the young prince Sulaiman Shukoh up to the tender mercies of the Emperor. Jai Singh himself helped Aurangzeb greatly, by weaning from his rival side many powerful Rajput chiefs-principally,
the doubly treacherous Jaswant Singh of Marwara. Of course, had Dara become Emperor, his manifold defects might have as soon brought the Empire to downfall, but, as Sarkar and Datta point out, it is an open question whether Jai Singh and Jaswant did not themselves pave the way for the Rajput War of the '70s by strengthening the cause of Aurangzeb, when the combined Rajput support might have helped the eclectic Dara on to the throne. Cautiousness in their case certainly did not have very fruitful results.

His successful encounters with Shivaji won for Jai Singh a premier position in Indian history. The Raja, besides perhaps Zutfiqar Khain, ${ }^{1}$ the Ulysses of the succeeding reign, was among the few diplomats serving the interest of the Mughals who were able to beat the Mahrattas at their own tactics; his ultimate failure in no way detracts from the glory of his victory and virtual capture of Shivaji. After the War of Succession, he was engaged in minor campaigns-he once withdrew his contingent on Imperial service from the borders of the Santal Parganas, refusing to proceed against Shuja who was still fighting a losing game against his brother. Mir'Jumla now took up the attack. Jai Singh's appointment was perhaps a rebuff to Jaswant Singh, who had failed miserably at Poona, and is an instance of the eternal Rathor-Kacchawaha ${ }^{2}$ rivalry. It reflects all the more credit on the Mirza Raja that the sole command of the army was given to him and Aurangzeb did not indulge in his love of "duality of power" to which may be partly attributed the failure of the Mughals against the Mahrathas. In the Deccan compaign Jai Singh followed the policy of "divide et impera". The western part of the Deccan was in those days comprised of the kingdom of Bijapur and the hilly Maratha country, besides which there were some patches of territory, ruled by petty Maratha princes like the Morés of Javli. Shivaji had consolidated his power by putting down these chieftains, mainly by a politic mixture of force and fraud, and they, in turn, rallied to the Maghal cause. It redounds to Jai Singh's credit that he was able to find this weak spot in Shivaji's armour. Bijapur had been marked out for conquest by Aurangzeb since the days of Shah Jehan, but it stood too much in dread of Shivaji's policy of aggrandisement to lend him a helping hand. It is certain that an entente between the Marathas and the Muslim powers of the Deccan would have wrecked the southern ambitions of the Mughals, considering the past records of the latter ; but, as it was, the MarathaBijapur rivalry was the key-stone to Jai Singh's activities in the south.

[^12]Instead of dissipating his military strength in a futile struggle against the Maratha guerilla bands, Jai Singh decided to seize the nodal point of the far-flung net of Maratha fortresses which crested the Western Ghats. He invested Purandar where Sivaji's family and treasures were kept, and formed a base six miles away at Saswad. It enabled him to keep his supply lines intact, send foraging parties into the Maratha territory and also 'mask' the Bijapur border. We see that his plan of campaign was more enlightened and paying than that of his predecessors who would sit down in Poona and angle for bribes from the enemy. To oapture Purandar was difficult, but the Maharaja cordoned off the entire fortifications and set the Mughals and Bundela warriors under Dilir Khan Ruhela to batter their way upward. This "attrition" policy was bound to succeed and Shivaji, faced with the dishonour of his family and finding the Mughal pressure on his territory intolerable, decided to avoid a total wreck by capitulating before his entire army was decimated. His interview with the Maharaja ${ }^{3}$ has been made much of, and was indeed a triumph of diplomacy for the latter. By the Treaty of Purander concluded in 1665, Stivaji agreed to give up twenty-three of his forts and send his son with a contingent of 5,000 horse to Agra in return for being allowed to keep a few forts. By a second clause, Shivaji was to be permitted to conquer a lowland tract of the Konkan and the western highlands of Bijapur (Balaghat Bijapuri) for which he would have to pay 40 lakhs of hun ( 2 lakhs of rupees) to the Imperial Treasury. Jai Singh dilates on the merits of this clause in a despatch to Aurangzeb: "This policy will result in a three-fold gain: first, we get 40 lakhs of hun; secondly, Shivaji will be alienated from Bijapur; thirdly, the imperial army will be relieved from the arduous task of campaigning in these two broken and jungly regions as Shiva will himself undertake the task of expelling the Bijapur garrisons from them." This shows that the Mughals regarded the defeat of the Marathas merely as a stepping stone to the conquest of Bijapur.

Shivaji himself accompanied the Imperial army with a large contingent on its somewhat unjustified march into Bijapur. The Maharaja had once again fiung his diplomatic net of bribery far and wide among the higher classes in Bijapur, but thotigh many did take the bait, they in fact played false when he appeared before the walls of the capital. Secure in the hope that most of the Bijapuri subjects would come over to his side, Jai Singh collected a vast army on his own liability, as Aurangzeb had been trifing about sending him money, and did not even wait for his siege guns. The

[^13]forts of Phaltan and Mangalvide fell in the first shock, and though some detachments of the enemy did not come over to his side, Jai Singh soon found that he had to deal with a "people's war"; for, when after several skirmishes he arrived within 12 miles of Bijapur, he found the environs ruthlessly laid waste and the city put in a state of defence with 20,000 men in it, while another army under Sharza Khan and Siddi Masaud was ravaging the Mughal subha in his rear. Only the missing siege-guns would have done the trick, and Jai Singh had perforce to retire if he would keep his supply-lines intact. That day, 5th January 1566, marks the end of the eversuccessful Amber Raja's career. The retreat presented the sight of a shambles, for the unwieldy Mughal army was harassed on the flanks and the rear by the mobile, though small, Bijapuri host, and gave a foretaste of Deccan military operations in the years to come.

The Maharaja returned to Aurangabad to find another blow awaiting him, for he had prevailed on Shivaji to visit the Imperial Court at Agra partly at Aurangzeb's command, and partly because he had fears about Shiva's life, when he thought of the disaffected Mughal soldiery who attributed their disaster to Maratha treachery. The treatment of Shivaji at the hands of the Emperor is well known. Jai Singh had given his word of honour to Shivaji that he would not be ill-treated, and there is reason to believe that he was helped in his subsequent escape by the Maharaja's son, Kunwar Ram Singh, in restitution of his father's word. At any rate, Aurangzeb took this view of the matter and sent the Kunwar in disgrace to the operations in the pestilence-ridden Assam. The charge might have been true, for a Rajput chief of those days seldom hesitated to redeem his pledged word, even by foul means. But the Maharaja asserted with politic vehemence in his despatches that he knew nothing of the escape and let out a flood of invectives on the helpless Shivaji. He was even busy propounding further schemes of tricking the Maratha into captivity again. But Jai Singh had shot his last bolt, and when the Emperor repudiated his vast Bijapur debts, he sank under his calamities and died, perhaps, of a broken heart and over-work at Burhanpur in 1667. Even his death is a matter of controversy, for Tod would have it encompassed by his own son, Kirat Singh, at the instigation of the ever-malevolent Aurangzeb; Kirat Singh on the other hand believed that his father had been poisoned by his favourite secretary Udairaj, who would have been beaten to death, had he not apostatized-this form of escaping punishment being favoured by the Emperor at this time. Kirat Singh is, however, depicted by contemporary sources in a favourable light, and Rajput bards too often explain deaths by parricide or other foul means even when there is no supporting evidence.

This recital of dry facts might have made the reader think that Jai Singh's achievements were no higher than those of a mere campaigner possessing little or no culture. All contemporary chronicles militate
against this view. He greatly embellished and expanded the palaces of his capital city--though it was left to his descendant Sawai Jai Singh and a Bengali called Vidyadhara to build the model city of Jaipur-and was also a lavish patron of the arts. He followed the tradition of HinduMuslim cultural rapprochement among the higher classes, initiated by Akbar and Mirza Abdur-Rahim Khan-Khanan, and was equally at home in Persian and Arabic. He was a good letter-writer as is attested by his recently-discovered despatches to Aurangzeb, the Haft-Anjuman, which are distinguished for their polished style and force of diction. As a matter of fact, we do not hear of his cultural activities, only because his campaigns were long and frequent.

Jai Singh's character was a peculiar mixture of nobility and baseness. That he was brave is beyond doubt-he once led a storming party over the walls of the fortress of Mhow. Coupled with this bravery is also an extraordinary astuteness, a power "to humour and manage the various Rajput clans and make all obey the will of a common head," which makes him one of the greatest captains of the age and in his own race places him on the same plane as Rana Sanga and Raja Man Singh. Jai Singh had the eminently Rajput trait of arrogance examples of which have been furnished above. ${ }^{4}$ But though honest in all his personal dealings, Jai Singh was politically unscrupulous and unlike the ordinary Rajput, never hesitated to play the traitor to gain his own ends. He lays his heart bare in his despatches, where he describes all the promises which he never intended to keep, e.g., his promise to wed his danghter to Shivaji in order to lure the Maratha into his clutches. He would compliment a man with honeyed words, and then heap filth on him behind his back. Money was, to his corrupt mind, verily the sinews of war.

But we must not judge Jai Singh solely by our standards. He grew up in a court where fraud and chicanery thrived and were employed as legitimate means of gaining one's ends. Jai Singh cannot be blamed for fighting his enemies on their own ground. If he had not been as diplomatically deceitful as he was, his lot would have been that of his contemporaries, the noble-minded and yet idle Ranas of Mewar, Karan Sing and Jagat Singh. Jai Singh was the child of his age, and ought to be judged by the standards of that age, though not completely excused. We ought also to remember that while he lived the Emperor did not dare to vent his spleen on the Hindus, and it was two years after the death of Mirza Raja that he released his anti-Hindu legislations, which ended in

[^14]undermining the strongest pillar of Mughal rule in India, the willing cooperation of the Rajput races. The whole life of Jai Singh of Amber is an appropriate commentary on that principle of co-operation."

# Lingering Imperialism 

Mitir Kanti Rakhsit-Third Year Economics.

TTHE POST-WAR YEARS have witnessed the revival of the dormant imperialistic attitude of the Western powers as expressed in their frantic efforts to maintain their hold on the colonies and exploit theit peoples. During the Second World War the Allies expressed their firm "faith" in justice, equality, fraternity and all that democracy stands for. While fighting Hitler's theory of racial supremacy, they were loud in declaring that they were the true upholders of the doctrine of equality of man and in their liberal promises to the subjugated 'peoples they kindled hope in the minds of the unfortunate people of the colonies that the cessation of hostilities would usher in their freedom. But after the war, the die-hard imperialists were again seen in their old rôle of exploiting the colonial people and all the assurances and guarantees to the subject millions were thrown to the four winds. Indeed, as an instance of betrayal, the infamous "Munich" Pact pales into insignificance when it is compared with the imperialist powers' betrayal of wartime promises to the colonial people.

## Economically Exploited Nations

It is true that after the war the imperialists were forced to grant political independence to some countries on account of irresistible popular movements. But the vested interests of the imperialist nations are still playing a major rôle in the economy of these countries, which will be clear on an examination of the trade and industry of the countries that became free from western domination recently. In India the bulk of the jute and tea industry is under foreign control, and the major part of India's trade is also carried on with the Anglo-American bloc. In 1951-52, 42.6 per cent of the total export of India went to Britain and America, while 42.2 per

[^15]cent of the total import came from the same countries. Similar is the case of Ceylon, Pakistan, Burma and other Asiatic countries. Owing to warpreparations of the Western powers, the prices of raw materials have gone up, though this has brought no relief to the toiling masses of the Asiatic countries, as their trade and industry is under the control of foreign companies and banks. In the Middle East and Egypt, under treaties signed under unequal strength of the parties, the western powers are trying to further their economic and political interests. In Persia Britain, through crude tactics, is trying to hinder the nationalisation of the AngloIranian Oil Company. In Eggypt, also, the British are trying to dominate the Suez Canal Zone.

## Motives Behind Maintaining Colonies

But this is not the whole picture. Apart from these so-called free nations, there are still colonies of Britain, France, Portugal, and Holland and these powers are in no mood to give the colonial people the right of self-determination. The conservative element is now dominant in the political arena of these countries after a brief spell of socialist rale, and there seems to be no change in their outlook regarding the colonies. Indeed, they cannot afford to lose their hold on existing colonies for certain important reasons.

The standard of living in these imperialist nations is very high and this cannot be maintained without drawing on the resources of these colonies. The aristocrats, who control the political wheel of these nations, will, therefore, be in a difficult position. For, wherever the imperialists established colonies it became a happy hunting ground for the whole capitalist class of the dominant nations and thus a few whites, constituing only a small percentage of the total population, oppress and exploit vast masses in political as well as economic sphere. As Lenin rightly points out, the imperialists monopolise the colonial industries and resources and treat the colony as a market rather than as a community of human beings. So, as a result of the laissez-faire policy pursued by the imperialists, the colony has remained as a source of raw material and a market for finished goods. Thus, the capitalist class will not be able to earn handsome profits without the colonies. As Mr. Hobson (in his book "Imperialism") says, "The chief economic source of Imperialism has been found in the inequalities of industrial opportunities by which a favoured class accumulates superfluous elements of income which, in their search for profitable investments, press ever further afield ; the influence on state policy of these investors and their financial managers secures a national alliance of other vested interests which are threatened by movements of social reforms; the adoption of Imperialism thus secures the double purpose of securing private material benefits for forward classes of interests and traders at pablic cost, while sustaining the general cause of conservatism, bs
diverting public energy and interests from domestic agitation to internal employment."

The second reason for maintaining the colony is that its raw materials are essential to the Imperialist nations in the production of armaments. Thirdly, the bases of these colonies in Asia and Africa are of great importance to the Western powers to fight communism.

Thus, though the Western powers are proclaiming that they are engaged in uplifting the backward colonial peoples, their real motives are not far to seek and these will become clear if we examine the conditions of the following countries:

## The East Indies

After the war was over, the Dutch, contrary to popular expectations, did not grant independence to the Indonesian people. They tried, in the name of "police action", to continue their colonial rule and and exploitation. For, Indonesia has always been a major reservoir of important raw materials. How important it is as a source of raw materials will be evident from the fact that in 1939 it produced more than a third of the worla's naturai rubber, moore than a sixth of its tin, about a fourth of its palm oil and cocoanut products, and large quantities of petroleum, tea, cinchona bark, sisal, kapok, pepper, bauxite, sugar and coffee. Indeed, Holland built its wealth and power on the East Indies to a great extent. It is estimated that the total capital investment in Indonesia before World War II was some four billion guilders (roughly one billion U.S. dollars) about 70 per cent of which was held by the Dutch interests. The investment paid handsome returns which constituted sixteen per cent of the Dutch national income. This explains why Hollánd was eager to maintain her control in Indonesia and in her efforts to do so she was helped by America who now returned, in, the eyes of the Asian people, as one of the protectors and preservers of the colonial system. "American tanks and planes enabled the Dutch forces to carry out their infamous 'police action' and when the United Nations intervened in the dispute, American sympathy for the Indonesian cause was too lukewarm and equivocal to impress Asia in anything more than a pious protestation of an intention already discarded in practice." Thus, through fire and water, the people of Indonesia gained their independence on December 27, 1949 ; but she is not yet completely free from Dutch influence. A part of the East Indies is still under Dutch occupation and the Dutch government is still trying in some way or other to maintain their influence in Indonesia which evoked contempt from the people of Indonesia. This was expressed in an unmistakable manner through mass demonstration and tearing of the flag of the Dutch embassy and it represents the true feeling of all the oppressed people of the world towards their oppressors.

## French and Portuguese Pociets in India

The French and the Portuguese governments, strangely enough, are trying their level best to retain their pockets in India. Seeing the result of the referendum in Chandernagar, the French Government have taken to the tactics of terrorising the pro-merger movement in Pondicherry and other French pockets in India and have created such a situation there that an impartial plebiscite cannot be held. The leader of the pro-merger movement was attacked and similar attacks are being made on other leaders also. Hundreds of persons wanting their destiny to be united with India's had to take refuge in Indian territories for fear of goondas.

Portugal, inspired by the "noble exampie" set by France, has also created a reign of terror in Goa and other places. Keeping portraits of Indian leaders is prohibited and in some cases these portraits have been burnt down by the police.

## Indo-China

Ironically enough, France, known as the motherland of liberty, equality and fraternity, is trying to restore the Bao Dai regime with the help of the American armaments against the wishes of the people of Indo-China. The French government have declared that they are fighting the revolution in Indo-China only because the Nationalist Party led by Ho Chi Minh is communist and that they will hand over the authority to the Annamite Government of Bao Dai. But it is a clear fact that Bao Dai is only an instrument in the hands of the imperialists and if he succeeds, the people of Indo-China will be for years subjected to imperialist exploitation. The motive of French imperialists will be clear from the provisions of the Elysée agreement between Bao Dai and M. Vincent Auriol, the French President, on March 8, 1949 when Bao Dai was staying in France, while the Vietnamese were fighting to drive out the foreign exploiters from their motherland. According to this agreement, Viet Nam is to become an "associated state" which is, in reality, nothing more than a colony under the French Union. Hence in 1950, the Republican Radio of Viet Nam rightly condemned the Elysee agreement as a treaty of treason and demanded a total French evacuation of Indo-China. But the French cannot retreat because of political and economic interests. Indo-China, being situated in the south of China, is essential to the Western powers to stem the advancing tide of communism, and that is why America is so much interested in preserving French domination there. Apart from this political aspect, the economic importance of Indo-China to the French is in $n 0$ way insignificant. 'Indo-China was the third most important exporter of rice in the world. A substantial quantity of rubber and maize was also exported from here. Its wealth lay not only in agriculture but also in minerals and timbers ; it had anthtacite coal (most of which is exported),
as well as iron ore, tin, zinc, phosphates and tungsten." For centuries France has dominated trade and industry in Indo-China and earned fabulous profits. As in many other colonial countries, there was over-emphasis on the production of raw materials and foodstuffs for export. Industry was not developed and the French treated Indo-China pre-cminently as a source of raw materials for France and a market for French mannfacturers. On the other hand the Indo-Chinese peasant lived in abject poverty, barely able to feed himself. He suffered under a grinding burden of debt at he had to pay as much as one-fifth of his meagre annual income to the government in order to keep the huge administrative machinery of the French moving. Yet the Indo-Chinese contribution to French prosperity is not small. During World War I, France got from Indo-China half the loans and gifts made by its colonies and a substantial amount of war materials. More than forty-three thousand Indo-Chinese soldiers and about fifty-nine thousand workers had been sent to Europe. After the war, the French looked to Indo-China to earn some of the dollars they needed so badly, since it was one of the few colonies in their empire which exported more than it imported. The great rubber plantations in the South and the mines in the North were in French hands. The Indo-Chinese economy was dominated by French banks. In 1938 investments from abroad amounted to $\$ 384,000,000$ of which more than ninety-five per cent was held by Frenchmen. So "Indo-China in 1945 appeared a valuable rescrvoir for France which was rich neither in men nor in materials. Possession of Indo-China, again, meant a foothold in Asia-a 'balcony to the Pacific', as Frenchmen were fond of saying-important not only militarily, but also for less tangible reasons of influence and prestige in Far-Eastern and World affairs." For these reasons the French, in the name of securing peace, are trying to maintain their control there and exploit the people of IndoChina.

## Malaya

Britain is playing the same rôle in Malaya. In the name of exterminating Communist bandits who have the support of the majority of the Malayan people, she is in truth fighting a total wat against the people of Malaya from the middle of 1948 and thus trying to 'save' South-East Asia from communism. How untenable the British stand is, and how far they are sympathetic to the people of Malaya will be clear from the fact that when the Japanese Army completed their occupation in Malaya in the year 1941, the British Army withdrew, leaving the people of Malaya at the mercy of the Japanese. During those dark days the freedom-loving people of Malaya gave a creditable account of themselves in fighting the Japanese. They formed "the Malaya People's Anti-Japanese Army" and put up a strong guerilla fight against the Japanese. In successful landing of the Allies and in their ultimate victory of Malaya, the Malayan people
themselves played a great part. But yet, after the war was over, the British did not give independence to this heroic nation. Britain is now telling the world that the majority of the people of Malaya want British rule. But in fact, she is trying to maintain her control over Malaya for her own economic and political interests and not for uplifting the backward people of Malaya. This truth comes out from the words of Mr. Woodrow Wyatt, Under-Secretary for War in 1951 under the Labour Government in Britain. Mr. Wyatt observes that Malaya's dollar earnings are in the neighbourhood of 250 millions a year-the highest of any country in the sterling area. Without those dollars, Britain's dollar gap cannot be bridged. Malaya is the single greatest producer of tin and rubber in the world. Hence, without Malaya the sterling area would be in a difficult position financially. Once Britain's control over Malaya's rubber and tin export is gone, her important position in the world market will fade out. Besides this, the base of Malaya is essential to the Anglo-American bloc to fight communism in Asia. These are the considerations which work behind Britain's maintaining the colony in Malaya.


#### Abstract

Africa The picture in Africa is essentially the same, though the colour question is more acute there. The whites, under the plea of bringing light to the people of the Dark Continent, came there in thousands to explore rich mines and established colonies there, making the black people practically their slaves.

The Union of South Africa, though known to the world as a democratic country, is in fact a government of the whites over the coloured people who constitute nearly 83.3 per cent of the total population. The constitution of South Africa provides no facility to the coloured people for representing them adequately in the legislature. Out of 153 members constituting the House of Assembly in the Union of South Africa, 150 are elected by the white people, while only 3 seats are allotted to the Africans. So the white exploitation is going on in full swing and the condition of the Africans and Indians is going from bad to worse. Besides, the Nationalist Party, at present in power in the Union of South Africa, has been preaching the doctrine of "Apartheid", literaily meaning a state of separation with a view to justifying its racial policies. In order to secure and further strengthen the position of the whites, the South African Government have enacted various laws of which the "Asiatic Land Tenure and Indian Representation Act" depriving the Indians of the right to buy land in white areas, and the 'Group Areas Act'" are the most obnoxious. The latter Act provides for the division and control of all land in the Union for ownership and occupation by the three racial groups-whites, natives and the coloured-in which the entire population of 12 million (of which non-whites number 10 million) is divided. According to this Act,


the government by proclamation can establish group areas for exclusive occupation of both or any of the groups. Various other social disabilities also stand in the way of the coloured people to lead an honourable life. In the policy of perpetuating white supremacy, the Malan Government has found ally in the white imperialists who always speak of equality and justice. In the United Nations, Britain has already joined her voice in defending the Malan Government while America, lest she should lose the friendship of the Asian countries which she badly requires in fighting communism, has mostly abstained, thus in a way, revealing her real attitude towards the coloured peoples of Asia and Africa. All over-Africa, the story is much the same. Everywhere the whites get a lion's share of the social, political and economic benefits. There are still colonies of France, Britain, Portugal, Spain and Belgium attended with the common feature of white exploitation. The French Government have declared in unambiguous terms its determination not to give the right of self-determination to the people of Tunisia. In Morocco also, according to the provisions of French Protectorate treaty of 1912, signed under much unequal strength of the parties concerned, the French are trying to maintain their control. How far this treaty is applicable to Morocco now is not at all taken into consideration. As Suftan Sidi Mohamed Yusuf of Morocco said, "If you compare the 1912 treaty to a suit of clothes made for a child, you will see that the child has grown up, that its body has developed while there has been no change in the clothes." But France is bent upon maintaining her colonies. This obstinate attitude of France has evoked strong contempt from all right-thinking people of the world. But France and her fellow-travellers do not seem to care much for world opinion, and France has threatened to walk out of the U. N. Assembly when the Tunisian question will be discussed.

## British Rule in Africa

Britain also is carrying out the same policy. In Central Africa, the Tory Government have been pressing forward with the federation scheme, "although it is abundantly clear that the great bulk of African opinion is bitterly against it." The wishes of rather less than 1.8 million Europeans are to prevail over those of 6 million Africans.

In Kenya too, the same policy of furthering the interests of the whites is being pursued. The British are trying to misrepresent the happenings in Kenya, necessitating a declaration of emergency and bringing of troops from the Middle East to Nairobi ; in truth they are due to economic exploitation by the whites and consequent poverty of the Africans. In Kenya, half of the inhabited land is owned by thirty thousand whites, while the other half is owned by five million Africans and ninety thousand Indians. Again the best lands are in possession of the whites and the area owned by the Europeans is expanding at the cost of the African and
the Indian. Two Labour M.P.'s, Mr. Brockway and Mr. Hale, after visiting Kenya, have referred to the excesses done by the Government there and have pointed out that if the existing process of pauperizing the Africans continues, there will come a time when every African in Africa will begin to hate all Europeans. In a recent speech in Parliament Mr. Hale compared the industrial wages paid in Kenya to Europeans and Africans and showed the disparity between the two ; there were 28,440 Africans in private industry receiving under $£ 24$ per year (Rs. 26 per month), and 34,000 more being paid between $£ 24$ and $£ 36$. In the Public Services there were 17,700 Africans earning under $£ 24$ a year and 31,000 more under $£ 36$. Besides this economic poverty, socially also the coloured people are subjected to hateful treatment by the Europeans. So it is not at all difficult to trace the origin of the present unrest in Kenya and other western colonies in Africa.

## Victorious March of the Colonial People

We have seen that everywhere the Western imperialists are engaged in exploiting the backward peoples of Asia and Africa and in some cases waging predatory war against the people for strengthening their economic and political position in the world. But the tyranny of the imperialists is not an unmixed evil; it has aroused the patriotism of the oppressed peoples who were submissive so long and the more the imperialists are trying to crush, the greater the momentum the oppressed peoples' movement acquires. The patriots of Malaya and Indo-China have shown in no uncertain manner their indomitable spirit and courage in fighting the British and the French forces, well-equipped with American armaments. Through this hard struggle the Indo-Chinese people have been able to establish and maintain a sovereign republic in the face of French opposition. In 1950 Ho Chi Minh told the people of Indo-China: "A few years of resistance have brought our country the greatest success in the history of Viet Nam-recognition of the Democratic Republic of Viet Nam as an equal in the world democratic family by the two biggest countries in the world-the Soviet Union and Democratic China-and by the new democratic countries. That means that we are definitely on the democratic side and belong to the anti-imperialistic bloc of 800 million people.' In Malaya also, General Templer's method of mass scale arrest and brutality, reminiscent of the Dark Ages, in dealing with large numbers of villages, has failed to crush the popular movement.

The fight against imperialism is also extended to the dark continent. The riots in Port Elizabeth and other places and the violent way in which the Malan Government is trying to resist the passive resistance movement -all these clearly indicate what shape ultimately the non-violent resistance will take. Prayer and peaceful movement will only fall on the deaf ears of the die-hard imperialists. In response to the demand of Mr. Kenyatta,

President of the Kenya African Union, for more land, better social service and abandonment of racial discrimination, he has been put into prison and thousands of Africans are being rounded up and inhumanly tortured everyday in the name of suppressing terrorism. The "Mau Mau"' Society, though described by the British as only a terrorist gang, represents the bitter feelings of all Africans towards their white oppressors. Thus, everywhere the fight against imperialism is in full tide which the imperialists are trying their best to stem with brute force. But as Lincoln pointed out, "It is possible to fool some people for all time and all people for some time, but it is not possible to fool all the people for all time." So the death-knell of imperialism will ring in no distant future and as recent happenings indicate, the freedom-loving peoples of the world are well on their way to achieve their freedom, however difficult and hazardous the path seems to be at the present moment.

# An Apology for Statistics 

Radha Govinda Laha, M.Sc.*<br>Technician, Division of Theoretical Research, Indian Statistical Institute, Calcutta.

In J. A. S. A. (1951) appears this remark of H. G. Wells, the prophet of the modern scientific age: "Statistical thinking will one day become as necessary for efficient citizenship as the ability to read and write". Only a few years back, however, the majority of people, as it appeared from their attitude towards Statistics, were little appreciative of its utility as a scientific method. It has been already pointed, out by Prof. P. C. Mahalanobis in his presidential address at the 37 th Session of the Indian Science Congress, January 1950-"Evidently, statistics and astrology were bracketted together in the mind of many of our scientists. The forecasting of future events is, of course, a common feature; and the basis was felt to be equally unscientific." But that situation is now over, and the popular as well as the scientific opinion about statistics has thoroughly changed. It is at present admitted as an indispensable scientific method by workers in the various fields of agriculture, anthropology, biology, genetics, economics, sociology, psychology and even engineering and medicine. From day to day new statistical methods are being devised for application

[^16]in unexplored fields and the statistical techniques, which to-day appear to be the best, are being replaced by something better to-morrow. As a consequence, more and more complicated problems both in theory and practice are emerging in various fields.

Among no fewer than a hundred definitions of statistics it would be difficult to choose the most comprehensive. But the following may do: "Statistics is that branch of scientific method which deals with the data obtained by measuring or counting the properties of populations, particularly of natural phenomena." Here the term "populations" is not confined to human population only, but is generally used to denote any group or aggregate of subjects whether animate or inanimate. Even physical observations, such as the simple measurement of the length of a scale, when repeated indefinitely, may form an aggregate which may be called a population of measurements. Statistics is mainly concerned with the study of groups and not of individuals. For example, in studying a population of statures the statistician is not in the least interested in knowing whether the height of a particular individual exceeds six feet but rather, how many have heights above six feet.

The definition of statistics as a scientific method for studying the properties of populations automatically leads to the conclusion that it is also the study of variations. Variations are found to form the intrinsic features of all kinds of measurement and statistical investigation largely centres around variation. We can never think of any science without measurement, nor any measurement without its characteristic variation. This would fairly justify the claim that statistics is indispensable in every science.

The main purpose of the theory of statistical inference is to draw some sensible conclusions from a particular set of measurements about other similar sets after paying due attention to its characteristic variation. In the vast majority of cases, the particular set of measurements or observations at our disposal is interpreted as a sample drawn from a hypothetical finite or infinite population which is supposed to be composed of all possible sets of such similar measurements. Expressed in a more hucid manner, the principal object of a statistician is to extract as much relerant information as possible about the parent population from the given sample. It is generally supposed that the population which is the main subject o: our investigation can be specified by a mathematical formula involving a certain number of constants or parameters. The population and its parameters are so intimately related that knowing the exact values of the parameters is equivalent to knowing all about the population. But the task of determining the exact values of the parameters is well-nigh impossible, and the best we can do is to find out estimates of their true values. Thee estimates are usually calculated from the sample observations. The primary task of a statistician is to select a particular mathematical forn
of the parent population (which is called the problem of specification) and next, to compute from the sample the best possible estimates of the parameters characterising the populations (which is called the problem of estimation).

A point deserving special mention in this connection is that in order to isolate the maximum possible relevant information about the population, it is absolutely essential that the samples given should be representative of the population. This is the reason why we lay special stress on the phrase "the sample should be strictly random." Here the term 'random' has a technical significance quite apart from its colloquial use. A sample is said to be random when each individual of the population has the same chance or probability of being included in the sample. It is important to note here that the main advantages of random sampling are two-fold-firstly, with the help of the salculus of probability we can make valid conclusive statements about the parent population and secondly, we can calculate directly the magnitude and nature of the sampling errors to which the estimates, as discussed above, are subject.

Now it may be desirable, in passing, to let the reader have some idea about the calculus of probability for understanding, roughly, the theory of random sampling. The tossing of a coin provides a very simple example for illustrating the concept of probability. Assuming the coin to be unbiassed (that is, free from any bias of turning up either head or tail), the probability that it will turn up head at any throw is $\frac{1}{2}$, meaning thereby, that if the tossing of the coin is repeated infinitely then the ratio of the number of times it turns up head to the total number of throwings approaches the quantity $\frac{1}{2}$ in the long run." In other words, if the coin is thrown a large number of times, heads and tails will turn up approximately in equal numbers.

The nature of the statistical inference, generally arrived at, is quite interesting. It should be emphasised that all our prediction about the characteristic properties of the population is based on only one random sample and it is quite likely then that there may be practically an infinite number of such random samples. Thus conclusions about the population based on a random sample are bound to be uncertain. But it may be claimed that although statistical prediction is never absolutely certain, it is possible to estimate the limits of uncertainty. For example, let us suppose that we have a number of height measurements of individuals at our disposal, from which we have to predict the average height in the population from which the above data are considered to be "random samples'. We may now calculate two quantities-say, $a$ and $b$-from the sample observations and then make some statement like this: "The probability that the average height in the population lies between the two limits $a$ and $b$ is 0.99 ." The above statement appears to be paradoxical,
since the average height in the population is a constant, not subject to any variations or fluctuations and hence, only one of the two alternatives must take place, that is, either it will lie between the limits $a$ and $b$ or outside the above limits; hence, the above probability is either zero or unity. But the exact meaning of the above technical language may be given as follows:-If we continue drawing repeated random samples, each having the same number of observations, for an indefinite number of times and then for each sample we calculate the two qualities $a$ and $b$ based on the sample observations and finally, make the statement that the true average height for the population lies between $a$ and $b$, then the proportion of our correct statements will be 0.99 in the long run, that is, we are likely to be wrong in our statements in 1 p.c. of the cases in the long run.

As an illustration of how statistical investigation has rendered invaluable service, we may quote an example from Prof. Mahalanobis' presidential address already referred to above:
"In 1926, a catastrophic flood occurred in the Brahmani river in Orissa. An expert committee of engineers appointed by the Government of India reached the conclusion that the bed of the river had risen by several feet and consequently the flood level was likely to be higher in future. The Committee naturally recommended raising the height of the embankments by several feet to give 'protection' against higher floods. At the request of the Government of Bihar and Orissa, I made a detailed statistical study. Using the statistical relationship, I found that the abnormal rise of the river in 1926 could be reasonably ascribed to exceptionally heavy rainfall in the catchment areas. On the basis of such statistical evidence, it was possible to advise Government that there was nothing wrong with the river and it was not necessary to increase the height of the embankment. This advice was given in 1930. The fact that no change has occurred in the severity or frequency of floods during the last 20 years shows that the statistical findings were correct. Direct experimentation in such cases is out of question; the statistical method supplies the only valid tool for scientific investigation. Incidentally, in this case it also saved several crores of rupees. Also, the statistical studies made at this time supplied the basic information for the Hirakud Dam, one of the river valley projects in India."

Numerous illustrations of the above kind may be cited where statistical techniques have been proved to be immensely successful and all other scientific methods have failed. Statistical methods have been tried and proved to yield extremely satisfactory results in the various branches of science wherever we have to predict the nature of the whole from only a part given to us.

In conclusion, it may not be out of place to draw attention to certain prevalent misunderstandings about statistics. Occassionally, it is remarked that statistics is good for nothing, since the forecasting on the basis of
statistical investigations often comes wrong. But statistics as a scientific method must not be blamed for what is mainly due to the inefficiency of the staff of the various departments. A point that will bear emphasis is that it is better to go without statistics than call for quack statisticians. What our country needs to-day is efficient statisticians with a sound theoretical background and fit to cope with the problems that may emerge in the different applied fields.

# Rastrapati Dr. Rajendra Prasad's Visit to Presidency College : December 24, 1952 

THE PRINCIPAL'S WELCOME ADDRESS

## Dr. Mookerjee, Members of the Presidency College: Past and Present, Ladtes and Gentlemen,

It is a unique occasion that calls us here together this memorable morning. An old boy of this College comes back in our midst as Rastrapati -President of the Republic of India, the country's first citizen and embodiment of its achievements, hopes and aspirations. For forty long and arduous years, as devoted lieutenant of Mahatma Gandhi, our Rastrapati has been in the forefront of the national struggle for freedom. Now that the goal has been achieved, after years of suffering and sacrifice, it is in the fitness of things that he has been elected to preside over the destinies of the young republic he has helped to bring to birth. One is indeed proud of belonging to a College that has contributed to the national struggle leaders of such calibre and eminence as Rastrapati Rajendra Prasad, Deshabandhu Chittaranjan Das and Netaji Subhaschandra Bose, not to mention the numerous alumni who have given their lives and labours to the national cause.

In the making of the new India of today Presidency College has played no mean part. Starting in 1817 as the Hindu College, it was the, first institution to bring western education to this country and thus paved the way for the great Indian Renaissance of the last century. In 1855, a year before the establishment of the Calcutta University, the Senior Department of the Hindu College was separated from the Junior and re-
named the Presidency College. In 1858 Presidency College sent out her first batch of graduates, among whom was the seer Bankimchandra Chatterji, who gave to our national movement its sacred mantram of Bande Mataram. Years rolled by, and Presidency College, like its predecessor the Hindu. College, went on contributing year after year men of first-rate distinction to the various walks of Indian life-the arts and the sciences, law, politics and administration, education and social service. In 1902, a young man from the Chapra Zilla School, who had occupied the first place in the Entrance Examination of the Calcutta University of that year, came and joined this College as both student and boarder. For five years he studied at this College with such eminent professors as H. M. Percival, Dr. P. K. Ray, Harinath De, Manmohan Ghose, Benoyendranath Sen and others. He came out at the top again at the F. A. Examination and graduated with double Honours (in History and in English Literature) and the Eshan Scholarship for being the first graduate of his year. That young man was Rajendra Prasad, the future President of the Republic of India.

Since those days the College has expanded in many directions till we have arrived at a position where the two buildings of the College together, the main one put up in 1874 and the Baker 'Laboratory put up in 1913, are unable to meet all its needs (even with structural additions to the Baker Laboratory last year). The problem of accommodation is the great problem before us at the moment. The problem is at its acutest perhaps in the science departments of the College. Science is an ever-growing subject, and our science departments have been developing at a pace that has outrun all available accommodation. It may just as well be mentioned in this connection that, besides normal teaching and research work, our science departments have also to take up various schemes of scientific research sponsored either by the State Government or by various bodies under the Central Government. Actually, at the moment, a number of such schemes, both State and Centra1, are being worked out in the different departments of the College. All that requires space, which is not simply there. I am afraid, if the problem of acconmodation is not immediately tackled, science teaching and research in this College will come to a dead end. Which will be a great pity, for this College has a great tradition in matters of science; it was in its laboratories that the foundations of modern scientific research in India were laid by Acharya Jagadishchandra Bose and Acharya Prafullachandra Ray.

In point of fact, this problem of accommodation has been pressing the College in all its departments. We are short of lecture and seminar rooms. Our libraries, our laboratories, our offices, our Common Rooms, are all badly cramped for space. New strbjects have been taken on, departments have multiplied, teaching and office staff has increased, so has the number of students on the rolls (and within the last seven years the College has
thrown open its doors to girl students as well). Yet accommodation has remained what it was since 1913.

This is really an impossible situation for the College. What is needed is another comprehensive plan for an all-round expansion like the one that was drawn up and officially approved in 1007 (many patts of which, unfortunately, still remain unrealised). For some time past we lave beetl engaged on a plan like this, which provides for a much-nceitel Aswmbly Hall, additional lecture and seminar rooms, and extension of accommodation for all departments of the College. A special point is being made in the plan of providing adequate accommodation for rescarch work in both Science and Arts. On the Arts side we have specially in contemplation, in view of the increasing importance of the subject, a School of Economics with its own set of rooms. This College has recently been deelared a constituent college under the latest University Act, which mems in practical terms that the possibility of revival of post-graduate classes, taken over by the University in 1917, is in the offing. That makes such a plan as I have been speaking of all the more necessary.

Our plan is nearly ready ; actual execution depends almost entircly on governmental sympathy and help, which, we most earnestly hope, will be forthcoming in due measure. Presidency College, I make bold to claim, is much more than a local college. She is a national institution. She has played a great part in the making of the new India of today. Given the right amount of sympathy, encouragement and State support, she has a great part to play yet in the making of the new India to be.

Ladies and Gentlemen, I am deeply thankful to you and to our Rajyapal, Dr. H. C. Mookerjee, yet another of our old boys, for having come and joined us here in today's memorable function. On behalf of you all, on behalf of the Presidency College, its staff and its students, and on behalf of the Presidency College Alumni Association, I offer our most respectful welcome and homage to our honoured visitor of today, Rastrapati Rajendra Prasad. The Rastrapati, as you know, has just completed his sixty-eighth year. I am sure you would all join me in wishing him a long life and health, happiness and prosperity. May he be spared for us for many years yet! The country needs him, his inspiring leadership, his sage counsel and guidance, in the diffcult journey that lies ahead. May the new India that he has helped to build up find her way to the great destiny he has visualised for her for forty long years.! And may this College of his and ours attain to greater glory in the future and continue as ever to attract to her countless generations of students, the flower of the intellect of West Bengal, who would enter her portals proud of the knowledge that it was the College that had produced Rajendra Prasad!

## Acknowledgment

We acknowledge with thanks the receipt of the following:-
The St. Xavier's College Magazine, Calcutta.
The Scottish Church College Magazine, Calcutta.
The St. Paul's College Magazine, Calcutta.
The Vidyasagar College Magazine, Calcutta.
Jadavpur Eingineering College Magazine (Silver Jubilee Number).
The University Law College Magazine, Calcutta.
The Hooghly College Magazine.
The Darjeeling Government College Magazine.
The Presidencian (The Madras Presidency College Magazine).
Malabar Christian College Magazine.
The Batanagar Recreation Club Magazine.

## EDITORS AND SECRETARIES

## PRESIDENCY COLLEGE MAGAZINE

## Editors :

1914-15 Pramatha Nath Banerjee, B.A.
1915-16 Mohit Kumar Sen Gupta, B.A.
1916-17 Mohit Kumar Sen Gupta, B.A.
1917-18 Saroj Kumar Das, B.A.
1918-19 Amiya Kumar Sen, B.A.
1919-20 Mahmood Hassan, B.A.
1920-21 Phiroze E. Dastoor, B.A.
$1921-22$ Syama Prasad Moorerjee, B.A.
1921-22 Brajakanta Guha, B.A.
1922-23 Uma Prasad Mookerjee
1923-24 Subodh Chandra Sen Gupta
1924-25 Subodh Chandra Sen Gupta, B.A.
1925-26 Asit Krishna Mukiferjee, B.A.
1926-27 Humayun Z. A. Kabir, B.A.
1927-28 Hirendra Nath Mukherjee, B.A.
1928-29 Sunit Kumar Indra, B.A.
1929-30 Taraknath Sen, B.A.
1930-31 Bhabatosir Datta, B.A.
1931-32. Ajit Nath Roy, B.A.
1932-93 Sachindra Kumar Majumdar, B.A.
1939-34 Nikhilnath Chakravarty, B.A.
1934-35 Ardhendu Baksi, B.A.
1935-36 Kalidas Lahiri, B.A.
1936-37 Asok Mitra, B.A.
1937-98 Bimal Chandra Sinifa, B.A.
1938-39 Pratap Chandra Sen, B.A.
1938-39 Nirmal Chandra Sen Gupta, B.A.
$1939-40$ A. Q. M. Mahiuddn, B.A.
1940-41 Manilal Banerjee, B.A.
1941-42 Arun Banerjee, B.A.
1942-46 No publication due to Govt. Circular Re. Paper Economy
1947-48 Sudhindranath Gurta, B.A.
194.8-49 Subirkumar Sen, B.A.

1949-50 Dilipgumar Kar, B.A.
1950-51 Kamalkumar Gmatak, B.A.
1951-52 Sipra Sarkar, B.A.
1952-53 Arun Kumar Das Gupta, B.A.

## Secretaries :

| 1914-15 | Jogesh Chandra Chakravarti, B.A. |
| :---: | :---: |
| 1915-16 | Prafulla Kumar Sircar, B.A. |
| 1916-17 | Prafulla Kumar Sircar, B.A. |
| 1917-18 | Rama Prasad Mukmopadhyay, B.A. |
| 1918-19 | Mahmood Hassan, B.a. |
| 1919-20 | Paran Chandra Gangooli, B.A. |
| 1920-21 | Shyama Prasad Mookerjee |
| 1921-22 | Bimal Kumar Bhattacharyya |
| 1921-22 | Uma Prasad Mookerjee |
| 1922-23 | Agshay Kumar Sircar |
| 1923-24 | Bimala Prasad Mukherjee |
| 1924-25 | Bijoy Lal Lahiri |
| 1926-27 | Lokes Chandra Guha Roy |
| 1927-28 | Sunit Kumar Indra |
| 1928-29 | Syed Mahbub Murshed |
| 1929-30 | Ajit Nath Roy |
| 1930-31 | Ajit Nath Roy |
| 1931-32 | Nirmal Kumar Bhattacharjee |
| 1932-33 | Nirmal Kumar Bhattacharjee. |
| 1939-34 | Grrindra Nath Chakravarti |
| 1934-35 | Sudhir Kumar Ghosh |
| 1935-36 | Provat Kumar Sircar |
| 1936-97 | Arun Kumar Chandra |
| 1937-38 | Ram Chandra Mukherjee |
| 1938-99 | Abu Sayeed Chowdhury |
| 1939-40. | Bimal Chandra Datta, B.A. |
| $1940-41$ | Prabhat Prasun Modak, B.A. |
| 1941-42 | Golam Karim |
| 1942-46 | No publication due to Govt. Circular Re. Paper Economy |
| 1946-47 | Jibanlal Dev |
| *1947-48 | Nirmal Kumar Sarkar |
| 1948-49 | Bangendu Gangopadhyay |
| 1949-50 | Sourindramohan Chakravarty |
| -1950-51 | Manas Mukutmani |
| 1951-52 | Kalyan Kumar Das Gupta |
| 1952-53 | Jyotirmoy Pal Chaudhuri |


| জূচীপত্র <br> বিষ্য |  |  | পৃষ্ত |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| কনেজ－ | $\cdots$ | $\cdots$ | 2 |
|  | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | $\square$ |
| সাশ্প্রুিক বাংলা কবিতার গতি | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | a |
| ¢ヶথリ（ ¢বিতা） | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | jb |
| ব্রী শ্রেবের বিককল（ কবিতা） | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | 52 |
| স্ত্খ সন্ধান（ কবিতা） | ．．． | $\ldots$ | २。 |
|  | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | २： |
| অারুরিকা অাবিষ্巾র（ অনুব！দ গল্প） | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | 2w |
| জ্যোতির্ভিক্ষু（ কবিত্） | $\ldots$ | ．．． | งマ |
| দিননর় কবিত্খ（ কবিত্｜） | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | 00 |
| ঊত্তর－স্বাক্ষর（ কবিত্） | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | 08 |
| সমাজ্রিজ্ঞানের গোড়ার কথ্র | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | 08 |
| ऐতিহাস－বিজ্ঞান | $\cdots$ | $\ldots$ | 8） |
| বাঁীীর স্থর | $\ldots$ | ．．． | 86 |
| অামাচরর কথ৷ | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | 80 |
| Editorial | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | 1 |
| The book of Psalms－an appreciation | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | 7 |
| Stalin＇s last thesis | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | 9 |
| Democracy and freedom of thought | ．．． | $\ldots$ | 13 |
| In defence of P．G．Wodehouse | $\cdots$ | $\ldots$ | 17 |
| Materialistic Interpretation of History | ．．． | ．．． | 21 |
| Periodisation in Indian History | $\ldots$ | ．．． | 26 |
| Sports and Presidency College | ．．． | ．．． | 31 |
| Alumni Association | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | 34 |

# এই সংখ্যান অম্পাদ্ননो সভা 

অধ্যাপক ख্রীস্তুীতককুমার ইন্ণ্র（ সভাপতি）
＂ख্खীদবীপদ ভট্টাচার্য্য
＂ख্㐅ীঅমল ভট্টাচার্য্য
＂खীজীররন গৰ্্গাপাধ্যায়
ख⿴囗ৰ অশীন দাশগুগু（ সম্পাদক）
শ্র্যোতির্ময় পালচৌধুরী（ কর্সস্সচি）




## 




## কলেজপ্রজঙ্গ

প্রিকার কথ্র






































## কঢলজে পরিবর্তন












অন্যাব্য বিভগেও বেশ কিছু পরিিবর্জন এনেচছ। ইংরাজীয় স্থटোগ্য অধ্যাপক

 দর্শনবিভাগের ख্র্রেনিশিলচন্দ সেন, অবসর গ্রহণ করেছেন। এই বিভাগের অধ্যাপককর পদ


 কてরেছন।












## 小ীর্কার ফলাকল














## শোক সংবাদ







 হারিয়েছে।

 নগরীর बেয়র থাকাকালীনই তিনি ইহর্লাক পর্রিছ্যাগ কটটরন। শ্खীইয়ালাল







# वাংলা কথাসাহিতে্য দুধ্টি দ্দিক 

s্রুব গু প্ণী—চতুর্थ বর্ষ जার্ট, স্







 সাছিত্য স্র্ষ্টি আজ অসন্তব।





 निজম্ব থেয়ালখুশীর যণেচ্ছ চরিতার্থতা। এমনি করে যারা সাহিত্যকক ক্ষণে ক্ণণ ‘ডিনার















 ভান জানनন)।





 জীবনে। কেন? তার মন্নর সক্গে, মতের সচ্পে 小েলেনি াঁঁর স্বামীর মন ও মত এতে ম্বভাবতই প্রiশ্ন জাগে মলী সেনের মনটি ব৷ মতটি কি রকনের। মত ঃ—ভারতববে

 খবর অমাদের অজ্ঞাত।

 লেথক। বিচ্ছিন্রাবে বিচার করতত গেলে ছুত্রেকটি কাহিনী বা এসিসোড মন্দ লাঢেন্া
 জানিদে।

এই মলী সেন অার ঢার পারিপাাশ্বিক তথাকথিত অভিজাত সমাঢজর প্র্রতি লেখকের



 আরৌপ কর্রবারঁ;কাজে লেখকের অাপ্রাপ চেষ্ট আরও হাশ্যকর হয়ে উঠেচছ। ভারসাশ্য





## বাংলা কথাসাহিত্যে ছুট্টিক

জাপাত大 Cেयক স সর্থ

 নায়িকার পて্ক নেখটকর ওকালতি নিশ্স (হোন।

 ‘‘িনারা-G‘বিল’ যার মथামোগ্য অাসন।
























b

## প্রেসিডেন্সি কনল্লজ পত্রিকা




 ক্কতিকর এব: ছুথ্থজনক হবে।





 সধ্ব্যে বেমন করে পাই উনবিংশ শতাষীর সর্ববিবিধ কুসংম্কারমুক্ত নবজ্গগ্রিত মানবিক





 যখন কলকাতাবে প্লাবিত করে তুলেছিনৌ, তথন ‘পরিচয়’ পত্রিকায় গোপালবাবুই জানান,



 ‘क্কসিক্’ বিশশষণে অভিহিত করে স্রবিবেচনার পরির্য় 斤িঢ়েচেন বনেই মতেন হয়।
 চালব!জিন সর্ব্রগ্রাসী কবল হততে অাপনারক রক্ষ। করবার শক্তি বাংলা সাহিত্যোর প্র|けবন্ত



## জাম্প্রিতিক নাংলা ক্কবতান গীত

## 

















 যুদ্বোত্তর সমাজ-জীবনের এই অবক়্য় চতুর্থ দশবকর বাংলা কবিতার ওপর তার করাল ছায়া

 কदিতায় ছিল শুধু অবিশ্বসস, অবসাদ, অাঅ্মবিলাপ আর অস্থুস্থ নেতিবাদ। बই ধৃসর বিবন জীবনের রিক্ততার কথ্য মঢন করে সেনিদনর কবি লিত্থেছিরেন :
‘অামার কথ্যা কি শুনতত পাও নী তুমি,
কেন মুথ গুঁঢে অাছছা তবে মিছে ছনে?
কোথায়লুকাবে? ধূ ধূ করে মরুভূমি,
কয়ে কর্যে ছায়া মরে গেছে পদতর়ল।'
( উটপাথী: স্বৃবীক্রনাথ দত্ত)

প্রেসিডেন্সি কনেজ পত্রিক্র
‘ইত্ত্তভঃ মনের্র অলিগলিতে
बगমাপু সাষন।।
অঅাণের র্ोাত্রে জ্রে
斤िিिজমী কামন।।
বেড়ায় ব্ষর। বাগানন অাজ




‘এই बে খুনে সভাঅ




'অামি যিি ওই ঢেউট়্ের মতই


সারাদিন-সার্রারাত-





 mysticism-এর আাভাস পাওম্মা মায়:
‘‘্বপ্ন দেখি
ধবধবে জ্যোংস্নারাতে সাছা ছই বলিষ্ঠ বলদ
চাষ করে শূন্ঠ মাঠ।
কে বেন হঠাং এসে বলে,—




কে চালাচচ্চে?
হুদের বুক থ্থেক উড়ে অােে এক লাল পরি
পাখা ঢমরে ট্রাকটঢে বসে--' ( উড়ে। চিঠির বাঁক)







 বাসি হত়ে ধ্রৌে হয়ে উড়ে
ক্কান্ত করে দিয়ে যায় বেখানে স্ৰর্র্যের গান, কোমার
আমার লেই ঢছাট চিঢল ঘরে।' ( সময় বরিয়ী পঢড়ে)
অথব। চিঅ মোভের :

6কান এক সন্ধ্যাটেলা পুকুরের ছায়াতীবর এখটন কি এক হয়
আমাদের মন?
 নীল জল, পুকৃবেরের ঢালু পার, রেলল লাইন, তুমি অর জনচর

ডাহ্বকর ডাক।' ( $দ$ 刘)



 विিমহরে কিহ্রে পেলাম না—এমনি আশাভংণের করুণ স্থর নরেশ গুহর কবিতায়:

 ( অর্জীববননর মধ্যবেলায়)


 তার চোてে ：
 তবু পাতায় কিি ঘাসেই ঘোর বাঁধা এ সবুজ，
তবু সকালববেলার ধানীরঙের মন－কেমন，
তবু থাক্ ঘরে ঘরের বউ，মরদ জজায়ান！（ তবু）
জগনাথ চক্রবর্তীও সমাজ্চেতনায় সগগলাচরণের সমগোতীয়।

আজে｜সেই ভাঙ বেড়｜，শূন্ঠ ক্ষেত，ছিন্ন চাল

 বিমলচক্দ ঘোবের থ্যাতি স্থপ্রতিষ্ঠিত। কাব্যজীবনের অগিঢে তিনিও ছিলেন রোমাি্টিক ববি：


＇সহ্ম কাজজর ফাকে স্মরণের নিডৃত মুকুরে
বার্র বার কাঁপে সেই মুখ，
দেব্দদত্য বিজয়িনী সেই তন্বীতন্মর ঋজুত，
ছচি ঢোてে বিছ্যতের্র উজ্জল ভ্রমর
মরে পড়ে কুন্তলনাগিনী।＇（ তিলোত্তম।）
 অংগিকের অালংকারিক 斤িকগুল্রে বর্জন করে আজ তার কাব্যে সইজ ও মब巨 অ｜çn

‘ক্কুধাকে তোমরা বেঅইইনী করেছ
ক্ষুধিত্দর অা্যা দিয়েছ বিপজ্জনক！
উদ্বাস্তু নরনারীর অবাঙ্ভিত শোভাযাত্রা
जোমাদের নিশিন্ত শাসদনর ব্যাঘাত করে，
ছর্ভাগী লক্মীছাড়াদদর চিংকারে ঢোমরা বিব্রত বোধ করো

অাছ ক্ামাদদ কী ：জল
অাহা তোমাদদর কী কষ্ঠ！’（ ক্ষে ）
 বেদনার সকরুণত।।







 sentiments, a changing over from one social class to another'।



 मত্ত প্রজ্জ্জলিত:


রढক্ত आवে| লাল,



可折! —

आামার দৃষ্টিতত লাল প্রিিবিম্ব, মুক্তির পতাক।;
আমার বেগান্দ ছাত, অর্রারাস যন্ত্রের শ্রেব,





প্রাণপণণ পৃথিবীর সরাবে জন্টীল,
এ বিশ্বাক এ-শিশ্রু বাসটোগ্য ক'রে যাতো অামি-
নবজাত্ককর কাঢছ এ অামার দৃছ় অংগীকার।’ ( ছাড়পত্র)


 অাজ ক্রমবর্ধমান এবং বাংলা কবিছার এই দ্বিষাবিভক্ত ধারাকে কেদ্দ্র করে’ কাবা－উপাসককঝা

 সংগে পরিচিতির অপরিছার্ব পরিণতিতে বাংলা কাবাজগচতর ওপর রাজনীতির ছু্রান থ্ডাব

 ধারাহুক্রম অগামী য়ঢের কাব্যরস্সপপাস্রেের বিচার্য ।＊

## （下⿹勹巳）

शীরেন চক্রবর্তী—यষ্ঠ বর্ষ，অর্ট্র，স्
তীক্ন্র কঠিন তীত্র মদির নিক্ত মধুর চৈত্রে

মস্তে। ছপুরু একলাভাবার，গছন রাতে বৃব্টি ：
কী জ্থৌজে ক্ণ ছেনেটির চোথ，বিপুন ব্যথাপ্র পূন ；
कী মে মেশেনে চাওয়া ছিনো，—ভক্তদেরই לদন্য।
অবাশ্ের ৎেথায় তার｜পেণৌ মানসমিতে।
 কাছে অাসার প্রবল টাদন ভানলাবাসার ইচ্ছে স্বর্গে যাওয়ার আকাশ নিনো ；সমর－ভরা মূর্ছ হাওয়ায়－ছাওয়ায়，অক্রকারে，জলের্ন গানে কীণ।

অবশেষের ఢ斤 গায় ছুজন পৌলে মানরমিভে॥

## মর্ট্ট শেশের বিকেল

## স্রুণীল ঢঘাষ-यষ্ঠ বর্ধ, आর্রি,




পেষের ঘঢে বক্ক হনো থিল।

হলूদ ঋালো ঢোমার ঢচাてে, রমনগু রe অানো
মিতেনী অাছা, লুট্টিয়ে বুবি পড়়
(তামার কানো এন্লো চুলেন 'পৃর,




बाকা凶 ढकমन नोन!


ঢোমার গালে নরম ছাত বৃলিয়ে চনেে গেন্লে।


হুচদর জলে এথ্ন বিকেন হানে
গাচছর পাতা মননের রূে ছাও্য
భুসীতে অাকু হাও্য।
বढলানি ঢুমি, বনো না এবার বলে।
‘তামার মননর সোনার হরিণীটিরে
কেমনে যাী পাও্।।

## जুধ1-झন্ধান

শিশিরকুমার দাশ—৩: ব氐, जার্দি,




শ্াণিতে সিক্ত মসতাবিऐীন স্কর মাটি;











কে জাজ বহন করবেব নিবিড় বিবের্র জাল।








এ小ানে বিযের ভীষণ নিবিড় কি বে লে জালা
নিঃষ্যাসি’ বিষ-বিলাসী বাতাস মাহৃ মরে।

बাইळ＇রুককর জালা দিয়ে গঁঁথি জীবন－ম｜লা



এ丁 প্রাপ দিত়ে মন্থন যার এদিনও চালে
চা’কক পেতে চাই বিষ－কুক্চিত প্রাতের দ্বাটর।


পিযূষ－পিয়াসী পৃথিবীর প্রাণ－পর্ণ দলল।

## జ্ত＂

## 

জমা斤ার এスসেছে！




原河।








অই অনनক ই丁িছাস অাছছ এথানকার，বিণশষ কটর শিটলী গাছটুকুর।
জমাদার এসেদছ，কে বেন বলনে অাবার।
 পরস্পরের দিঢক।

 তাকিয়ে রইইলেন তিনি।

 নয়—তাই এই সতর্কত। ১িক কুড়োল নয়, কাটারিও নয়-অদুত ধরণের এক্টা ছি এন্ন গাছের গৌড়ায় কোপ দিচ্ছে জমাদার।
 ককানদিন, কি কাট। হচ্ছে অীছ। বিয়্রের পর ম্বামীর ঘর করতে এসে প্রথমেই যাদের সপ্পে
 আল্তা সেরে বৌ বরণ করেছিলেনন শ্বাশ্ড়ী। কথায় কথায় বলেছিলেন: বৌমা! তোমার
 ছাউনী অরর এ বাড়ির অাশ্রয়ও একই দিন পাচ্ছ। তুলোনা এ কথা।



 হয়, দৃষ্টি শক্তিও কদে এসেছে।
 পূজো কর়ছিলেন, গোলমাল শুনে বেরিয়ে এসেছেন।

কোনদিকক একটানা একটুযানি তাকানেই বুড়িরূ ঢোখ ঝাপসা হয়ে ওঠে। লালার
 রইলেন নীচের 斤িকে।


 অনতে। কিন্তু অ!মি রাজি হইই নি।

স্বামী ছিলেন বিলাসী। র্জমাদার বংণের ছছলে। গান ভালবাসতেন, কবিঅও
 কাছে ছিন তা ধর্ন্রে উপাদান। এমনকি এই বঢ়েসেও।























 ঘ!

অর সে ভয় রইন ন্।



 বিচ্মুদ্র সক্গে পারার ভো অাছছ?

जার নে সতর্কতার প্রেয়োজন थাকবে নী।












 সবই গীয়ে গায়ে।




 ব্যবহারই করা इয় ন্য।


 পরিবার তुদ্গু তুণ্গে মরব নাকি? 斤িন জサল সাফ্, কঢর।
 কেটে ঝেল।




 नীলাম্বর জানালেন : না। গাছট। ককটট ফেনাই ঠিক করলাম।






































 इ্ওয়！অবধি য斤ি．．．

সাম｜ল্ সামাল্। ঢেঁচিট্যে উঠল לফলু।
আ：সরে মা，সরে যা ন্য তোরা। বনল জিতে।
 করে ভভপ্পে পড়ল গাছটা।


 অপলক দৃষ্টিতে তাকিয়ে आাছেন নীচুর 所ढে！

## আমেরিকা আবিষ্কার

（ অনুবান গল্ত）
অরুণাভ দাশশুপ্ু—দ্বিতীয় বর্ষ，অর্টি，স্
 উল্লসিত কু্ঠ সার্ জাহাজ্টাটক बাঁকুনি দিল বেণে।

 চোটে লাগাてনন।



 ఆদদর অস্বাভাবিক ভ়ারী পোষাক বেগ দিল বড় কম নয়！







 এসবেরও निত্হুন উত্তর প্রায়াজন।'



 পারে। অভিজ্ঞঅ (ছাক, পটরে সব ববাঝা যাবে।'

‘ডলার! ডডনার কাटক বতলে?’ কলম্বাস রীতিমত বিশ্মিত হু।


'অাি আাম্মরিক; আবিম্কার করততত চাচ্ছি।'
 (ज্ञার দিল।
 किनि অাজন্ম অপরিরিতি।
 নিজ্রে কয়ন, ‘বিজ্ঞাপন বুঝাতত পারছেন ন।?’

一‘ন্-্য।'
‘তবুও অপনার আমের্রিকy অধিষ্কার করার বাসন!! অপপনার সর্भ কথা বাড়িয়ে ন্ণাら নেই, एলি। নেটিবটি ঘুরে দাঁড়াল।


 दिজাপন বাफে উন্নি অসন্তু।’’
 মন-মাতানে। আ আকাণশ স্র্য নীপ্তিময়, ‘সী-গাল’রা পোততর চারিদিকক ঘুরঘুর কর়ছে। নতুন












'মনে হচচ্ছে কোন স্প্যানিশ ররব্তোরাঁর জীবন্ত বিজ্ঞাপন!' আররকজনের বাঁক! হালি।
তার্রপর তারাও সেই বক্সার নেটিবটির অাকর্ষণে দ্রুত ভিৈড়ে নিশে গেল।
 जার্য निनिপ্ত, ভক্ষেপীন।
 সগধে বলনनেন, ‘অ|মি খি স্টফার কনধাস।’
'বুঝলুম না, অবার বলুন।'

 করনেন ঢঁগর নাম।
 आপনি?
‘অমি অামেরিকা অবিষ্কার করেছি,’ মূছম্বরে জবাব দিরেন কনমাস ।
'লে কী! কখন করূলেন?
 মনন হ্য, এর জত্যে কিছ্জ অ্যা তি অামার প্রাপ্য।'



 जা হন বিষ্ণাপন।

 वেমে।


 secx










কলপাস হ্তবাক। তারপর অবুट্ৰের মতে। হাসনেন এক পশলা। তারপর বিছাহ-



‘কলধাग।
 কালমান্, কথন অামেরিকা অবিষার করনেন? আজককই? বেশ বেশ! অরেরিকা করনন লাগঢছ অাপনার ?

নেটিব সাংবাদিক পভौর ভাবনায় পড়ল।
‘অ বঢে,' সে বলরে, ‘আা্ছা, বলুন তো, বোঙ হয় এটা পারবেন, নিউ ইয়র্কর ককান্





 পে প্রচূর মানসিক বল খরচ করেছে।

এবারে সে উত্তরের প্রতীক্কী কররেন না। কলম্বাসের ছাবভাব একদু লক্য কয়েই

 কলম্ধাবের গায়ে টটাকা দিল মৃছুঙাবে, তারপর হাত ননড়ে টুক করে বেরিয়ে গেল।

পরদিন খুব ভোরেই সহ্গৃগ় নেটিবটির অাবিভ্ভাব। হাঢত খবরের কাগ্র।





প্রত্যেকটি কथা কাল্পনিক, কলম্বাস শপথ निতে প্রসস্ততত। এমন সময় নতুন কত্যেকজন নেটিব ব্যবসায়ীর অগমন হল।
‘বিজ্ঞাপন’ ফল 斤িচচ্ছে যাছুর মতে|। কলন্বাস হলিউঢডে অমন্ত্রিত হলেন।


 খোরাক পাবে যথেষ্টই। অবশ্য, এর সংলাপ হবে ব্রছওবেরের চলতি ভাযায়। বুঝতে পাররেনন




 ক্পোননর রাণী গভীরভাবে ভানোবাসসন, অাবার ভভসপুিিও সমানভাবব রাশ্যান রা|জক্যা









万ই করুন। রাজি?'
 তার ${ }^{\prime \prime}$ 小ছে রীতিমত।







 করে রই নেটিবর্য।











 অন্ত্ররিক।*

[^17]
## ( জ্যা

अढোকরঞ্জন দাশপুপ্ত—পঞ্ণম বর্ব, অর্র্, স্
ওরে মন, অাজ স্বপ্নের কৃন্ল জাপোてে জাগে,
অরে মন, অাজ স্বপ্নের কৃন্লে অকাল জর৷-
এই সকান্লের চারণবালক মিছেই বলে:
‘মিছে হালৌ আাজ অরুনবরণ সকাল ঝরা, জাগলিটন তোর।, ভোঢের ঢোরেণ জাগলিনা গো,


দেউनিয়া ওরা!, সমস্ত রাত
প্রেতের ছায়ার কুটিল করাত
ছিন্ন করেছে বাসনার মণি,
তাই জজনো এরা ককউ ঘুমোয়নন
ফণ তুলল-তুুে কালো সংশ্য়
মুছে নিয়ে গেছছ আলোর অভয়,
মুখ ঢঢকে অঢছ মৌন ঘরণী,
ঢাই জজেনে এরা কেউ ঘুরোয়নি।

মিছে হতো তাই অক্রণবরন সকাল ঝরা।

স্থীীল সায়ারে অবপাছননর নেশায় ভ্রেসে
निর্জন বুন্না ইাসের মত্ন হাজার ভেল।
জন কেটে চনে-এক মোহানার মন্ত্রে মেশে
জলবিহ্ন্গ অশ্বিন ঢদাতল সকালবেল্।
इঠা及 ক্থন শরবনन ঢাকা প্রেতের ছলে
একটি হাঁসের ডান ছিঁঁড় যায়, রক্তজম
পল্মপাতায় শষ্যী বিছালৈ৷ বিহস্গম,
হলো ন মিলन মহারমাহানার্গ জোয়ার জলে।

মিলিত খুত্মর শা斤ী পালংকক প্রেতের ছায়ার কুটিল করাত ছিঁঢ়ে দিঢ়ে গেল উতলy মনटক সমস্ত রাত，সমস্ত রাত！ সেছলির ৎ্পৌম বাসি হৃয়ে এল পপালত।， মায়াবিনী হढনে প্রেম রাততর ছায়াঞ্জন－ রতক্তের দাণে পুণ্যহারাたনা শিশির কণ

 পাল－তুডল－ঢদ্য়া হাওয়ার ঝালার ছুলবে তাবে ； ঘুণ－কক্টী－মা ওয়ী এই ধ্লিল্তেও স্বয়ম্বরু।

 স্বণ্নের ক্ৰলে অাবগর সবাই জাগবে ব’লে，





## দ্রেনের ক্ণবিতা




ভাた্রে ছরন্ত ছপ্পুরে।

গলাঢনী জসানায় সেতে স্নান।



ধেঁ＂য়াভরা অলিতত গলিতে
প্রীচী＜রর পাচশে অর সবুজাভ মাঠঠ
আকাবশের বক্ষভেনী চিম্ন্নীর চূড়াদদর্ পাてশ
গ’ড়ে ওঠঠ 斤িননন কবিত।
মাকঢড়ের জাবে ঘের্য অন্ধকার ককাてে
জ্জকাল্লে রের্তোরঁ ！র বুকের উপরে
অালো অর ছায়ার মায়ায়া
জানি তার ছন্গ গঁঁখ আছছ।
ঊপরেতে শুধু নীল অাকাশের বুতক
নিন্লেদের কানো কাত্লে পা小া।
ধূসর শহর নীচে কবিতার পাণ্ডূলিপি লেটে
ভケな্রে এ দুন্ত ছুপুরে।

## ＂উত্তর－ম্বাক্ষর ${ }^{\prime}$

বরুণী ভট্টাচার্য্য—প＊্পম বর্ষ，অার্ট，স্
কাব্যের অনুদগত অক্কুর，
মুকুলিত হনলে，
অকস্মাৎ।
বিপুল সশ্তাবন। তার।
জড় পিরুুরু স্রূপে
প্রেণম হলো প্রীণ সঞ্পারিত।
প্র্রতিষ্বনিত ₹নো
অদিম প্রীণের
অন্পোর্চাত বাণী।
অপরিচয়ের যবনিকা
গেল সরে，
কবির অ｜ত্ম－পরিচঢ়ে।
ফুকে ফলে তার
বসন্ত সষ্তার，




```
পাতায় পাতায়
পब্লবিত হ\় कত বাণী।
অজান্তে কণবি লি\ে. যায়
উ\overline{J}\ স্বাক্ষর,
কাढ্য গাढन ग्र\⿸⿻一丿又心\丁口
ভবিষ্যেন্ৰ চি\ন্তন
প্\\িक्ष\
এই বাণীর ঢরর
```



```
নিখিলেন্ন ঘ<র।
```


## সমাজানিজ্ঞানন্র（গাড়ান কথা








 কোনোটাই নয়।




































Sorokin-Contemporary Sociological Theories.







 I. F. A.র मহসাই














































 ত䶻付 थাtক cোথার?



 বাচুন্ণতারই নামান্তর।



 বিজ্ঞাঢনর মতোই সমাজবিজ্ঞান এ একটী বিজ্ঞানসশ্মত পথ নিয়েছছ।







































 চিরিকান ছিং এব: থাকবেএ।





















## ইতিহাস-ণবচ্চান

## चिनয় ঢচोधুরী—পঞ্ণম বর্ধ, অর্ট্, স্














 ঢাই বিশ্বাস কটর। নিউটনীয় পানার্থবিছার যান্ত্রিক বিকাশ ও আাথার্থ্যের স্शানে অাজ





 আবিষ্কার করত্তে হবে। ইতিছাস সমগ্র সমাজ্রে ইতিছাস বণলে প্রক্নত ইতিছাস সামগ্রিক













 অপনার্ এলাকাকে প্রেসারিত কর়ে পারে।








 ইতিহাদের গতিধারা নয়। প্রধানত সামাজিক মাহুযের কার্ৰকলাপই ইতিছাসের বড়ে| কথ













বিবর্তনের ইতিহাস মরে করে টঢ়়েনবি উৎপাদন পদ্ধতির পরিবর্তনের সংণে সংগে ’স: স্ষুতির
 কারণেই রাশিয়ার ধর্ম ও সমাজব্যবস্থার উপর বাইজানটাইন সামাজ্যের প্রভাব স্পষ। কিন্তু
 ক্য় ইতিছাসের বিকাশকে অন্বীকার কর্যা। বিজ্ঞানের সব চাইঢে বড়ো কথা এ বিকাবশরর



 চিহ্তন নীতিন্মত্র দিয়ে ইতিহাসব্যাथ্য একান্তভাববই ঘা-্ত্রিক। 心ৌগোলিক পরিবেব্র










 বাখ্যা কর! घ!য়—কিক্তু অদানীত্তন সামন্ততান্ত্রিক শক্তির্র পূণঅবকষ্য, ফিনাস্স ক্যাপিটালিজনের

 পছিয়ে দেবে। বিরাট সমাজের সাধারণ মানুষ কি ভাবে ইতিছাসে কাজ করে ঢার ককান
 जান সোজাস্জি বিরোধিত।। নানাকারণে সমাজে প্রগতির ধারী ব্যাছত হৃতে পারে। কিন্তु

 অহল্ল এট। অর টে"ঢেন্।

মননের জগতত বিজ্ঞাননর অ|শচর্ব প্রগতি, অর্থনীতির জগত্তে לবপ্ধবিক পরিবর্তন, দর্শনর জগटে ঢেগেলীয়্র ডায়ানেকটিক্স সমাজের বিকাশ সম্পর্কে অমাদদর ধারণাতে বেশ













































凶யাব।




 ইতিহাস। ফরাসী বিপ্লেবর দার্শনিক যাই ভাবুন，সামাজিক সুংপঠনটক অপ্বীকার করে





 যুগ্গ তামার অবিষার，লৌহযুগে মৃল্যবান অামার বদালে লৌছ－গলাননার পদ্ধিি আবিষ্কার，
 অগ্রগতির ফনে শিল্পবিপ্লব ও অর্থনীতির জগঢত বিপ্লব—এ হল বিভিন্ন ধাটপের মর্য 斤斤য়ে ইতিহ্｜সের অগ্রগতির ক্রপ，যার গোড়াকার কथ্খ इল অর্থনীতিতত। রাজ－রাজ্জার বিবাদ－ কান্দেনের ইতিছাস আসল ইতিহাস নর়，সমাজাতীত কোন ভাবের বিকাবেরর ইতিহাস，






 সষ্ভাবনাcক বাছাছ কর়ছ।































 বাক্তিসত্তার প্রকাশকে ব্যাহতত করূছ। ন্তন উৎপাদলপদ্ধতি স্রুু হবার সময় উ২পাদন







 ইতিছসে বিপ্লব হয় তখনই যখন উ২পাদনপদ্ধতি অার উ২পাদন সপ্পর্কর্র মব্যে বিরোধ






























## वाँศী\ जूর

## 














 মাটি-মায়ের বুকভঙঙা দীর্ঘশ্বাসটুকু তুমি বে নিয়ে নিয়েছ তোমার স্রুরের মাণো, ঢোমার গান বে অ্থার্ধ ই মাটির গান।







## আমাদ্দেন কথা

## 巨াত্রপ্রিষদ :


#### Abstract

                   সুযোপ (rবেন।


चिबाম-ज्ञारेख।:
 সब্ত্ব狋 इয় नि।
নাট্যপরিষ্দ:









## খিত্র－বিন্তাগ ：





 मिकरण्न ।











 बी़िए भिटर পারি।









## 

夕卜円


 তু







ডি































 बैी.




























নাট্যপী俞ষদ:















 (घ) iq

গাল্ল্ কম মনর্ন্ম্:












## গানিত র্রিমিনার:




 বাtব অাগে জাবঢত্ত পারিনি।






























 পোবানকক আমাদ্রর অসং্থ বন্থবাপ।

 পাওয়| মায়নি।
ছুর্গাपাস রায়, —সল্পা|দক बর্থনীতি সেমিনাআ

## র্রাজ্রনীতি দ্রেমিনার:





 India" প্ব্ধাট পাঠ কট্রেন অধ্যাপক ধীঢর্রশ ভট্টাচার্ব্র্ন সভাপতিত্বে।

 ব্যবग্থ। থাকায় সভাটি বিশেষ মনোজ্ঞ হ’য়ে উচ্ঠেছিল।
 বি巾ার্ সঙ্তাষণ জানানে।।


 बেেনায়্র মুर्ত।


## দ্র্শন-পারিমদ:





 এদিনও সভাপতি ছিনেন ঐ্র্রবাসজীবন চচोপুরী।



 জানিয়েছি আান্তরিক অভিনন্গন।

## PRESIDENCY COLLEGE FOOT-BALL TEAM—1952

## RUNNERS-UP

## HARDINGE BIRTHDAY CHALLENGE SHIELD


${ }^{\text {EPT }}$ to Right : (Sitting on the Ground)-M. Das Gupta, S. Bose, A. Sircar.
(Sitting on Chair)-P. Guhathakurta, S. Chatterjee, Sri N. N. Chatterjee, Principal J. C. Sengupta Prof. J. Choudhury, K. Dutta Gupta (Captain), N. Dutta (Secretary).
(Standing)--Bostom (Bearer), N. Ghosh, N. Ganguly, D. Das Gupta, B, Barman, A. Chakrayarty S. Chakravarty, S. Sānātani, B. Niyogi, Chandra (Bearer).


EDITORIAL

## Notes and Comments

To get an issue of the college journal together is a task which though not to be described as a job of Hercules, is, nevertheless, one of considerable difficulties. People do not seem to agree as to what should be the aim of a journal like this. There are, for instance, those amongst us who hold that it is the duty of the journal to focus our attention on what our students are doing outside the class room. The ideal issue, it seems, would be an impressive collection of the reports of our different committees punctuated by about half a dozen photographs of the same. This ideal is strongly criticised by another school of opinion, which dislikes committee reports, hates group photographs, and would like to get from their journal a series of edifying articles set off to perfection with a nice sketch or two. There are people who want us to bring out an extremely progressive issue attacking all conceivable things under the sun. There are those who would read only short stories and nothing else and there are those who would like the editorial to be written in verse. All these make up that dynamic entity which we know as the Presidency College.

Subject to the ultimately determining influence of the economic factor, your journal strives, as best as it can, to act the mirror to all these different shades of opinion. Here is with you, what we trust to be, a representative cross section of the things that Presidency College does or feels. But this is no more than a cross section. The numerous bits that remain unpublished demand we make a few general comments about them. It is an obligation we owe then and it is a duty towards you that we have assumed. We are convinced that it is only by telling you what we feel about the things we got and the things we ought to have got but did not, that we can make a better job of our second issue, which-now that the first is already in print-is our main preoccupation.

A journal, if it is not to be cordially disliked by all, has to present a well balanced page of contents. But our contributors, it appeared, had made up their minds not to stand any nonsense in the shape of an editorial policy. We tried to procure a presentable one-act play. We failed. We expected some of our people to come forward with some neatly turned out opinions about the latest additions in the field of books. No one did. We felt at least a short discussion on some international topic was badly needed. Our contributors ignored our feelings. The element of variety could not be smuggled in.

People who wrote displayed a remarkable penchant for short stories and what appeared to be suspiciously like prose lyrics. The run on short stories was very unfortunate. We have to lay aside regretfully some very cute attempts in this domain. We really wish these people-very accomplished writers most of them-had tried their hands at something else. The same is true of that undoubtedly difficult subject of prose lyrics. Our contributors came out as very good writers of prose but their lyrical ambition somewhat let them down. Our scientists from whom we expected discussions on scientific subjects in a popular vein, sent in very little. And most of this little appeared to be forbiddingly technical.

Our friends, on the whole, have been exceptionally co-operative. And we hope we have done nothing to lose this co-operation. A somerwhat more judicious selection of the subject matter will, we feel, make a world of difference and we shall be spared the agonizing spectacle of able contributors unnecessarily jostling with each other in an overcrowded field. And, incidentally, you will get a much better journal.

There is a very obvious topic, neglected by our contributors, which, we believe, can easily yield very satisfactory results, if handled brightly and judiciously. That is our college. Presidency College, these days, is displaying what one of our contributors would term, a very remarkable tendency towards 'association'. At the same time, we fancy, an acute conflict is going on amongst us between different sets of attitude. We should like to make our meaning clear. That our students are very much active outside their class rooms should be obvious. All our secretaries seem to be enthusiastic about it. We should like, however, to draw your attention particularly to a couple of things with which this journal feels connected. The activity of our study groups is a very pleasing feature in our academic life. The Third Year Study Circle is a very important body. In their third year people can take their time and study things which within a year from now it would be quite impossible for them to do. The reason is obvious but as it is not considered good form to discuss unpleasant things, we do not mention it. We on our part, however, expect great things from this study group and we are looking forward to the journal that they tell us they are going to bring out. We also
expect to hear about a First Year study circle very soon. Some of our talented friends have got together a group which they call the Poetry Association. We sincerely hope they are going to think $u_{p}$ some very fine poetry and give it to us next time we go to press. ${ }^{1}$

Apart from these study groups another interesting feature of our academic life is the running of a few hand-written sheets. The College wall newspaper, Dewali, is already an established institution. Only very recently our scientists have begun taking a hand in its shaping. This is certainly encouraging but they must always bear in mind that whatever they have to say, has to be said in a popular vein. Otherwise the purpose of that sheet will be defeated. The enterprising folks of our First Year classes have their Prathama, which maintains a surprisingly high standard and almost invariably manages to come out in an impeccable get up. The History Seminar Wall Newspaper has nothing to boast of in its turn-out. But it maintains a fair standard and it is the only sheet which has some of our professors and ex-students as regular contributors. Incidentally, it is interesting to note, that all the seminars of the post graduate department of our University have their own organs. The History Seminar has made a beginning which we think can well be followed up by the others. All these sheets serve the same purpose as does this journal. They enable us, moreover, to maintain a profitable lookout for possible contributors. And with the coming out of this issue, they are, we are sure, going to give us a crop of critical notices which cannot possibly be flattering but which will, nevertheless, be an invaluable aid to us.

This much about the very praiseworthy things that our friends are doing. These are all facts and no fancy. But the thing we are going to suggest next is, undoubtedly, a conclusion on our part, and if the reader himself has not felt it, it can, assuredly, be dismissed without a second thought. The general attitude of the Presidency College, we suggest, is getting more and more positive and what is singularly unfortunate, more and more narrow. All this is bound up, ironically enough, with our various progressive opinions. People are not only progressive-which is a very excellent thing-but are impatient of anything which is not. This last is not only unfortunate but dangerous. This is evident in what we are writing in the columns of the Dezwali and the Prathama. This is evident in what we are saying in our seminar rliscussions. This is evident in the very way we speak in our debates. Our generalizations are sweeping, our assertions are categorical and conclusions, neecessarily, catastrophic. A well-balanced attitude is fighting a rearguard action all along the line. But it has not lost out yet and there is still time to rally. We shall give what we consider to be a

[^18]typical example. Some time back a batch of American students visited us. We met them at a symposium, the subject for discussion being Academic Freedom in Universities. Our debaters straightaway threw all caution to the four winds and plunged in denouncing American Imperialism. The standatd of debate in this college is as good as ever. And when that exceptionally skilful debater, Sj . Amartya Sen, launched his scornful shafts at the American attitude towatds world problems to-day, the lecture theatre shook to the sound of stormy applause. Our visitors appeared a bit taken aback. So along came the tactful rejoinder from the chair that all this does not mean that we bear any ill-feeling towards the Americans. One expected a stony silence to greet such tact. But one was really relieved to hear Presidency College obliging with another burst of spontaneous applause. That is why we say that a sane attitude is still behind its guns. If we can persuade our progressives that a thing that exists is not necessarily bad, that a generalization must have its loopholes, and that the best way to arrive at truth is to listen to what the other fellow is saying, we can still win ont. Presidency College may be aggressively progressive, but Presidency College has as yet, never been bigoted.

It is very difficult to say why none of our contributors tried to tackle the topic of Education. A journal of this type, however, cannot allow itself to be presented without something being said about this subject somewhere in its pages. The topic is not easy to deal with and the pen that now is constrained to make the gallant but presumptuous attempt is far from being competent.

It is, nevertheless, possible to present a few facts which would outline some of the features of what the journalists love to describe as the Crisis in Education. That something has gone wrong is obvious but the thing that has gone wrong here with us is not the thing that worries people over there in the U.S.A., Britain or Russia. But both of them are connected. We shall try to show how.

In Britain and the U.S.A. it is held that people have different mental capacities and it is not possible to give all of them any very high standard of education. To determine the capacity of a student they rely almost exclusively on I.Q. tests. The concrete results so far have been that in Britain, where they accepted the principle of universal education back in 1870, the act of 1944 has acknowledged in principle secondary education for all with a leaving age of sixteen, and in U.S.A. they insist upon equal opportunity for all with a general uniformity up to the age of eleven. In both the countries there is a wide variation in the standard reached and in U.S.A. in particular it varies from state to state.

In Russia, they believe that it is possible to educate everybody and up to a very fair standard. It is only after this stage has been reached that the question of aptitude comes in. This attitude of theirs is based upon a
denial of the efficacy of the I.Q. testing system. They claim that data gathered on observation contradict the results given by intelligence testing and that children from unfavourable environments are adversely affected by the system. They have made seven years' schooling compulsory for all children after which the institute called Tekhnikum gives four years of vocational training. There are also special centres where higher studies in the humanities can be undertaken. By 1960 they hope to extend the compulsory schooling period to ten years. Prof. Giles is of opinion that this ten years' schooling would enable all the Russian children to reach the old matriculation standard of the London University. ${ }^{2}$

This feat of the Russian government, which can, perhaps, be described as commendable, has set the people in Western Europe, thinking. And as it happens so often, these days, when people indulge in thinking, they think politics. In the U.S.A. they are persuaded that if Russia can educate her people and if the free world cannot, then Communism will spread. Thus for an example if the Jamaicans find that after three hundred years' of British rule 80 per cent of their people are illiterate while in Russia within thirty years of their revolution they have achieved cent per cent literacy, then they may very likely commit the blunder of equating communism with education and democracy with illiteracy. ${ }^{3}$

This acute reasoning on their part has made the United States do a thing which, peculiarly enough, is not at all a bad one. They have poured out money to get the UNESCO going and the UNESCO is one of those bodies which enable us to think that all sanity is not lost yet. They are working right in our midst and they are doing good work. This brings us to our own problems and worries. The experts of the UNESCO have already undertaken studies of the educational system in Thailand, the Philippines and Afghanistan. The reports they have submitted are instructive. In Thailand, we are told, the government passed a law of zompulsory education back in 1921. Between 1921 and March 1951 the Thai cabinet changed fifteen times. The Thai people got fifteen different educational policy statements. The sum spent on education rose by one jer cent. And there it stopped. These are facts which some people have :ound amusing and others, grim. They are undoubtedly peculiar but very typical. The report about the Philippines is severely critical and that about Afghanistan is not exactly complimentary. The experts came to the con:lusion that to do anything good these people have to change their social set-up a bit, regulate their finance, eliminate corruption and show some afficiency.

[^19]We should not of course dream of applying these observations our own country: We had our own University Commission. Scholats differ as to what has happened to the Radhakrishnan Report. Its ultimate fate is a matter of metaphysical speculation. Our government is going ahead with its scheme of spreading the light. In our Adult Education programme we are bringing our people up to the fairly high standard of class four. The new scheme of the West Bengal Government contemplates the employment of graduate teachers at eighty-five rupees a month. As a matter of academic interest we could mention that the Brooke Bond Tea Company employs labourers at not less than Rs. 120/- per month. But of course our government is not in a position to spend so much money. An irresponsible section of the students is talking about a twenty per cent budgetary allocation for education. But our authorities are persuaded that the only thing to do to these youngmen is to reorient their moral outlook, preferably through religious instructions. And there the matter rests.*

[^20]
# The Book of Psalms-An Appreciation 

Santa Das-Sixth Year Arts

The Book of Psalms is an impassioned cry from the very depths of the heart of the psalmists. Through it is expressed all the faith, all the weakness and all the poctry of their souls.

Here as elsewhere in the Bible there is no philosophy, no logical argument to prove the existence of God. Faith, complete faith wipes out even the shadow of a doubt and there is nothing so simple as the calm dependence in the line "The Lord is my shepherd, I shall not want."

In their day of weakness they pray for strength, in their hour of need they pray for comfort. In psalm after psalm this cry for help, for protection, for strength swells and swells till their souls are revealed in all their weakness, in all their nakedness. They do not utter that most difficult of all prayers '"Thy will be done".

They have not yet learnt to love their enemies and bless them that curse them. With a directness that is childlike in its frankness they pray for themselves, they plead their own catse "Hear the right, O Lord, attend unto my cry, give ear unto my prayer".

There is no emotion of the human heart that has not been imaged here. All the sorrows and fears, joys and pleasures by which it is tossed, have been depicted to the life.

The distress, the pain and grief of the soul fighting against temptation, succumbing to it, are revealed in the poignant cry of the sixth psalm. "O Lord, rebuke me not in thine anger, neither chasten me in thy hot displeasure ; Have mercy upon me, O Lord; for I am weak."

Sometimes they are tortured with the thought that God has turned away from them. But their love remains as strong as ever, as sincere as ever. And in Psalm XIII there is all the love of a lover in the whispered prayer-"How long wilt thou forget me, O Lord? forever? how long wilt thou hide thy face from me?"

But over and above all is the prayer in Psalm LXI-condensing within it all the struggles of the human mind trying to reach what is good and best, aspiring and hoping for a better ideal, a greater goal"Lead me to the rock that is higher than I".

Nowhere else are there expressed more happily the feelings of a sou! full of joy and exultation than in the psalms of thanksgiving or the psalnns of praise. In every little thing, in the little details, everywhere, the psalmists see the hand of God and sing to Him with thanksgiving for covering the heaven with clouds, for preparing rain for the earth, for making grass to grow upon the mountain. Psalm CXLVIII is the utterance of a heart filled to the full with the thought of the infinite majesty of God. It is a hallelujah of all heavenly and earthly beings. The final psalm closes in an ecstasy of praise. Its utter simplicity reveals the depth of feeling running through it like an under-current. The psalmist is overwhelmed with feeling, he cannot find words enough, means enough by which he can praise God. His over-flowing heart can only simply utter-" "Let everything that hath breath praise the Lord. Praise ye the Lord".

The Psalms are the poetry of spiritual life. Never has thought risen so high and pure. Never has the soul revealed itself in language so tender, so sympathetic and so moving. They are the records of individual experience, they express the truth of human feelings, they give voice not to the palpable and superficial but to the secret of the inmost life. Their beauty and power never fail, for the psalms consist not of theological dogmas but of human experience, of human suffering, of human emotions which remain the same throughout the ages. And in the Book of Psalms all difference of time, of country and religion is wiped away. Its appeal is universal, its strength is abiding, its beauty is a spring-time of freshness.

# Stalin's Last Thesis 

Subir Chandra Das Gurta-Sixth Year Arts.

Stalin's last thesis is a statement of the ways in which the economic problems of socialism in the U. S. S. R. have been sought to be tackled. We shall try to summarise the principles and the results achieved and also to evaluate them.

The principles involved are, that natural laws depend upon objective processes and that they are immutable in a particular stage of historical development. Some of the laws are eternal, although some art not. Laws of economics fall in the latter category. Natural laws cannot be transformed but their harmful effects can be isolated. One particular law of capitalistic economy, i.e., the law of value operates on a limited scale in the Soviet economy. But its harmful effects have been got rid of. The law of value still operates because historically Russia is not sufficiently advanced to do without it. Especially the agronomy is undeveloped. But Russia can claim sufficient advance in other directions. Inequality between the town and the country, agriculture and industry, manual and intellectual labour no longer exists. Due to the development of a socialist economy under Russian guidance, capitalist countries face economic collapses and will go to war against each other. And also as Socialist economy is based upon the principle of maximum satisfaction, which is sounder than the capitalist principle of profit maximisation, Soviet economy will thrive and the capitalist system will decay.

These principles in practice, Stalin states, have led to important results. As Russian agronomy was in an undeveloped state, it could not be nationalised. Agriculture is carried on on a collective basis. There are, therefore, two economic sectors, the collectivised agrononly and the nationalised industry. The theory of value, which as a natural law, depends for validity upon objective conditions, operates in the agronomy. But the accompanying ills have been got rid of. As complete nationalisation has not been a possibility, the system of commodity production still exists. But as the state is responsible for all investments, surplus value does not appear, and, capitalism does not reappear. A war between capitalism and socialism is inevitable. And the Soviet system must win. Capitalism is weakened by booms and slumps, over-production and production for maximum profit. The Soviet system is strengthened by rising production-level, continuous production and production for maximum satisfaction. Territorial expansion of socialism has led to an intensification of strife among
capitalist countries themselves. And capitalism as a whole today thrives by militarisation, rearmament and the Korean war to make up for the loss of exploitable markets. But its basis crumbles. American dollar supremacy is only temporary-England and France are prospective rebels. Germany and Japan will resent tutelage. As capitalism all over is weakening the Soviet system is getting stronger and integrating its economic sectors in a time-scale of ten to fifteen years.

It is possible to trace both a liberal and an orthodox tendency in Stalin's last thesis. The liberal tendencies are manifested in the concessions that are made to collectivism. These are elements of pragmatism, adjusting political and economic theory to historical circumstances. Unfortunately, this liberal tendency does not extend very far. If it is possible to purify the value system of its dangers in Soviet Russia, it is difficult to see why the same cannot be done anywhere else. Logical consistency demands that we admit the possibility of purifying the value system all the world over. In point of fact, capitalism today is by and large controlled capitalism and the value system operates only through checks and balances. But apart from the logical inconsistency which Stalin's last thesis entails in so far as the value system is concerned, a more fundamental criticism is possible. Stalin advocates the theory, that natural laws depend for validity upon objective circumstances, and cannot be transformed. A theory about the operation of natural laws, seems, in the first place, beside the point in this particular context. We are more interested in the effects of the operation of natural laws, if there are actually such laws, and not with the modes of their operation. But, if there are natural laws in the Stalinian sense, they can be said to undergo occasional transformation. Considering Stalin's example of floods let us suppose two situations. In a primitive stage of human knowledge floods were generally destructive, to-day, with increased human knowledge their forces may be harnessed for electrification. The natural law can be said to have undergone a transformation, for circumstances have changed by the factor of increased human knowledge. It cannot be said that a new natural law has been created for the river is the same river and the floods the same as of yore. It is hardly a case of a restriction of destructive propensities, for, that implies some unnaturalness: Rather, to-day it is unnatural that there should be floods for destruction and natural that they should be beneficial.

It is possible to comment on the lines of economic development envisaged in the Soviet Union and detailed in the thesis. It is hoped that as the State co-ordinates the two economic sectors and helps to create ultimate conditions of full socialisation, the collective system will slowly wane away. But that is only a fond hope or expectation. It is difficult to say which sector will ultimately become preponderant. The occasional necessity of using the might of the State against the stubborn peasantry forbids over-optimism. At the same time, it is possible to visualise the

Soviet system as a single monopolistic industrial concern, of which the last thesis is a policy statement, and which carries on production with the consent and co-operation of the component parts. Hence the existence of collectivisation and nationalisation side by side.

Stalin's theory about the impending collapse of capitalism seems unsound from many standpoints. Firstly, capitalism to-day operates mostly in welfare states, and is different from capitalism whose destruction Marx prophesied. As a matter of fact, American production-level shows continuous increase and no economic slump has yet followed after the Second World War. Secondly, it is improbable that England or France would go to war with America in any near future, for not only is America immeasurably more powerful, technology has almost indissolubly linked up the respective economic structures. Germany and Japan may not go to war with America because circumstances for them are different from those that Germany faced after the Versailles treaty. Finally, it is untrue and unrealistic to suggest that the socialist and capitalist economic sectors are contradictory as the former follows a principle of satisfaction maximisation and the latter one of profit maximisation. Different industries have different highest rates of profit and it is difficult to get a highest rate of profit for capitalism as such. Again, the concept of profit is not purely momentary. Human, psychological and material factors help to develop the concept. It may be suggested that an artist does not necessarily become a steel magnate or an agriculturist joins industry because of financial gains. No body, of course, would produce if returns were less than costs, but the returns need not try to reach a hypothetical maximum.

Certain difficulties are raised when we consider the ways in which Stalin proposes to remove unequal distinction between agriculture and industry, town and country, manual and intellectual labour. Labour is supposed to be the right criterion for remunetation. Labour also has an intensive aspect. A criterion of labour-expenditure, however, is very vague. The main distributive problem is that of maintaining the supply of personnel to the essential services. A too high remuneration breeds over-competition and a too low remuneration results in undercompetition. Therefore, it is possible to suggest, that the right principle should be, rather, one of fixing remuneration on the basis of supplying adequate personnel to the socially desirable industries.

At one point Stalin's thesis seems to mark an improvement on the Anti-Duhring. Removal of unequal distinctions between town and country has meant more of urbanisation. Engels thought that large towns would be scarce. But Engels naturally could not have foreseen the gigantic advances of modern technology.

To sum up, the last thesis as a statement of the ways in which the Soviet Union has tried to solve its economic problems is a tribute to pragmatism in terms of practical policy. But orthodoxy lingers-and hence
the cart-load of prophecies based upon doubtful factual evidence. Communism and the Communist Internationale have always tended to show various strata of opinion and differences between the orthodox or the rigid and the more liberal group. Bolshevism began as a rigid Marxian doctrine with its insistence upon the inevitability of the class-struggle, the dictatorship of the proletariat and the theory of surplus-value. As it came to grips with reality in the Russian state, it had perforce to re-orient itself in terms of environment and circumstances. The religious question is a case in point. Marxism, certainly, is a dynamic thing, but dynamism without the essential elements of Marxism, hardly is Marxism. Of course, Marxism has to be introduced in stages, but how do we synthesise the two absolutes of flux and pattern to suggest that the stages are created to lead to a Communist Utopia? And if we suggest that the process or the dialectics should be viewed dialectically, we reach the absurd position of judging the thing by the thing itself. And finally, Bolshevism bade good-bye to Marxism the moment it assumed the role of the guardian of law and order in Russia. The revolution was to come in industrially advanced countries, Great Britain for example. Its emergence in Russia is non-Marxism. If it is the world-situation as a whole that should decide the question of the timeliness of revolutions-it is difficult to see why the country is Russia. And it is Russia because there is a strong party organisation there which means available power. Therefore, the revolution came not because of any Marxian imperative but because of the nonMarxian element of power. The stages by which Communism is sought to be established in Russia are just those stages which Russia had not passed through to make her a proper revolution-arena. Whither this revisionism of Bolshevism?

# Democracy and Freedom of Thought ${ }^{1}$ 

Sri Amlan Datta-Ex-Student.

The etymological platitude that democracy means the rule of the people, and, in modern states, of the representatives of the majority of the people, has, in the present century, done dubious service to the cause that it proposes to uphold. The definition of democracy as the rule of the majority is wrong as well as dangerous. It is not by counting the heads of Hitler's supporters that one must decide whether the Hitlerite regime was democratic or not. If, in a fanatical community, the majority decides to gag the voice of all minorities, the system does not deserve to be called democratic merely because its undemocratic action has the approval of the majority. Even in its narrower connotation, democracy stands for a peaceful method of political change ; and as such it stands for the right of the majority, or the representatives of the majority, to rule, as well as the right of the minority to try, by every peaceful means, to convert the majority. Every case of rule of a minority is a case of undemocratic rule; but not all cases of rule of the majority are cases of democracy. Without the right of the minority to convert the majority, democracy loses its dynamic significance and is turned into its opposite.

In a wider sense, democracy is not just a peaceful method of political change, but a system representing the maximum possible opportunity for the individual to develop what is unique in him and to enrich society through the contribution of his creative uniqueness. It demands, unquestionably, the right of the individual to material security, inasmuch as such security is an essential condition of unhampered growth; but it stands also for something more. If security were an end in itself, there would have been nothing to say against the security of detention camps. Democracy is as much hampered by the absence of "economic rights" as by the presence of these same "rights" in a form which constitutes a negation of political liberty and of other human rights. As a matter of fact, the rights of an individual as a man take precedence over all other rights, and these other rights are to be judged in terms of their effectiveness in sustaining fundamental human rights. Of the fundamental rights of the individual, the right to freedom of thought and expression is

[^21]amongst the most essential. This right is important in an ultimate a well as in an instrumental sense. In an ultimate sense, the peculiar glor: of man lies in his power of contemplation and his incomparable capacit. for externalising and communicating his thoughts and emotions. Evet if it were possible in a completely regimented society to enjoy to thr full the material comforts of life, the best of human spirits would fee after a time that life is not quite worth living merely for the sake of suck comforts. They will feel something innermost in them being starved and their manhood will rebel against the monotony of the pleasures of $a$ predominantly physical existence.

Not less important is the instrumental value of freedom of thought. In countries like this, where the economic problem is acute, there is a not too uncommon habit of dismissing freedom of thought as a luxury, important only for the better-off people, which can easily be dispensed with till the more pressing problem of livelihood for the million is solved. This is an entirely erroneous way of looking at the question of democracy.

It is true that only a minority of people are interested in thought. It does not follow that a minority enjoys the fruits of thought. The progress of natural as well as social sciences has been due to the efforts of a small number of exceptionally gifted men; but the discoveries made in these fields have brought benefits to numbers far exceeding those directly connected with the acts of discovery. Progress of ideas, then, is important not for a select few, but for the community as a whole. That being the case, the important question is whether, on the evidence of history, ideas have most tapidly progressed in an atmosphere of freedom or under the rule of authority. It is no use saying that those ideas alone should be allowed to circulate which contribute to progress. If historical evidence is any guide, no group of people, however wise, is competent to settle beforehand which ideas will turn out in the long run to be most conducive to progress. Eiven erroneous ideas have often a contribution to make, which they yield best when they are freely discussed and allowed to withdraw themselves in the normal process of time rather than in obedience to the fiat of the state. Ideas, it has long been recognised, develop through a process of mutual opposition and interpenetration, so that to raise any set of ideas to the status of a State religion and protect it against fundamental criticism, leaving only the right of annotation and interpretation of the scripture to choice devotees, is to raise an overwhelming impediment to the progress of ideas and to deprive society of much of the fruits of such progress.

But it is not simply by arresting the advance of ideas that totalitarianism brings harm to society. Not less destructive of social welfare are the atmosphere that suppression of thought produces and the many strange creatures of that vicious atmosphere. Suppression of thought is not simply a physical process ; it is a psychological process as well. It
signifies not only the act of stopping the expression of certain ideas; it points also to the act of hating certain ideas, and of inculcating such hatred upon the largest possible number of people. By introducing in society a specially glorified variety of intolerance, it pollutes the very sources of social solidarity. Free co-operation arises from readiness to appreciate differences. Where appreciation of differences is seriously restricted, there can only be concerted action without the spirit of free co-operation. Hatred has its counterpart in fear ; and a society urged by hatred is equally urged by fear. Where differences are not respected, people have to cultivate an instinctive caution against fellow men, lest unwittingly they should betray differences which, in the eyes of authority, merit condemnation. Few things are spiritually more degrading than an attitude of continuous caution against the people who surround us. Under modern forms of totalitarianism, there is no respite from such caution even in one's relations to one's dearest people; for the modern State has left 'earlier types far behind in its mastery over the delicate art of setting loved people against one another in the servic of the State. Under the rule of the dictator, there is no holiday from fear.

Modern totalitarianism has, not infrequently, introduced itself with the promise of ending exploitation. It has never failed to create a new justification for exploitation. Exploitation presupposes the will as well as the power to exploit ; presupposes, that is to say, as its subjective condition, denial by the exploiter of any but an instrumental value of the individuals exploited, and, as its objective condition, great difference of power between the exploiter and the exploited. A community ruled by dogma creates both these conditions. The individual in such a community has no intrinsic value; he is valued only as a bearer of the faith. Denial of all value of those who oppose the faith is part of the faith itself. It is easier for "true" love to go without jealousy than for "true" faith to tolerate heresy. Where there is dogma, there, again, is hierarchy, with concentration of power in the hands of the high priest. Beyond a range, the lower down a person stands in the hierarchy the more is he, in all probability, subject to exploitation. Lowest down are the "non-conformists" or the "enemies" of the regime. Where the faith of the fanatic is leavened with the merciful presumption that even the worst sinner can possibly be won over to the way of God, hatred is tempered with pity; where that leaven is absent, every restraint is dropped. The enemies of the people must be disposed of in the shortest possible time-with time enough, possibly, to exploit the utterances of their dying moments to add glory to the rule of the dictator. Or, else-and is not that better still when coolly considered !--they may be thrown into forced labour camps, to contribute to the society they have simned against the maximum of surplus value that the guardians of society may wisely extract from them before they enrich the soil with their bones. Said the ruler of a totali-
tarian state, with great cogency, "The labour of those deprived of liberty is being used by us on ....communal and highway tasks. We did this before, we are doing it now, and we shall continue to do so. This is profitable for society." Profitable indeed, and how else could one augment such profit to society without increasing indefinitely the number of those "deprived of liberty"!

Not only is the suspicion of the fanatical rulers of a totalitarian State turned against its own citizens, but by the very single-mindedness of their fanaticism they are rendered incapable of regarding other States with anything but suspicion, unless total submission is offered as the price of friendship. The rulers of a totalitarian State are, moreover, quick to learn that the largest possible degree of obedience can be had from its citizens only when the latter, struck by some real or imaginary fear, are anxious to be protected by the strong arm of the State; and that one of the quickest ways of creating such panic amongst the people is to persuade them that the enemy is ever knocking at the door. The same course is suggested by another consideration, as dear to the dictator as it is necessary for him. The dictator requires to clothe himself with moral authority to suppress all his adversaries ; and one of the easiest ways in which such suppression can be carried out with the enthusiastic support of the people is to play on their herd-instinct and deceive them into the belief that the opposition to the dictator acts under instructions from intriguing foreigners. Totalitarianism will as easily allow rival opinions to grow within the country as it will treat rival powers, reluctant to accept its leadership, as anything but wicked, furiously to be guarded against. And the cost of continuons "defence", even in material terms, is high indeed! A dictator cannot afford to give first preference to prosperity.

If freedom of thought were merely a luxury for the intellectual elite, if by showing democracy the door we could bring in justice and prosperity, how much of the attention paid to these ideals would have been out of place! Democracy is not just a political system; it is a way of life. The greatest enemy of the democratic way of life is fanaticism. Fanatics are rarely guilty of lack of idealism ; what they lack is tolerance. It is not generally realised how completely idealism may be corrupted by intolerance. In the same proportion as the fanatic is self-sacrificing in the cause of his ideal, he feels himself duty-bound to transgress the general codes of ethical conduct in his attitude to his opponents. Through his intolerance he extends the boundaries of that field in which, selfrighteously, he acts in open disregard of morality. Thus, the fanatical idealist, in the very pursuit of his ideal, builds a world in which the most insistent profession of high ideals is united with thorough-going contempt for all ideals in practice.

# In Defence of P. G. Wodehouse 

Sabyasachi Chatterjea-Fourlh Year Arts.

It is our endeavour to clam for Wodehouse, if not an exalted place in English literature, then at least a right to be considered seriously. A systematic study of growth and development of his mind goes to show that there is a serious side to his humour. The Wodehotse effusions are a faithful and vivid reflection of the growth and development of a twentieth-century mind.

One of the most fruitful sources of humour is the ridicule of the exalted. 'The coming of Gowf", one of Wodehouse's earliest stories, marks the first phase in his career of humour. As always, his humour is with a purpose. There he lets loose for the first time a tide of raillery against the high and mighty. We are transported to a mythical kingdom of Oom, ruled by young king Merolchazzar. The setting is peaceful and serene. On the broad terrace outside his palace, overlooking the fair expanse of the Royal gardens, King Merolchazzar stands leaning on a low parapet, his chin on his hand, and a frown on his noble face. The day is fine, and a light breeze bears up to him from the garden below a fragrant scent of flowers.

In elaborating the king's unsuccessful love-affairs-the cause behind that Royal frown-Wodehouse has a masterly dig at Royalty. This is the $20 t h$ century mind ridiculing a decrepit institution. The king's minstrels sing inimitable eulogies:

> "Oh, tune the string and let us sing
> Our godlike, great, and gloriots king!
> He's a bear! He's a bear! He's a bear!"

There is a light contempt for the king as a person, and a healthy one for kingship as an institution. The ridicule is extended to the servants of the king and their offices. There is a "Supreme Hereditary Custodian of the Royal Pet Dog", an "Exalted Overseer of the King's Wardrobe", and a "Supreme Splendiferous Maintainer of the Twenty-four Handicap Iixcept on Windy Days When It Goes Up to Thirty." By a contemptuous Wodehouse, the characters are reduced to mere toys, to be played with at will.

It is a curious fact that nearly all the settings in this Wodehouse collection are almost idyllic. There is no distress in the early Wodchouse world. Peace reigns over the Wood, Hills Golf club and its ever-present
and omniscient Oldest Member. Indeed, one sees in this the reflection of the unruffled, youthful writer who says in the Preface:
"As a writer of fiction I have always till now been handicapped by the fact that my disposition was cheerfu1, my heart intact and my life unsoured. Handicapped, I say, because the public likes to feel that a writer of farcical stories is piquantly miserable in private life, and that, if he turns out anything amusing, he does so simply in order to obtain relief from the almost insupportable weight of an existence which he has long since realised to be a wash-out."

With the maturing of the Wodehouse mind, the contempt for royalty in particular gave way to a contempt for aristocracy in general. We find a new series of characters taking the field-prosperous, contented and eccentric earls, planted in rich and sumptuous castles. At this stage, the Wodehouse earls are eccentric rather than idiotic ; as yet, no commonerintellect, like the valet's or the butler's, is there to set off their idiocy. The trend is there. There are efficient secretaries-witness Rupert Baxterwho are much more efficient than their masters. There are free-lance consulting agents like Psmith (spelt with a P which is silent) who prove their commoner-intellect to be superior to the intellects of their blueblooded masters. There is a consistent effort to bring down the aristocracy from its undeserved pedestal, but as yet, not to the gutter-not yet by butlers and valets.

In the next phase, the Wodehouse earl changes for the worse. There is no venom in the raillery; there is no rancour. But the ridicule is more pungent. The nobility is not merely eccentric ; it is decidedly foolish. And the new lords are fat, inactive and definitely less affluent.

The Earl of Emsworth and Lord Hoddesdon may be said to represent the two types. In the first place, the former has a more respectable name. Later names in Wodehouse tend to grow increasingly absurd. Secondly, where the former is merely eccentric, the latter is very much of an imbecile.

The superiority of the commoner over the aristrocrat is painted in firmer lines. Hoddesdon's son, Lord Biskerton (nicknamed, incidentally, the 'Biscuit"), is contrasted with Conway: the former's lethargy with the latter's alertness; the latter's capability with the former's general uselessness. And the nobility, as hinted at earlier, is now impoverished. Biskerton is in the habit of chasing his friends for fivers. Hoddesdon is in a chronic state of bankruptcy.

It is noticed that the idyllic settings have disappeared. Much of the action takes place in busy London. There is, fittingly, a new type of character, the rich industrialist from America, typified in T. Paterson Frisby, the " $T$ "' standing, we are informed confidentially, for Torquil.

It is significant that Wodehouse is more bitter towards the millionaire than he is towards the earl. The former is presented in all his miserly
meanness, not hesitating, in the case of Frisby, to blight the happiness of his niece for the love of his bank balance. Frisby's blatant betrayal of the trust Conway placed in him is painted in garish colours.

In contradistinction, Hoddesdon and Biskerton are things apart from the dyspeptic world of Frisby. They are comic, good natured, even loveable; only they are much too cloth-headed.

This introduction of the American millionaire into English society is a reflection of the social changes that took place in the England of the late thirties. It heralds the increasing hold of the American dollar over the English aristocrat. Wall Street financiers tend to enter the Wodehouse arena in increasingly unfavourable colours. Equally faithful is the picture of the American heiress, and her hold over the impoverished nobility of the day. Sir Arthur Conan Doyle had sung the same theme some years ago. It was already a favourite subject for journalistic banter. Wodehouse takes up cudgels with his inimitable witticisms and his unforgettable raillery.

As yet, the inferiority of Wodehouse's noble protagonist has been brought out in the domestic plane solely through domineering sisters and aunts. In later Wodehouse a new character-the butler or the valet-is introduced. This innovation serves to heighten the same effect. Mervyn Spink, a butler, is introduced as a butler who looks like a lord, while his master, a lord, looks disconcertingly like a butler. The Wodchonse butlers, and Beach is another example, identify themselves with their masters. In "Spring Fever", the earl hero in the concluding chapter is made to act the part of a butler in a Hollywood film. We leave him standing before a mirror, bowing to himself, and practising his new rôle.

Wodehouse's earl is now at his sorriest plight. The Wodehouse arena is now full of jelly-spined, cloth-headed, men-of-the-world, who are absolutely dependent on their valet-wizards. Jeeves is the prototype of these gentlemen's personal gentlemen. And in Jeeves Wodehouse has succeeded in creating a character who "lives", the essential test for a creative novelist.

It is significant that Wodehouse is the most popular lowbrow idol of present-day English literature. The years have seen in him a true reflection of the mass spirit--the general contempt for grey top-hats, the general disbelief in the intellectual superiority of the aristocrat over the commoner. Yet, an Englishman's attitude has no venom. He has an unconscious regard for age-old institutions that recall his mighty past. Wodehouse, the Englishman, has no venom either-only good-natured ridicule, and ridicule through an extremely effective medium. We see in him a rebirth of the tradition of Lambian humour, inaugurated with the much-talked-of and extremely loveable Whim Wham effusions.

One must keep in mind that Wodehouse's reflection of the mass mind remains a reflection; at no stage does he try to propagate a philosophy.

If he presents a definite point of view, he does so unconsciously-like a true child of his age.

In an estimate of Wodehouse's treatment of aristocracy, a quotation from De Quincey will not be out of place: "England owes much of her grandeur to the depth of the aristocratic element in her social composition, when pulling against her strong democracy. I am not the man to laugh at it. But sometimes, undoubtedly, it expressed itself in comic shapes." De Quincey, it is true, could not laugh at it. But for Wodehouse, much of that grandeur has worn away, and when he laughs, he does not have to protest that he is not laughing at it, but can laugh both openly and freely.

What S. E. Maltby says of the essays of Gardiner might very well be said of the writings of Wodehouse: "They are so sensible, and they are funny without being silly." For at bottom, if we come to think of it, we find it means that his writings have shown us "something in a true light, and yet have made the vision of the truth pleasant and not forbidding."

# Materialistic Interpretation of History 

Nitish Sen Gupta-Fifth Year Arts.

Nineteenth century European scholarship was more than a little nervous when the iconoclastic influences of Marxism invaded the field of historical thought, as that of every other branch of knowledge, seeming, as it actually did, to go counter to all fondly-cherished historical ideas. Since then Marxian historical thought has received increasing attention from the thinking part of mankind. And to-day, in the fitness of things there is a tussle between the Marxists and the so-called Idealists in the field of historical thought corresponding to the abysmal gulf dividing men in the fields of politics and culture. While the obvious limitations make it impossible to indulge in any criticism or appreciation of Marxian historiography, the following pages are intended to sketch a bare outline of the Marxist idea of history for laymen, confused amid a multiplicity of counteracting prejudices. Those well-versed in the subject must therefore be disappointed if they expect anything to feed their intellect.

The first thing to get clear is the idea of dialectical materialism which is undoubtedly the prop of the imposing edifice that is called Marxism. The genesis of this all-important principle is to be sought in the Hellenic civilisation where materialism first took its shape at the hands of philosophers like Anaxagorus and Democritus. This was parallelled by the growth of the idea of dialectics in a crude form. Eclipsed for millennia, both were revived in modern times, materialism by Bacon, Hobbes, Lock, Diderot and others, and dialectics shortly afterwards by Hegel. It was left for the genius of Marx to integrate these two thought-currents into noe organic whole. Dialectical materialism as understood by him proclaimed in the first. place that change takes place through the conflict and interaction of opposite forces and in the second place stood for the preeminence of matter over mind, of material forces over human ideas. Thus every object (thesis) in the process of transformation gives rise to an opposite tendency (anti-thesis) and the conflict between thesis and antithesis results in the emergence of a third thing (synthesis). Marxian dialectics, however, reflects a conflict of material forces and is thus thoroughly different from Hegel's dialectics which means the self-realization of the eternal Absolute Idea through the conflict of opposite ideas.

This law of nature, when applied to the study of history gives birth to historical materialism which recognizes change as a fundamental fact in history. Change, again, occurs at different speed in different environ-
ments. A long spell of very slow evolution is usually followed by a violent eruption through which the long-stored forces of change find release. Marxism thus regards revolution as an agent of progress.

A further feature of historical materialism is the assertion that historical development is determined ultimately by material forces which are taken to mean the material agents of production-tools and machinestogether with natural resources and the skill to operate them. Marx elucidated the entire process in the following lines. "In the social production of their livelihood men enter into definite social relations that are necessary and independent of their wills. . . . The sum total of these relations of production constitutes the economic structure of society, the real basis on which is reared a legal and political superstructure and to which correspond definite forms of social consciousness. . . . With the change in economic foundations the immense superstructure in its entirety is more or less rapidly transformed. In considering such transformation a distinction should be drawn between the material economic conditions of production that can be determined with the precision of natural science and the legal, political, religious, artistic, or in a word, ideological forms under which men become conscious of the conflict between the means of production and the relations of production." Thus, Marxist historical thought which has come to be known as the materialist or economic interpretation of history rejected the previous view that rested on the conception that all historical changes are rooted in the changing ideas of human beings and that political changes are the most important of all historical changes. Marx and Engels were the first to proclaim that all ideas have their origin in material conditions and these are to be laid bare in order to understand the driving force behind political and other changes.

This is, however, not to say that they totally denied the role of ideas and institutions in the course of history. Nor does Marxism regard economic factors as the only driving force behind history. "We make our own history," wrote Engels "but under very definite presuppositions and conditions. Among these the economic ones are finally decisive, but the political ones etc. and indeed the very traditions that haunt the human mind play a part, though not the decisive part." Thus, the ideas and institutions that sprang up under Bronze Age economy in Egypt played so important a part as a stumbling block to progress that the Egyptians clung to the older economy even long after the coming of the Iron Age which revolutionized the entire technique of production in other parts of the Mediterranean world. Historical materialism, to quote Stalin, "distinguishes between different kinds of ideas and theories. There are old ideas and theories which have outlived their day and serve the interest of moribund forces in society. Their significance lies in the way they hamper the development and progress of society. But there are new and advanced ideas that serve the advanced forces of society. Their significance lies in
the fact that they facilitate the progress of society and is the greater, the more accurately they reflect the needs of development of the material life of society. New social ideas and theories indeed arise only after the development of its material life has set new tasks before society. But once they have arisen, they become a most potent force which furthers the material progress of society. It is precisely here that the tremendous organizing, mobilizing, and transforming value of new ideas, new theories, new political institutions becomes manifest."

If history is, as Marxists hold, a dynamic process how then is change operative in it? This brings us to the well-known but often misunderstood conception of class-struggle. All history, declared Marx in 1848, has been a history of class struggles, that the moving force behind all the complicated political vicissitudes has been the division of society into classes, the domination by one of others, the resultant struggle and the final conquest of the class in power by some newly arising class. What is fundamental in this conception is not the widely held but erroneous notion that opposite classes have always been engaged in cut-throat conflicts, but rather the undeniable fact of the division of society into classes in all stages of history. These classes, on an analysis of the material environments, are found, almost invariably, to be the products of the actual modes of production and exchange in particular ages. Society is dominated by the class that controls the means of production. It thus constitutes itself as the ruling class and exploits the labour of other classes for its benefit.

The forces of production are, however, dynamic rather than static and through a slow and often imperceptible but steady process of evolution they tend to take on new shapes-so much so that the corresponding social relations are often found to be lagging behind. "From forms of development of the forces of production these relations turn into their fetters" (Marx). This contradiction between the changing material forces and the moribund social relations is paralleled by the fact of the downtrodden classes engaging in a struggle against the dominant class for a re-adjustment of social relations with the changed modes of production. The whole thing in most cases culminates in a revolution with which the long-postponed readjustment of social relations comes through the victory of a revolutionary class over a reactionary ruling class. Society thus progresses through the interaction of material forces and the consequent struggle between classes, just as every object of external nature evolves through a dialectical process.

By applying all these ideas, Marxist historians have been able to trace the evolution of society through five broad historical phases-primitive tribalism, slave society, feudalism, capitalism and socialism. In the first stage, which, strictly speaking, falls within the domain of prehistory rather than history proper, the natural dangers facing man, the immense
trouble in procuring the bare necessaries of livelihood and the meagre resources at his disposal forced him to live a 'communal life' based on joint effort to get food and joint appropriation of the same. Such a society, by nature, was bound to be one in which social classes could not arise. With the progress of humanity along the high road to civiliza-tion-the invention of agriculture, of pastoral farming and of the use of metals-social classes began to appear and at the dawn of history in all our known societies a smaller class of military or priestly aristocracy is found to rule over an incommensurately larger number of servile people. Slave-economy was the dominant feature of the ancient world and reached its apogee in classical Greece and Rome. The fall of the Roman Empire was more than a mere political happening; it was symptomatic of the collapse of the classical slave-economy and the beginning of a great transition that gave birth to a new social order known as feudalism which meant the replacement of slavery by serfdom. This order "rested on the selfsufficient economy of small peasant communities which themselves produced almost all their requirements in which there was almost no exchange and which received from the arms-bearing nobility protection from without and national or at least political cohesion."

Feudalism had its climax in the 12 th and 13 th centuries, but thereafter it began to decline with the gradual growth of various handicraft industries, of trade and commerce both on a capitalistic basis and the consequent emergence of a new class, the so-called bourgeoisie. The discovery of the extra-European world gave momentum to this Middle class by offering a far more extensive sphere of trade and exploitation. This class gradually came to combine social wealth and social power in its hands, though for a considerable time it did not assume political power. To conquer power from the feudal nobility, it had to wage three titanic battles -the Reformation in the 16th, the English Revolution in the 17th and the French Revolution in the 18 th centuries, though the rear-guards of the decadent order continued to dominate Eastern Europe even after this. Finally, the Industrial Revolution of the 19th century, itself very largely a product of the phenomenal accumulation of bourgeois wealth through the plunder of colonies made large-scale industry possible and gave the capitalist order its present shape. In Asiatic societies slave-economy had been replaced long before the corresponding change in Europe by a quasifeudal order, technically called Asiatic feudalism which did not quite resemble European feudalism in respect of external features but differed little fundamentally. The duration of Asiatic feudalism was far greater than that of its European counterpart and it was only in the 18th and the 19 th centuries that this ancient regime received its final death-blow by the impact of the expanding capitalist economy of the West.

The contradictions inherent in capitalism had meanwhile been increasingly in evidence through the increasing gulf between the capitalists
and the wage-earning classes, the periodical economic crises, the unending: hunt for colonial markets and the occurrence of imperialist wars at regular intervals. The mounting discontent of the labouring classes found expression in a series of uprisings that marked the history of the 19th century. All this, in the opinion of Marxist historians, signify a crisis in the old story of class struggle. The struggle between the capitalists and the proletariat, they further hold, must end in the victorious emergence of the latter and the establishment of a classless society through the conscious efforts of this revolutionary class. History is to reveal whether, or to what extent, they are correct in reading its course.

This, in short outline is the conception of history which Marx and Engels were the first to shape and which was subsequently expanded by others including such greatmen as Plekhanov, Lenin and Stalin. This revolution in historical thought was due to the discovery of the 'laws of motion' in history. 'Just as Darwin discovered the law of deveiopment of organic nature, so Marx found out the law of development of human society" (Engels). Historical materialism is the result of the application in the field of history of the general law which governs the behaviour of all matter and history as such becomes a scientific study of the evolution of human society rather than a conglomeration of isolated and accidental events. This is however not to say that historical materialism has managed to reduce history to a mechanical order. Its foremost exponent made allowances for unforeseen happenings disturbing all calculations, when he declared in 1871 that history would be of a very mystical nature, if accidents were not to play an important role. Thus though classless society is a fitting goal of history, it is by no means a goal to which history leads inevitably and fatally. It is precisely here that historical materialism lays emphasis on the role of human mind that can "set the problems of progress and solve them in conformity with the historical conditions of the epoch."

# Periodisation in Indian History ${ }^{1}$ 

Barun De-Fifth Year Arts.

British historians and their followers in writing Indian history have generally viewed it synthetically as a record of the subjugation of India to various forces and accordingly have grouped its eras into three major classifications-the Hindu Period, the Muslim Period and the British Period. If we accept this explanation of the nomenclature, then we find that one of the main objections to it is disposed of-that there is a discrepancy in the emphasis on each period, the first two being on a religious basis, and the third only, being on domination by some power. As a matter of fact, it appears that the older school of historians have actually named the periods after the races by which they believed India to have been ruled at that time. It is in this sense, that 'Hindu" is to be interpreted, as a synonym for that hybrid stock, which held sway in Northern India till the invasions of Muhanmad of Ghor, and which has been proved by A. M. T. Jackson, D. R. Bhandarkar and others to be an assimilation of the various races which have poured into India in her early history. Similarly, the term 'Muslim' is convenient as denoting a religious group in which the Ilbatis, Khiljis, Tughlaks, Afghans and Chagtai Turks may be lumped. They were no more ethnologically a single group than they were in religion. Needless to say, the same disparities existed, though in a minimized form among the British rulers of modern India. But though there is no contradiction in the terms of this classification, the underlying idea that the history of India is to be explained by the implicit imperialism of various races over her is clearly untenable. It seems to have arisen from a self-justificatory attempt of the British historians to bring their actual imperialism in line with a continuous but fictitious trend. It is unfortunate that some backdated historians still try to perpetuate the legend.

Besides, we find that in each of these arbitrary periods, other racegroups like the Tamils and other southerners in the first, and the Marathas in the second, have held equal sway. The very theory of imperialism by one race-group being the dominant factor in Indian history seems negated by facts. Are we then to say that the Andhras and the Salankayanas, the Chalukyas and the Cholas and the Pallavas played no part in Indian history? For this is what it amounts to, if we do not class

[^22]them all as Hindus, simply on the basis of their religion, which would create a contradiction (already referred to) with the other two periods. The domination of North over South is implied in the old classification and will not, we believe, be always bonne out by facts.

On the other hand, if we do acknowledge the old periods on the basis suggested by their propagators, a close analysis will show that between the so-called periods, an interval of political flux has invariably intervened. A study of Dr. H. C. Raychaudhuri's interesting chapter on the Sorasa Mahajanapadas in ancient Northern India (in his "Political History of Ancient India) demonstrates that these years were a period of change from primitive oligarchical or popular democracy to simple monarchy, somewhat, though not completely, of the type we find in ancient Greece. All over Northern India, in Kasi, Kosala, Avanti and most of all in Magadha, strong men like Chanda Pradyota and Bimbisara were concentrating the sovereignty in their own hands, from the clans and sects who had so long held it in actuality. This period was ultimately to lead to the wider one of imperialism of one state, i.e. Magadha and much later, of Kanyakubja over all the others. Again this is followed by the disruption of the 'Rajput'" period, when various clans, each forming a monarchy in itself, wrestled for supremacy. The same process also took place in the Deccan, although under a different form of polity. This was the period, in which, as we hope to show, the beginnings of a quasifendal system were laid to continue through the early part of the so-called Mushim Period. Again, the period from, say, Muhammad Tughlaq, to Akbar may correspond to a similar transitional period, for reasons which will be demonstrated hereafter. So we find that the Hindu, the Muslim and the British Period are each composed of a transitional phase and one of imperial expansion. Separatism rather than imperialism is the dominant feature of Indian history, and men like Samudragupta or Akbar shine out because they are so rare in comparison to the many rulers who have aimed at local independence.

It therefore appears that the old classification of periods is untenable. Now this gives rise to a second question-what is the true criterion for the periodisation of Indian history? Three general criteria have often been suggested-religious, political and economic. A cursory analysis of the old classification may lead us to believe that Indian history has been judged by the religious criterion: in fact a writer once called the British Period, the Christian Period. But an adoption of this criterion would force us to take a false view of Indian history, and it may be discarded without further thought. The economic criterion has been used to classify European history, and it may be desirable, in some cases to apply it to India. The fact that the only major socio-economic change that India has seen is the transposition of a colonial, capitalist economy on her dying, village culture, by the British, is, of course, incontrovertible. But this
can, by no means, lead us to believe that there were thus only two major periods in Indian history, the Pre-British and the British. Though no single era may be distinguished in which violent economic changes occurred, yet we may easily see that Indian economy was slowly progressing, and in the period of the Mughals, had been divested of much of the form that it had in the Gupta age. Therefore, although we need not challenge what some scholars still cherish as the fundamental unity of Indian culture through the ages, it is up to us to demarcate its subdivisions. Since no marked economic criterion for the pre-British ages has yet been found, we must fall back on a study of the socio-polity of India, which as we hope to demonstrate, has undergone three major changes. An analysis of Indian economy will, of course, sometimes prove useful in such a study. We would therefore propose three general periods for Indian history-Ancient, Mediaeval and Modern--the names are, of course, used because they are free from any special bias for any one criterion. They have the added virtue of familarity to all students of history, but we must not be led into the common error of drawing any parallelism between Indian and European history, simply on this ground. It is difficult to get better names and so Ancient, Mediaeval and Modern must stand for the time being. We shall show that they are by no means identical to the Hindu, Muslim and British periods.

Little light has been thrown on the dawn of the ancient period. There are indeed large scale evidences of the settled, pastoral Mohenjo-Daro-Harappa culture spread over the Punjab, Rajputana and Sind. But this seems to have been only a regional culture and cannot be definitely proved to have had any concrete influence in Indian history, except perhaps in the sphere of religion. We can, perhaps, afford to leave out the Mohenjo-Daro civilisation in a generalised discussion of trends in Indian history, until such time, when it will be conclusively proved that there has been a continuous development from Mohenjo-Daro to the present day. This has really begun with the Aryan settlement. It was the clash of the Aryan nomadic tribes, mainly hunters and warriors with the primitive Dravidian culture, which produced a sort of fixed tribal polity all over India, even down to the Godavari and Krishna, and for all we know, beyond. The primitive Aryans did not have this polity. They had enjoyed a kind of primitive communism (of course in the widest sense of the word), but their socio-economy became complicated in contact with the Dravidians. There was a process, spread over several centuries, involving the decay of democratic life, and ultimately we find tribal chieftainship yielding place to monarchy on a separatist basis, tending sometimes towards the imperialism of the Magadhas, the Mauryas, the Satavahanas and the Guptas.

A decay of the forces governing their period is visible even during the time of Harsha. Of course, as Dr. H. C. Ray has so ably shown
in his introduction to the Dynastic History of Northern India, the Gurjara Pratiharas were the last of the great Indian emperors, and the Rajput age properly begins after Mahipala in 916. It has therefore been acknowledged that the ancient age ends politically with the Pratiharas in the north and the Rastrakutas in the south. The question now arises whether this "Rajput" age may be classed in the Ancient Period or within the Mediaeval Period. It ought to be noted that we do not mean to ascribe any arbitrary date for this new transitional period. The germs of it are visible in the centuries between Harsa and the Pratiharas. Profound changes seem to have been taking place in Indian polity as well as in her moral and social life. Sankaracharya and later on Rananuja are landmarks in Indian religion, and it is certain that the Gupta Age witnessed a reform in the way of life of most Indians. Besides the leaven of various invading races like the Sakas, Kushanas, Haihayas and Gurjaras had already begun to work in Indian society. One of these changes in the social polity is to be witnessed in the administrative system. We find, all over Northern India, up to the Deccan, a revival of the clan system, presided over by a chief, who was responsible for his people and his lands to his king. This is what we might perhaps term "Samantratantra" or quasi-feudal organisation. It has been interpreted by some as simple continuation of the administrative set-up of the Mauryas and Guptas. Whereas the "mahamatyas" the "rajukas" or the "ayukta" had been officials of the king, who were appointed by him for a certain tenure, the petty "Paramesvaras" or "Parama Bhattaraka Mahipala"s about whom we hear, say in the Vodamayuta Inscription of the 12th century or in the Inscriptions of the Kalacuris of Gorakhpur clearly show a feudatory system of administration, by which the clan chiefs held a certain territory, possibly in military tenure from their king, and by which petty dynasties carried on the local government, while the monatchs co-ordinated the government. A different age is definitely coming into existence. Quasifeudalism is the basic feature of the early Mediaeval Age and continued in full swing during the best part of the so-called Muslim Period. As a matter of fact, the Chandellas and Kacchapaghatas, the Gahadavalas and the Guhilas are an earlier manifestation of the same socio-political system which we find in the epoch of the Delhi Sultanate. All the Sultans up to Alauddin Khalji rule on the lines of centralised feudal monarchs. Their Iqtas governed by Muqtis (commandants) are incipient examples of the military tenure, which developed into jagirs, in the later sense, a complete example of the mediaeval European "feod" in the landholding sense of the term. Their provincial military levies and their linking of church and state are as near an approach to feudalism as has been achieved in India. Of course the very use of the term "quasi-feudal" shows that we do not mean to explain this polity on the lines of European development but there was a certain similarity, though in India it was more a form
of polity than an economic organisation considered in its essentials. At any rate we may group the Rajput Period with the rise of Muslim imperialism in India on a quasi-feudal basis and name the whole period Mediaeval.

There is a current conception that the Mughal. Empire forms part of the Mediaeval Age. This has probably arisen from the mistaken identification of the so-called Muslim Period with the Mediaeval Period and the justifiable inclusion of the Mughals in the former. An idea that all that is modern in India had its origin with the British may have resulted in the rejection of the Mughal Age from the Modern Period. Besides modern religious biases often delude students of history into the belief that all that is Muslim is mediaeval in nature.

Quasi-feudalism in India was collapsing at the time of Panipat and the forces of transition, which were to usher in the Modern Age had already come into being. A tendency towards individualism in personal thought, an "emancipation of reason", and a synthesis of culture are visible in the potent Bhakti cults, which sweeping across the whole of India, influenced Indian life much more than did religion. There was a revolt against the mediaeval subjugation to ecclesiastical authority and the overriding group consciousness as personified by caste. There was everywhere an atmosphere of discontent as may be studied in the popular message of the Bengali poet Mukundaram Chakravarti in "Kavikankan Chandi" or in Tukaram's Maratha ballads. A little thought will show us that this discontent was one of the exploited classes against the parasitical nobility.

It may be admitted that Mughal centralisation stifled the awakening of the lower class in about the same way as the bourgeoisie were kept down in France before the Revolution. But the tendencies of middleclass unrest seem to have been there. It is India's misfortune, that when she was weakened by the fall of the Mughal empire the British found in her, a fit ground for colonial exploitation. But the fact remains that in the Mughal Period, the Indian people, were, it might be unconsciously, awaking to a sense of their destiny. This period cannot certainly be classified as mediaeval and many of its achievements directly affect our lives. It is the dawn of the Modern Age.

The history of its rulers bears this out. Babar and Humayun might have followed the tradition of the Sultanate but the Modern Age really begins with Akbar. His mansabdari system was instituted to make the semi-feudal armies unnecessary and bind the nobles more firmly to their king. It dealt a blow to the jagirdar against whom Akbar fought all his life. He also struck at the mediaeval ulema and the old revenue system. Shahjahan might have followed a somewhat mediaeval policy, both ecclesiastical and military, but his was a temporary reaction. Aurangzeb's bigotry, thirst for uniformity and extension of frontiers were no less
modern than those of his contemporary Louis XIV. There is nothing mediaeval about the nationalist aspirations of Sivaji.

We cannot equate the British Period with the Modern Age. It is only a phase of the Modern Period which ended two hundred years later with the British conquest which in its entirety represents only that part which saw the rise of a colonial economy, stultifying the true course of Indian history and leaving behind a legacy of extra-national monopoly capitalism, which is even now showing signs of decay. We are, perhaps, ourselves in a period of transition of supreme untest, which will be classed by future historians as the beginning of a new period in which liberty in its truer economic and political sense will prevail.

## Sports and Presidency College

Surya Kumar Chat'terji ${ }^{1}$-Sixth Year Arts.

There is a saying that Presidency College only reads and does not play. And there are people who believe this to be true. But it happens to be a myth. Mythology is a fascinating subject and people can, pertinently, be curious as to how this myth had grown up about a College which had sent out an Abbas and a Ram Bhattacharya in football, a Probir Sen and a Nirmal Chatterji in cricket, and a Dilip Bose in tennis, to mention only a few. Of course we have our limitations but we have our strong points too. A discussion about the place of sports in Presidency College has to deal with the facilities that we have, the way we avail ourselves of them and any possible improvement that may be introduced.

Our elaborately organised sports section is obviously one of our strong points. There is a council of elected representatives from the different classes. It elects its own General-Secretary and sectional secretaries. It is expected of these secretaries that they should know their jobs thoroughly. Otherwise the interest of sports suffers grievously. But these days we find the evil spirit of party politics frequently manages to place men in charge of things for which they have neither aptitude nor enthusiasm. It is up to the students to see that right men go to the right jobs. In the field of sports that is the paramount consideration.

[^23]The facilities that we have are ample. We have our different sections for football, cricket, hockey, tennis, rowing and the small area games. And we possess that wonderful thing that Calcutta Colleges can rarely boast of. We have our own playground. We spend a good portion of our Athletic budget each year to keep the turf of the Baker Laboratory ground in proper shape.

Amongst us football and cricket are the two most popular games. In football we generally manage to do well. We do not win trophies frequently, it is true. But in the Inter-Collegiate Leagues and knock out tournaments we are regarded as a "shock team". Only last year we fought our way up to the final of the Hardinge Birthday Challenge Shield tournament and were the runners-up. In the process we had the measure of such formidable opponents as the Bangabasi and the City Colleges. We do not have any really outstanding players but all this we did through sheer combination and teamspirit.

In cricket, too, for the last few years we have fielded a strong eleven. Our boys take a great deal of interest in this particular game and often in the cricket season crowded borders of the Baker Laboratory ground enigmatically announce the existence of deserted class rooms elsewhere.

In both football and cricket we run our inter-class tournaments which evoke keen interest. The arrangements for practice are competent. But we do wish they would do something to allow us to have some cricket practice during the Pujas. The selection of players is generally fair. But, of course, pleasant relations with the powers that be can always tear huge gaps in the defence of fair play.

These days, we regret to note, Presidency College has not a single representative in our university elevens. Our standard is certainly not so bad as to merit this exclusion. We could suggest two other reasons which would explain why we are not there. The University Sports Board wants all the players to be attached to some club or other. This for our students with whom games are merely recreation, is impossible. And of course mere fitness as a player is not the only criterion by which players are selected. This is a rule we find operating everywhere and the 'Varsity Sports Board is, perhaps, no exception.

The standard of hockey has deteriorated sadly. When we were in our Intermediate classes our hockey team simply swept everything before it. There was a particular season when we remained unbeaten throughout. But that was the end of our glory. The hockey season finds our students busy with their examinations and it becomes difficult to interest them. Nevertheless, we noted with satisfaction, our hockey-secretary aroused keen interest by his untiring efforts last season.

Sport lovers of Presidency College literally reeled when at the general meeting of the Athletic Council, last year, it was resolved that the two departments of Tennis and Rowing would be kept in abeyance for
lack of popular support and enthusiasm. Both these sections have fine tradition and rich memory. The fee for temnis is Rs. 10/- a year. This is incredibly low as compared to what one has to pay in the ordinary clubs. It is difficult to believe that it is impossible to get some fifteen people together who would be interested enough to pay this trifle. About the rowing section this step is even more difficult to explain. We are paying an annual sum of a hundred and fifty rupees as registration fee. Is this money going to be wasted? It is true the boys from North Calcutta find it difficult to attend. But has not the South enough of our students to allow us to run this?

Basket ball, revived after a long time in 1950-51, has failed to evoke enthusiasm. Volley-ball and badminton carry on a quiet but nonetheless useful existence. Our annual sports meets ate as colourful as ever. On this day the presence and participation of our girls are two very heartening features. Incidentally we can note with justifiable pride the excellent feats of our all round athlete Sri Probir Guha Thakurta in the InterCollegiate Sports Meet as well as in the Bengal Olympics.

This we believe is not at all an indifferent record. But of course there is room for improvement. The grant for our sports section can very profitably be increased. We really need it. To give only one illustration of how well the money can be spent we can point out the utility of a Coaching Scheme. Such a scheme if undertaken on an all round basis would prove invaluable. And finally, we should urge our authorities to relax the restrictions recently imposed on the process of admission. If they can not consent to the admission of sportsmen solely on the ground of their proficiency at games, they can surely stop insisting on high first division marks as an absolutely necessary qualification. We have our wonderful team spirit but the presence of a few outstanding performers can make just that difference which would enable us to place our college amongst the leaders in the sports map.

## The Alumni Association

1953 has been an eventful year for the Presidency College Alumni Association. There have been a number of social gatherings in true festive atmospheres: a steamer party in March and a play presented by Sri Ramindra Maitra and other members in October (Sri Pratap Chunder Chunder's 'Prajapati" in the University Institute Hall) could find even the most careworn of the alumni relaxing.

During the year the Association has gathered strength in many ways. It has now its own office room, and some very good work has been done towards compiling the College old boys' register. The membership figures are rising and they are already in the zone of seven hundred.
${ }^{3}$ But the Association has also passed through moments of poignant sorrow, when it grieved for the loss of some of its most beloved alumni ; and of despair, as when the members followed in helpless anguish those fateful events in distant Kashmir, their vice-president's detention and then, the ultimate tragedy.

Those members whom we have lost during the year we have mentioned below, but the list may not be complete, for sometimes the news may not have reached us. To the departed alumni we offer our tributes of affection and respect.

Sri Hirala1 Chakravarty, Sri Nirmal Chunder Chunder, Sri Phanindranath De, Sri Satish Chandra Sinha, Dr. Shyamaprasad Mukherji and Sri Kalyan Kumar Basu.

## PRESIDENCY COLLEGE MAGAZINE

## Editors :

1914-15 Pramatha Nath Banerjee, B.A.
1915-16 Mohit Kumar Sen Gupta, B.A. 1916-17 Mohit Kumar Sen Gupta, B.A. 1917-18 Saroj Kumar Das, B.a.
1918-19 Amiya Kumar Sen, B.A.
$1919-20$ Mahmood Massan, B.A.
1920-21 Phroze E. Dastoor, B.A.
1921-22 Syama Prasad Mookerjee, B.A.
$1921-22$ Brajakanta Guha, B.A.
1922-23 Uma Prasad Mookerjee
1923-24 Subode Chandra Sen Gupta
$1924-25$ Subodh Chandra Sen Gupta, B.A.
1925-26 Asit Krishna Mukherjfe, B.A.
1926-27 Humayun Z. A. Kabir, B.A.
1927-28 Hirendra Nath Mukherjee, B.A.
1928-29 Sunit Kumar Indra, B.A.
1929-30. Taraknath Sen, B.A.
1930-31 Bhabatosh Datta, B.A.
1931-32 Ajir Nath Roy, B.A.
1932-33 Sachindra Kumar Majumdar, B.A.
1933-34 Nikhilnath Chakravarty, B.A.
1934-35 Ardhendu Baksi, B.A.
1935-36 Kalidas Lahiri, B.A.
1936-37 Asok Mitra, B.A.
1937-38 Bimal Chandra Sinha, B.A.
1938-39 Pratap Chandra Sen, B.A.
1938-39 Nirmal Chandra Sen Gupta, B.A.
1939-40 A. Q. M. Mahiuddin, B.A.
1940-41 Manilal Banerjee, B.A.
1941-42 Arun Banerjee, B.A.
1942-46 No publication due to Govt. Circular Re. Paper Economy
1947-48 Sudhindranath Gupta, B.A.
1948-49 Subirkumar Sen, B.A.
1949-50 Dilipkumar Kar, B.A.
1950-51 Kamalkumar Ghatak, B.A.
1951-52 Sipra Sarkar, B.A.
1952-53 Arun Kumar Das Gupta, B.A.
1953-54 Ashin Das Gupta, B.A.

## Secretaries :

1914-15 Jogesh Chandra Chakravarti, B.A.
1915-16 Prafulla Kumar Sircar, B.A.
1916-17 Prafulla Kumar Sircar, B.A.
1917-18 Rama Prasad Mukhopadhyay, B.A.
1918-19 Mahmood Hassan, B.A.
1919-20 Paran Chandra Gangooli, B.A.
1920-21 Shyama Prasad Mookerjee
$1921-22$ Brmal Kumar Bhattacharyya
1921-22 Uma Prasad Mookerjee
1922-23 Akshay Kumar Sircar
1923-24 Bimala Prasad Mukherjee
1924-25 Bijoy Lal Lahiri
1926-27 Lokes Chandra Guha Roy
1927-28 Sunit Kumar Inora
1928-29 Syed Mahbub Murshed
1929-30 Ajit Nath Roy
1930-31 Ajit Nath Roy
1931-32 Nirmal Kumar Bhattacharjee
1932-33 Nirmal Kumar Bhattacharjee
1933-34 Girindra Nath Chakravarti
1934-35 Sudhir Kumar Ghosh
1935-36 Provat Kumar Sircar
1936-37 Arun Kumar Chandra
1937-38 Ram Chandra Mukherjee
1938-39 Abu Sayeed Chowdhury
$1939-40$ Bimal Chandra Datta, B.A.
1940-41 Prabhat Prasun Modak, B.A.
1941-42 Golam Karim
1942-46 No publication due to Govt. Circular Re. Paper Economy
1946-47 Jibanlal Dev
1947-48 Nirmal Kumar Sarkar
448-49 Bangendu Gangopadhyay
1949-50 Sourindramohan Chakravarty
1950-51 Manas Mukutmani
1951-52 Kalyan Kumar Das Gupta
1952-53 Jyotirmoy Pal Chaudhuri
1953-54 Prodip Kumar Das.


[^0]:    
    
    

[^1]:    ) প্ত্তন ছাত্র (2৯৪৯-৫s)

[^2]:    S. C
    Prof. Suniti in II
    0
    0 4. \%
    
    ?
    号
    艺 Prof.-in-Charge, Deba 0
    5
    0
    0
    0
    0
    0
    0
    0
    0 든
    Row (Left to right)—Bata Krishna De (Vice-President, Prof. (Prof.-in-Charge Bhattactary spmstg qifues Parish
    Secy.).
    

[^3]:    
    

[^4]:    
     ছা凸গๆ।
    
    
    
    

[^5]:    ${ }^{1}$ So runs the burden of Dr. Rajendra Prasad's address to the last Convocation of the Calcutta University. It has equally unflattering echoes in the strictures of Mr. Nehru and Dr. Radhakrishnan.

[^6]:    'Alumnus : 1946-48.

[^7]:    The great secret of morals is love; or a going out of our own nature, and an identification of ourselves with the beantiful which exists in thought, action of person, not our own. A man, to be greatly good, must imagine intensely and comprehensively; he must put himself in the place of another and of many others; the pains and pleasures of his species must become his own. The great instrument of moral good is the imagination; and poetry administers to the effect by acting upon the cause.

[^8]:    ${ }^{1}$ Alumnus : 1938-42.
    14

[^9]:    ${ }^{1}$ Ex-aluminus.

[^10]:    ${ }^{1}$ The Editor's Acknowledgments (Dawn, June, 1899).

[^11]:    ${ }^{2}$ Tattva-bodhini Patrika was founded in 1843 by Debendra Nath Tagore (1817. 1905) with Akshay Kumar Datta (1820-1886) as the Editor (1843-1855). It was at organ of Tattva-bodhini Sabha of Debendranath Tagore, founded in 1839.

    Banga-darshan was founded in 1872 by Bankim Chatterjee (1838-1894) who edited it for four years and then for the next six years it was edited by his elder brother, Sanjiv Chatterjee.

[^12]:    ${ }^{1}$ Zulfikar Khan, a Mughal noble in the later years of Aurangzeb's reign, first became prominent for his methods of fighting the Marathas. In an age when huge Mughal armies were cut up by the mobile Maratha columns, he employed the guerilla tactics of warfare to combat their light cavalry. His capture of Jinji is one of the main Mughal triumphs in poliorcetics. Zulfiqar later became almost the kingmaker in the reigns of Bahadur Shah and Jahandar Shah, and met a violent end.
    ${ }^{2}$ Kacchwaha is the clan name and must not be confused with Kaccheara which is the tract of territory they inhabited.

[^13]:    ${ }^{3}$ Ramesh Chandra Dutt in his 'Maharashtra Jeevan Prabhat' has given a fantiful account of this interview. Both the Mirza Raja and Shivaji are made to bandy high-sounding nationalistic jargon, highly anachronistic with the real circumstances. But the author has given a vivid picture of the Raja as a typical Raiput with ${ }^{6}$ flowing white beard and majestic appearance. An authentic picture of the Mirza Raja was displayed in the Annual Exhibition of the Royal Asiatic Society of Bengal in 1951 by Mr. S. K. Saraswati. It is an 18th century painting, and is said to be "characteristic of his forceful personality".

[^14]:    4 Tod tells a story of the Mirza Raja in his cups, holding two glasses of wine in his hands, and while crushing one, vaunting "Here goes Satara ; I hold the fate of Delhi in my hands and can deal with it in like manner." Tod has blundered into his usual inaccuracy, for Satara was the Maratha capital long after Shivaji's time, but Jai Singh seems to have had an inflated opinion of his power in the Mughal empire. The hollowness of the vaunt is all too patent.

[^15]:    "I am indebted to Tod's "Annals and Antiquities of Rajasthan" (Crooke's Edition) and to Sir Jadunath Sarkar's larger edition of the 'History of Aurangzeb' for materials for the preparation of this article. All unspecified quotations are from Sir Jaduath Sarkar's work. The quotation in footnote 3 is from the Yearbook of the Asiatic Society for 1950.

[^16]:    * Alumnus : 1945-51.

[^17]:    

[^18]:    ${ }^{1}$ Please give us a chance to do something which may please you. When you form a study group try and tell us about it so that your journal can take up an important aspect of the academic life not covered by your secretaries' reports-IIn.

[^19]:    ${ }^{2}$ Prof. Giles in the spring issue of the Anglo-Soviet Journal, 1952.
    ${ }^{3}$ They may not be as clever as Prof. Dobinson, who points out that Kussia vould do it only through the coercive power that it exercises [British Journal of Educational Studies, May, 1953]. The force of the argument is tellingly driven lome when we consider that nothing would scandalize the British Government more han any idea of using coercion in one of its colonies.

[^20]:    *This note was written before the students, 'apparently under the influence of external agencies', dared defy our authorities, who religiously put them down at Lucknow and elsewhere.

[^21]:    ${ }^{1}$ We had asked for and received this article from Sj. Datta a few months back. We intended to publish it in the second issue of our last session. But that issue itself could not be published. In the meantime the thoughts expressed here appeared as a chapter in Sj . Datta's book For Democracy. The article is now published here with his kind consent.-Editor.

[^22]:    ${ }^{2}$ Originally read at a meeting of the College History Seminar on the 25th September, 1953. Slight additions and alterations have been made in clarification of certain points.

[^23]:    ${ }^{1}$ For unavoidable reasons we conld not give any report fron the Athletic Committee. We hope this arlicle will cover the ground adequately. Sj . Chatterji was the Rowing Secretary (1949-50) and the General Secretary for Athletics (1950-51). He is now a member of the Athletic Committee.-Editor.

