Members of the Special Committee on Education

1. Dr. C. W. W. Kannangara, Minister for education, Ceylon
2. Mr. L. McD. Robison, Director of Education.[1]
3. Mr. H. S. Perera, Acting Director of Education.
4. Mr. E. L. Bradby, Principal, Royal College.
5. The Rev. Fr. M. J. LeGoc, Retired Rector, St. Joseph's College.
6. Mr. P. de S. Kularathne, M.S.C., Retired principal, Ananda College.
7. Mr. S. Shivapadarsundaram, Retired Principal, Victoria College.
8. The Rev. R. W. Stopford, Retired Principal, Trinity College.[2]
9. Mr. S. Natesan, M.S.C., Principal, Parameswara College.
10. Mt. T. B. Jayah, M.S.C., Principal, Zahira College.
11. Mr. A. Rathnayake, M.S.C.
12. Mr. H. W. Amarasuriya, M.S.C.[3]
13. Mr. D. Wanigasekara, M.S.C.[4]
14. Mr. G. A. H. Wille, M.S.C.
15. Mr. A. R. A. Razik, M.S.C.[5]
16. Major E. A. Nugawela, M.S.C.
17. Mr. S. A. Pakeman, Retired Professor of History, University College.[6]
18. Dr. G. P. Malalasekaera, Professor of Sanskrit, Pali and Sinhalese, University of Ceylon
19. Mr. G. K. W. Perera
20. Mr. N. Nadarajah, K.C.
21. The Rev. R. S. de Saram, Warden, St. Thomas' college.
22. Mr. J. C. Amarasingham, principal, Sinnatamby Training School.
23. Dr. W. I. Jennings, Vice- Chancellor, University of Ceylon.
24. Dr. H. de Soyza

Secretary: Mr. K. Alvappillai, C.C.S.

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[1] Resigned on retirement from the post of Director of Education in May, 1943.
[2] Resigned on retirement from the post of Principal, Trinity College, in January, 1941.
[3] Resigned on leaving the executive Committee of Education on June 2, 1942.
[4] Resigned on leaving the executive Committee of Education on February 20, 1942.
[5] Became member on transfer to the executive Committee of Education from February 10, 1942.
[6] Resigned on retirement from the post of Professor of History, Ceylon University College.

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PREFACE

On June 11, 1936, the following motion moved by Major E. A. Nugawela, M.S.C. in the State Council was referred to the Executive Committee of education under Standing Order 57: -

"That in the opinion of this Council, a Commission should be appointed, under the Chairmanship of an expert from abroad, to report upon the existing system of education in Ceylon, and having regard to the changed conditions of the day and the future development of the country, to recommend the needed changes."

At a meeting of the State Council held on May 19, 1938, the following motion of Mr. D. Wanigasekera was moved and referred to the Executive Committee of Education: -

> "It is the opinion of this Council that the entire education system and policy prevailing in this country should be examined and reported upon by a Commission of educational experts with a view to evolving a system suited to the needs and requirements of this country."

Major Nugawela's motion was considered by the Executive Committee on various dates between August 4, 1936, and September 9, 1937. The majority of the members of the Committee who were no doubt aware of the pressing nature of the question of educational reform did not think that the solution lay in the appointment of a Commission of the kind envisaged in the above two motions. In July, 1937, the Board of Ministers, having had under consideration the rapid increase in educational expenditure during the decade 1927-37, proposed to his Excellency the officer Administering the Government that the Secretary of state for the Colonies should be asked to appoint a Commission from England to report on the system of education in the Island with special reference to its financial aspects. This proposal of the Board was announced by the Leader of the State council at the time of the Introduction of the Budget for the financial year 1937-38 in the following words: -

> "The problem of education is always with us and is likely to trouble us for many years to come. If you look at the estimates you will find the bill this year has increased by Rs. 2,211,887 and we do not know what the bill will be next year or the year after. This question has engaged the attention of the Board of Ministers for some time and they have come to the conclusion that the whole situation must be examined and reviewed by an independent authority. Some device must be found for controlling this expenditure so that it may be within the capacity of the country to bear. "

The proposal of the board was referred to the Executive Committee for its views. On August 17, 1937, the Executive Committee discussed the necessity for a Commission. Various opinions were expressed and the Committee tentatively agreed that –

(a) a commission was necessary,
(b) it should be appointed from outside,
(c) it should consist of two experts, one of them having a knowledge of the national aspects of the educational problem,
(d) not only its financial aspects but also the educational policy in general should be included in its scope,
(e) it should be immediately appointed.

The views of the Executive Committee on this subject cannot, however, be said to have definitely crystallized at this stage. On August 31, 1937, the State Council considered in Committee the budget provision for the ensuing year for the expenses of Commissions and Committees. In reply to questions by members the ministers explained that they proposed to recommend the appointment of an Education Commissions. The questions indicated a certain amount of opposition to such a Commission and a reduction in the vote by a sum of Rs. 15,000 moved by Mr. H. R. Freema, M.S.C. was agreed to. The Executive Committee had no alternative but to consider this decision of council as an expression of its disapproval of the proposal for an Education Commission and on September 9, 1937, whilst reconsidering Major Nugawela's motion as well as the suggestion made Board of Ministers, arrived at the following decision which is quoted *in extenso.*

> "On the matter being mentioned by the Minister for Education the proposal to obtain a Commission on Education from abroad was reconsidered. Simultaneously commission from the Legal Secretary inquiring whether the Education Bill should be proceeded with forthwith in spite of the likelihood of changes in educational policy as a result of the findings of the proposed Commission was also considered. It was resolved by a majority that a Commission on Education was not necessary and the drafting of the Education Bill should be proceeded with without further delay. The Minister for Education and Mr. Wille were in favor of the whole system of education being investigated by an outside certain necessary Commission and, in the meantime, of putting through necessary amendments to the existing Education Ordinance with a view to tightening up control over the administration of Assisted Schools."

A report on the above lines was made to the State Council. While this was considered by the Council on February 23, 1939, Mr. R. S. S. Gunawardena, M.S.C., moved an amendment to the motion deleting the words "from abroad". The motion as amended was referred back to the Executive Committee. The Executive Committee saw no reason to change its attitude in the appointment of a Commission either local or outside and on April 4, 1940, pass the following resolution: -

> "The Executive Committee by a majority re-affirmed its earlier decision that no Commission on education was necessary and further decided that the task of investigating the defects of the present educational system and recommending measures of reform necessitated by the changed conditions should be under taken by the Executive Committee itself with the assistance of educational experts already available in the country. For this purpose, it was resolved to form Special Committee consisting of all the members of the Executive Committee willing to serve thereon and the following persons: -
>
> The Director of education
> The Principal, Training College
> The Principal, royal College
> The Rev. Fr. M. J. LeGoc
> Mr. P. de S. Kularatne
> Mr. S. Shivapadasundaram
> The Rev. R. W. Stopford, and
> Major E. A. Nugawela, M.S.C.
>
> The procedure for setting about the investigation of the existing system of education and the formulation of the necessary measures of reform was left for decision by the Special Committee themselves"

2. In pursuance of the above resolution the present Special Committee on Education was constituted. At meeting held on May 31, 1940, the Executive Committee resolved to co-opt Mr. S. A. Pakeman, the then Acting Principal University College, and Dr. G. P. Malalasekera Professor of Sanskrit, Pali and Sinhalese, University College. Mr. G. K. W. Perera and the Rev. R. S. de Saram were co-opted to the Committee on September 27, 1940. Mr. N. Nadarajah, K. C. Advocate, was co-opted on October 18, 1940. On the resignation of the Rev. R. W. Stopford, Mr. J. C. Amarasingham was appointed in his place with effect from January 23, 1941. Dr. W. I. Jennings, Principal, University College (now Vice-Chancellor of the University of Ceylon) was co-opted with effect from June 3, 1941.

3. As a stray critic or two has thought it fit to denounce in the press or where the decision of the Executive Committee as intended to cover up whitewash the sins of omission and commission of its own administration if it

is necessary to say a few words in vindication of the step taken by the Executive Committee. It is easily conceded that an educational system grows rapidly out of date in a world of rapidly changing values. It is particularly so in Ceylon where political, social and economic development has in the past been slow and conditioned to a large extent by the interests of imperial or colonial policy. In these circumstances a periodical stocktaking at least every ten years is absolutely necessary. Besides, the educational system of Ceylon as that of India has grown haphazard and to a great extent without plan or purpose. It is unfortunate that, although several Commissions or Committees had been appointed on various occasions to investigate and report on particular aspects of the educational problem at no stage was a comprehensive review of the entire educational system made. Neither was any attempt made to found a national system of education. To explain what a national system of education is I might quote the following: -

"A successful national system of education must arise out of and be adopted to the ethos of the national concerned."[7] Signs of a national consciousness are a recent manifestation in Ceylon and as much it was impossible in the nature of things for the administrators of the past to think in terms of a national system. Education, however, is the key to any national reawakening and the only way of escape from the vicious circle- no education, no national reawakening, no national system of education was for the national leaders to have agitated for a national system. This our leaders failed to do in the past or were prevented from doing by their pre-occupation with other questions concerning the Island's welfare. Years of neglect during which a system of education sprang up *laissez-faire* more to meet the needs of colonial administration than to aid the economic and cultural progress of the community had to be made good. It would be useful to record here the important investigations into educational problems and allied questions undertaken since the British connection by various Commissions or Committees. They are given here in tabulated form: -

Commission or Committee.	Date of Appointment.		No. and Date of Sessional Paper Containing the Report and Subject.
Royal Commission of Inquiry	1830	…	
Committee of the Legislative Council	1865	…	Education – Sessional Paper VIII. of 1867
Committee	1901	…	Cess for educational, medical and local requirements
Commission appointed by Sir Henry Arthur Blake	1905	…	Elementary Education, Sessional Paper XXVIII. of 1905
Committee	1906	…	The Ceylon Technical College – Sessional Paper XXXIV. of 1907
Commission appointed by Governor McCallum	1908	…	The Royal and Technical Colleges – Sessional Paper 44 of 1908
Mr. J. J. R. Bridge	1911	…	Secondary English Schools of Ceylon
Committee	1911	…	Secondary and Higher Education – Sessional Paper 19 of 1912
——	1916	…	Report of a Conference on the proposed Ceylon University College – S.P. 14 of 1916
Committee	1926	…	University Site: S. P. 21 of 1927
Sub-Committee of the Board of Education	1925	…	Teachers' Salaries: S. P. 21 of 1925
Advisory Committee	1925	…	Teachers' Salaries: S. P. 33 of 1926
Commission	1926	…	System of Education: S. P. 28 of 1929
Commission	1928	…	University of Ceylon: S. P 4 of 1929
——	1930	…	Industrial Education in Ceylon: S. P. VII. of 1931
Committee	1931	…	University Scholarships: S. P. XXV. of 1931
Select Committee	1933	…	Teachers' Salaries: S. P. XV. of 1933
Commission	1934	…	Scholarships: S. P. IV. of 1936

In spite of this long list of reports the fact remains that the investigations undertaken did not result in achieving the necessary changes. For instance, two of the important questions remitted to the Education Commission of 1926 were –

(a) What measures should be adopted to extend the scope of education in the vernacular schools?
(b) How far is it practicable to make Sinhalese and Tamil the media of instruction in the schools of Ceylon?

[7] From Kandel's Comparative Education

The proposals made by the Commission do not appear to have been seriously considered. And these are two of the most important questions with which the present Committee is faced in this inquiry. I am only emphasizing the great need for a comprehensive review of the educational system and policy as a whole. It is only in such a review that the interrelation of the various aspects of the educational problem can be seen in its proper perspective. The Executive Committee was accordingly of the view that a through survey was overdue. But as to the means to be employed to conduct this survey there was difference of opinion. The view of a certain section of teachers and mangers of schools was that an independent Commission, presided preferably by a Chairman from abroad, should be appointed to investigate and report on the entire system of education whilst the view of others was that a local Commission including managers and teachers should be entrusted with the task. The former further wanted the new Education Bill held up pending decisions taken on the report of such a Commission. The Executive Committee categorically rejected the request to lay by the Bill as it had been unduly delayed. The idea of the new Bill originated in 1931 as the altered Constitution of the island called for a redistribution of functions in regard to educational policy and administration and as some recommendations of the Commission of 1926 had to be given effect to. The Bill was also designed to create a more satisfactory system of administration and to give effect to some generally acceptable decisions on questions of fundamental policy. Accordingly, it was proceeded with and became law as Ordinance No. 31 of 1939. It was brought into operation from September 1, 1939.

4. The Executive Committee was at the outset divided as to the best method of conducting the proposed investigation. Some members were in Favor of a Commission of experts from abroad. The majority, however, rejected this view perhaps because they felt that these outside experts unassisted by men of local experience and having no knowledge of local conditions were likely take a long time in grasping local problems. The educational problem being only part of the larger problem of national and social reconstruction doubt was also entertained as to whether an outside body could bring to bear to their task the necessary understanding of and sympathy for the legitimate aspirations of a people striving for their rightful place in the Committee of Nations. Besides some felt that their experience of outside Commissions during recent times has been none too happy. Certain sections of the public were of opinion that a local Commission independent of the Executive Committee and the Department of Education was desirable. In these circumstances The Executive Committee considered the possibility of setting up a local Commission. Such a Commission could not exclude those interested in education locally. If the Commission is to be an expert one-the majority of members have got to be experts to be able to tackle the many technical issues involved in the inquiry-it would be difficult to secure its “independence” as the experts have to be drawn from the teaching profession and those who are actively engaged in educational work. The course open to the Executive Committee was therefore to constitute a body which would possess an intimate acquaintance with the problems of education and at the same time, by reason of the integrity and high sense of responsibility of its members and their capacity to view every problem disinterestedly and dispassionately would command the confidence of the country. I am glad to be able to say that in the composition of the Special Committee the Executive Committee has been very fortunate. The Special Committee was “discussed” in the State Council on more than one occasion and the Council has endorsed the decision of the Executive Committee. It is for all practical purposes a local Commission. To these who think it anomalous that the members of the Executive Committee should be associated with the special Committee a few works of explanation are necessary. In the first place it is necessary to remind them of the constitutional provision has vests the control of the subject of education in the executive Committee. The initiative in matters of educational reform thus rests with the Executive Committee. There was then the consideration that members of the Executive Committee, possessing as they do an intimate knowledge (thanks to the Committee System of Government) of the problems of educational policy and administration, would be of some help in directing the investigations along useful channels. There was also the view that its association with the experts would be appreciate as it would be responsible for making the final recommendations of the state Council.

5. The task set before the Committee has been arduous and difficult but I am happy to bear testimony to the spirit of cordial compromise that has pervaded our deliberations and the high sense of duty and service which has resulted in the production of the accompanying report.

Ministry of Education,
Colombo.

C.W.W. KANNANGARA
Minister for Education.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION.

By a resolution of the Executive Committee of Education passed on April4, 1940, we were appointed a Special Committee "to investigate the defects of the present educational system and to recommend measures of reform necessitated by the changed conditions" in the country. At our first meeting on May 15, 1940, the Minister explained that the Executive Committee desired a comprehensive investigation into the educational system of Ceylon as a whole, in so far as it was within the jurisdiction of that Committee. Training for professions other than that of teaching was excluded as not being within the purview of the Executive Committee. University education as such was excluded because the policy had already been settled, though the relations between University and secondary education were necessarily within our terms of reference.

2. Our first task was to draw up a questionnaire, a copy of which is printed in Appendix 1, which included the main questions appearing at first sight to be worthy of consideration. It was circulated in English, Sinhalese and Tamil to Teachers' Associations and managers of schools conducted by corporate bodies and recognized societies. In order that individual members of the public might express their views it was also published in the Press. A list of those who sent replies and memoranda is given in Appendix 2. We also held sittings in Jaffna, Kandy, Galle, Batticaloa and Colombo. A list of witnesses who gave evidence is given in Appendix 3. To aid us in our investigations we appointed a number of Sub- Committees. A list of such Sub-Committees and their personal is given in Appendix 4.

CHAPTER II

GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS.

3. The character of an educational system depends upon the character of the society for which it is designed. In a totalitarian system the educational system is designed to establish among all sections of the population the opinion of those who for the time being control the destinies of the nation. We have assumed that our task was to recommend an educational system suitable for a democracy, and that our main effort must be directed towards devising a system that will enable every citizen to play his full part in the life of the nation. This appears to us to mean two things. First, it means that the individual must be helped to achieve the highest degree of physical, mental and moral development of which he is capable irrespective of his wealth or social status. Secondly, it means that the individual as a result of his education should be able to use his abilities for the good of the nation in the fullest possible measure and should be able to pass judgement on affairs of State and exercise intelligently the franchise that the State has conferred upon him. In other words, democracy requires in the first place a minimum standard of education and, beyond that, equality of educational opportunity.

4. It requires also a large measure of freedom in educational experimentation. The totalitarian State trains the young to the image of its leaders. The democratic State may have as many kinds of education as there are opinions about education. We would impose no limitation on educational developments that are consistent with the democratic way of life. On the other hand, when the State itself provides or assist the provision of education it must do so according to some consistent principles. It must plan the national in accordance with the needs of the nation, realizing however that views may reasonably differ both about ends and about means. It must fit the youth of the nation to the pattern of the nation to the pattern of the nation and yet not mold youth to a pattern.

5. Implicit in this statement is the idea that the Ceylon educational system designed for Ceylon. Even if the British system were perfect in its own country, it would not be suitable for this. It is inevitably founded upon traditional culture which is foreign to us. We too have our traditional cultures, older indeed than those of Europe, and capable of forming the basis for and educational development consistent with the character of our people. We owe much to the effort of those who brought the learning of the west to Ceylon, but we Consider that the undiscriminating assimilation of our educational system to that of England has also brought some harmful results in its train. Without losing the advantages that have being gained from the application of ideas from elsewhere, we can, by adapting them to our languages, cultures and circumstances, make certain that our educational system is suited to the people for whom it is intended.

6. Our fundamental need is to weld the heterogeneous elements of the population into a large nation. The assistance of peoples of different racial origins, religion and languages is not peculiar to Ceylon, and history shows that it is by no means impossible to develop a national consciousness even among a population so diverse as ours. There is, indeed, a large common element in our cultures already and under the stimulating of educational development, the notion of a national unity has been growing among us in planning the future of education in Ceylon we should strive to increase the common element and to foster the idea of nationhood. In quoting the figures which indicate our diversity, therefore, we do not wish to stress that the divisions are fundamental. We wish only to make plain the extent of the problem which we are faced. At the census of 1931, the population of Ceylon was classified according to the religion as follows: -

Buddhists	...	...	3,267,500	Muslims	...	...	356,900
Hindus	...	...	1,158,500	Others	...	...	900
Christians	...	...	523,100				

According to racial origin, the classification was as follows: -

Sinhalese	...	...	3,473,030	Burgers and Eurasians	...	...	32,315
Tamils	...	...	1,417,477	Malays	...	...	15,977
Moors	...	...	325,913.				

7. This diversity should not be a source of weakness but a source of strength. Each community has some peculiar contribution to make to the common stock. It can effectively be made, however, only if there is equality of opportunity, and it is one of our tasks to iron the inequalities so that every individual may contribute his utmost. When we emphasize the special needs of the Kandyans and Muslims our purpose is not to forward their interests as communities but to enable the members of those communities to share equally with others the facilities that the nation affords. We refer to the communal problem not because we favor communalism, but because owing to the accidents of history the members of certain communities as individuals have not been able to claim equality. Our essential aim is to secure a sentiment of national unity, and so long as members of particular communities' labor under a sense of frustration and a sense of grievance neither they nor the rest of the population will be able to think in other than communal terms. The more than the nation as a whole determines its own destiny, the more its sections claim their right to take part in the determination. Sectionalism may thus appear to develop precisely because a national consciousness is developed. Our effort should be remove inequalities so that national unity may be developed still further.

8. The diversity of our cultures renders even more important, if that is possible, the fundamental democratic principle of toleration. Though we emphasize the importance of establishing national unity through education, we urge precisely the reverse of the strident and intolerant nationalism with its national bigotry, its racial discrimination, and its contempt for religion of all kinds, that is the fundamental cause of the present conflict. The nationalism that we hope to see established depends for its being on toleration and understanding. Among a people so varied as ours any other kind would produce not national unity but national disruption: and that toleration which we ask our own people to apply to each other we would also wish to see applied to other nations. This toleration is in fact a characteristic of our citizens. The communities of the Island have for many years lived in peace and amity. We are anxious that the teaching in the new educational structure may be inspired with the same toleration and the same desire for peace among men of all nations.

CHAPTER III

THE AIMS OF EDUCATION

9. The general aim of education is preparation for life in its material and spiritual aspects. The particular aims recognized at the present day are three in number. They are (1) Mental Development or Mental Discipline, (2) Culture, including character, and (3) Efficiency. Mental development in its ordinary sense means increase of intellectual power; in a wider sense it includes the development of the other aspects of the mind. General mental development was once assumed to result from the development or discipline of faculties such as perception, reasoning, memory, imagination, instinct and will. But as many modern psychologists' regard these as mere classifications of mental acts and states, and not as independent faculties that may be trained, this explanation has had to be revised. Mental development is now held to result from training in specific situations, transfer taking place only when the individual sees some degree of identity between old situations and new situations.

10. Culture in its narrowest sense means a kind of intellectual or artistic polish which may be genuine or may be merely an external veneer. In its broadcast sense it may be defined as "that habit of mind which perceives and estimates all matters with reference to their social values and aims." In this sense it implies the development of character.

11. Efficiency, that is, ability to work well, is an equally ambiguous word. It may be measured by one's ability to render social service as a citizen or by one's success at a career.

12. It is now generally recognized that these three aims in their broadest sense really mean the same and are different only when the individual or the society is regarded separately and abstractly. Mental development, culture and efficiency have their best meanings with reference to a society of individuals. The society we have in mind is a democratic society in which all men are looked on as equal. Obviously, however, all men are not equal in all respects. They are not equal in regard to their capacities, physical, intellectual and moral. But they are equal in regard to what men have in common as being men, persons, moral beings. This equality matters so much that,
Compared with it, great and obvious differences between men are of relatively little importance. It is only in a democratic society that such equality is respected. In a democracy the state exists in order to enable the individuals comprising it to have as full a development as is consistent with the welfare of the others, whereas in a totalitarian State it is not the individual but the State that counts. The individual is of value only in so far as he contributes to the development of the State. In a democratic society the aim of education is accordingly help to every boy and girl to achieve the highest degree or physical, mental and moral development which he or she as individual capable as well as to help them to be able and willing to work for the common good. While in this chapter we shall use all three conventional terms Mental Development, Culture and Efficiency to indicate this aim, in later chapters we shall use the term that fits in most conveniently with the context.

MENTAL DEVELOPMENT

13. In emphasizing mental development, we do not overlook that the proper functioning of the mind depends upon the proper functioning of the body. In fact, when we consider the subjects of study later in this report we give pride of place to personal and public health. Mental development is virtually impossible where the child id physically incapable. If physical defects are inherent nothing can be done to help him except to place him in a - special school where the consequence of the defects can be, so far as is possible, overcome. We are concerned, however, with the normally health boy and girl. Many of the defects which hinder his or her mental development arise from mere ignorance about the care of the body and especially from failure to exercise the muscles in the way in which they should be exercised. Hence the emphasis which we give to physical training and to teaching in the elements of health. We stress these subjects not merely because the prevention of disease is one of the duties of citizenship, but
also, because the school system cannot produce healthy minds in unhealthy bodies. The schools must accept the duty of maintaining healthy bodies because otherwise they will be unable to carry out their duty of developing healthy minds.

14. Mental Development cannot be fully achieved by concentration on what are usually called “academic subjects.” Languages, History, Geography, Number and the rest are extremely important, and their importance is stressed later but and all-round development, especially in the early years at school, is essential. Even for those who proceed to advanced work at the University, specialization should come very late. In this connection we would draw attention to the evil effects of the concentration on examination subjects at far too early an age. At the moment, however, we are more concerned with the educational principals which apply to the whole mass of pupils at schools. Experiment has long since demonstrated, what reason had previously suggested, that here must be manual as well as intellectual training. Concentration on academic subjects, especially at an early age, produces an unbalanced and therefore only partially effective development.

15. Among the means of manual development are the branches of knowledge- we use the word deliberately-. Which are usually classified as “manual training” – woodwork, metal work, gardening, cooking and other forms of domestic Science. Emphasis is here laid upon manual training because it is one of the means towards a balanced mental development. Accordingly, it is just as important for the child of wealthy parents as it is for the village child. Indeed, it is more important for the child of wealthy parents because the village child may be expected to get a little, at least, of this kind of training at home, whereas the wealthy child probably will get none. The need is greater in Ceylon than it is in many other countries. Partly, this arises from the view that manual labour is undignified; partly, it arises from the absence of hobbies in Ceylon homes.

16. Next to the manual subjects, we stress particularly the various forms of art and music. They are important not only for their own sake but also because of their high cultural value. Above all, they provide media for self-expression. This is the most important, because it gives that element of originally which is so valuable in the mental development of the child and even more in the life of the nation. Much of learning is mere repetition or copying. The most useful citizen is he who can face a new problem and find his own solution. The spark of genius is nothing more than the spark of originality. In any walk of life the ablest man is he who instead of following tradition blindly, does a thing slightly differently because he thinks that the result may be better. It makes no difference whether the problem is to abolish unemployment or to get a better crop out of a paddy plot. History, Geography, Mathematics, Language and all the other academic subjects do not as a rule, produce this quality except in the highest ranks of learning. It is essential therefore, that the child should be given opportunities to develop means of self-expression. Art and music are admirable for this purpose because the child produces something which seems to him to be good, and not the answer at the back of the book which superior people have already provided for him. These subjects must, of course, be taught with discretion. A painting may have genius even if it has no perspective. Above all, they must not be made the subject of examinations unless the child has become a specialist and has to be taught technique. A music lesson that consists in the playing of a single “piece” a thousand times in order to pass an examination is not a means of developing self-expression but a means of killing the desire for it. It is not mental training but mechanical drudgery.

17. Though we emphasize that these subjects must not be desiccated by examinations, we emphasize also that they are not frills or “extras”. They are an essential part of the child's education and should be taught as such. Fortunately, they are in their nature so interesting and they are so remote from the drudgery which is inevitably associated with much “learning” that it is easy to develop them as extra-curricular activities and so to remote them from the category of tasks. Nevertheless, they should find a place in the curriculum itself. Painting, singing, dancing, modelling can be learned in class, though there should be something of the joyous abandon which ought to characterize extra-curricular Activities. Nor need they be dissociated from the teaching of other subjects. Nature study and geography provide means for the development of artistic talent and also for the acquisition of other kinds of knowledge. History can be learned in the form of pageantry and drama. "Literature" should not be a mere matter of translation and ought never to be artificially withered by excessive annotation. Once it is understood by parents as well as by teachers that this kind of training is essential to complete mental development and therefore to the child's future career, whatever it may be, there will be less complaint of frivolity and of waste of time. Far from being frivolous, it is essentially serious, and the fact that the work can be made more interesting than the multiplication table gives it merit which that admirable invention can never possess.

CULTURE.

18. We would now like to lay special emphasis on the second of the general aims, *i.e*., the development of culture including character. In such development there is an individual as well as a social purpose. Individually a person of character attains to a state of mental equilibrium that enables him to face successfully whatever conflict may arise between himself and his environment; and socially he is able to evolve those social values on which depend the stability and well-being of society. But education for character cannot be effective unless it has a religious background. It is only such a background that can help children to assimilate readily those well-established principles of life that form the basis of the moral law. It is obvious that the teachers can play an important part in the creation of a proper atmosphere at school. They should avoid concentrating unduly on the mental development of the children entrusted to them at the expense of their cultural development. We are definitely of opinion that a complete and well-balanced education is possible only if character training is given pride of place in our educational aims.

19. In this connection it must be remembered that in addition to the formal education given at school there is an informal education given at home which has an important bearing on the development of character. Accordingly, throughout the school career, the atmosphere of the home is equally important. Much of the essential education in respect of religion, general character, culture and common politeness cannot effectively be given elsewhere. In planning education, it is necessary to remember that we are educating prospective parents and that if education is effective it has a cumulative effect throughout succeeding generations. It is particularly important that girls should receive a good education because they will be the mothers of the next generation. It is also necessary to ensure that school influences that go to build character and develop culture should harmonies with the home influences. The improvement of conditions in the homes can be brought about by organizing some sort of link between the school and the home. For this purpose, we recommend among other things the development of Parent Teacher Associations. Such Associations are not intended to enable the parents to interfere in the working of these school but to enable the teachers to explain to them what is being done at school and to learn something of the home environment and psychological difficulties which confront the children under their care.

EFFICIENCY.

(a) Training for Citizenship

20. Efficiency is the third of our general aims. This may be either social or individual. In so far as it is social it demands training for citizenship. It is necessary to train the pupil not merely to think and act and behave as an individual but also to think and act and behave as a citizen-useful to himself and to society. A tolerably good

understanding and appreciation of the increasingly complex political, economic and social background of modem life and a sense of duty to society and the nation form the essential equipment of a good citizen. The well-being of society so much depends on the right choice of collective aims, *i.e.,* political policy, and on the efficiency of the collective machinery, *i.e.,* political government; and if democracy is not to fail, a grave responsibility rests on the individual citizen of today. He should not only have the factual equipment for Sharing in the direction of policy but also the aptitude for judging aims and issues. In the absence of these qualifications who can guarantee that the destinies of the nation will be entrusted to the proper leaders? This is turn throws responsibility on the schools and education has to be planned so as to make the schools fulfil this need. Although schools must eschew partisan politics, they must take their share of responsibility for the political education of the nation's youth.

21. Training for citizenship is not, however, primarily a matter, of formal instruction. One's duty to one's nation is nothing more than one's duty to one's neighbor. Also, most of the problem on which the citizen has to reach some kind of conclusion are, generally speaking, dependent less on an understanding of the machinery and principals of government than on an understanding of other branches of knowledge. They are dependent, for instance, on knowledge of History, Geography, and Natural Science. It is necessary in any case that these subjects should be taught with special reference to Ceylon, because it is an obvious educational principle that teaching and study should proceed from the known to the unknown. The child knows from contact with his own environment something of the things around him and even of the problems to which they give rise. They are talked about at home; they often arise from the economic circumstances of his family; some of them are implicit in the religious instruction that he receives from his parents and in the religious and social observances of his home. School teaching must be founded upon this elementary knowledge and, if it is to be effective as civic training, it must bear a constant relation to the general knowledge which the student picks up in his home and among his friends.

(b) Careers.

22. Efficiency from the individual point of view is efficiency at the career one has chosen and it is the duty of the school to help the pupil in this matter too. It is possible to shift the emphasis of a curriculum without diminishing its non-vocational educational values, and this shift may be in the direction of the Child's probable career. During his early years at school every child needs the same kind of training. There is, however, inevitably a bias due to the environment of the school. From the principle that education should proceed from the known to the unknown, it follows that a school should emphasize the geographic and economic conditions of its neighborhood. We should expect the emphasis to differ, for instance, in Colombo, in Jaffna, in a low-country village school, and in an estate school. It is not suggested that there should be any difference in the quality of the instruction; nor, indeed, should there be much difference in the subjects; what should differ is the emphasis. For instance, one would not expect as great an emphasis upon gardening in an urban school as in a rural school. These differences are necessary for relating education to lie. They necessarily help also in preparing the great majority of pupils for their future careers. Most of the children in a village school may be expected to remain in the village; most of the children in an urban school may be expected to do manual work in the town. In both cases minority will proceed to senior schools and a smaller minority to secondary schools.[8] In neither case is an early urban or rural bias unsatisfactory, because it may (though not necessarily) determine the choice of occupation at a later stage. Technicians and graduates are required in the country as well as in the towns, and it is more satisfactory for, let us say, graduates in agriculture to have had an elementary education in a rural environment. The emphasis which is necessary for making education real is thus the emphasis which will fit students better to meet their future tasks.

23. Nor it is impossible to give a careerist bias in the later stage of education. Vocational education can give mental development and culture as much as purely literacy education. It can of course deteriorate into mere technical training. Provided that farm schools, technical colleges and technological and professional faculties are integrated into the general educational system and make to realize at the primary task is the realization of all the

[8] The types of schools are defined in Chapter VII

values of education and nor merely vocational training, no difficulty should arise. A faculty of medicine is of greater value both to the community and to the individual than a College of Medicine dissociated from a university. A technical college is of greater value both to the community and to the individual if it regards itself as the apex of a school system with a technical bias than a technical college which is entirely dissociated from the general system. The point we emphasize is that the primary task of the school is to educate in a complete way and if later in this report we suggest a classification of schools which has some reference to the afterlife of the pupils we only mean that in certain schools the vocational aim should appear as a matter of bias by allowing the curricula to be weighted. It is preeminently in the interests of the individual as well as of the community that the utilitarian motive of fitting a child for a particular vocation should not overshadow the general aim of an all-round development.

24. We insist also that one type of school should not be regarded as superior to another. Where a boy leaves school at the age of sixteen, an academic education which fits him for a clerical post is of no greater merit or desirability than a technical education which fits him to become a mechanic, or an agricultural education which fits him for intelligent work on the farm. In fact, these terms are misnomers. It is not academic education, technical education or agricultural education, but education with an academic, a technical or an agricultural bias. In substance it is the same; only in emphasis is it different.

25. It is, however, at the later stage of education that differences become more marked. In the University there will be several faculties, each with its special careerist object. It is, however, a farm University tradition which will. We hope, be adopted in Ceylon, that professional and technological education should aim at giving a complete education through the teaching of vocational subjects. This is the primary aim of a unitary University based on the principle which has been accepted in Ceylon since 1927. This idea, that vocational education should not be divorced from other educational values should, we believe permeate not only our University but also our technical colleges and farm schools. Similarly, the training of teachers, whether at the University or at training colleges, should aim at producing educated teachers, and not merely producing technically trained teachers.

CHAPTER IV

HISTORICAL SKETCH

26. The two main features of Ceylon education, the division of function between Government schools and voluntary schools, and the distinction between “English education” and “Vernacular education” have been with us for almost the whole period of the British connection. In the Maritime Provinces the Government took over the schools provided by the Dutch Government, schools in which Sinhalese and Tamil were the medium of instruction. Some of them were closed as a measure of economy in 1803, though later some were opened as mission schools. Until 1831 Government provided very little education in English, but as a result of a report by Lieutenant-Colonel Colebrooke in that year the emphasis of Government effort was shifted to English schools. The various missionary societies began establishing schools from 1812 onwards. They were interested at first in providing English education for Europeans and children of the “Mudaliyar” class, but later they extended their work into the villages and founded Sinhalese and Tamils as well as English schools. By 1832 there were 235 Protestant missionary schools and 90 schools under the direct control of Government. The number of Roman Catholic schools at this time is not known, but five years later there were 118 of them.

27. The system of assisting missionary schools by means of grant began in 1842 when it was decided, owing to difficulties of administration, to close the Government English schools in the Jaffna peninsula and to make grants to the missionary societies instead. Elsewhere, however, Government return to the practice of establishing Sinhalese schools. The period from 1841 to 1847 was in fact one of considerable development on the part of Government, which acted through the Central School Commission. The Commission had been Established in 1841 on the recommendation of Governor Stewart Makenzie, who had also laid down that schools should be open to children of all denominations, that children should be taught to read their own language before they were taught English, that books should be translated into Sinhalese and Tamil, and that teachers should be trained. On the work done by the Commission Mr. L. J. Gratiaen comments as follows: -

"The plans of Governor Makenzie were gradually realized. A representative Commission was working harmoniously; teachers while being trained; schools were inspected by a full time Inspector; arrangements were made for children to begin their education in the vernacular; a translation committee was appointed; the native Normal institution was laying a foundation for vernacular education; superior schools had been opened; and a system of gratinated established."

The expenditure on education rose from £2,999 in 1841 to £11,415 in 1847.

28. This period of development of Government provision for education was, however, followed by one of set-back. After 1845 there were differences in the Commission; financial depression began about 1847; and the rebellion of 1848 supervened. In 1848 Government had 24 vernacular schools and 52 English schools. In addition, there were 3 Central school for boys, 3 superior schools for girls, and the Colombo Academy whose name was later changed to Royal College. For the rest, education was provided by the missionary societies, though in the case of 28 English schools in the Jaffna District Government provided grant. The various difficulties which began in 1847 resulted in education passing more and more into the hands of the missionary societies. Two of the central schools were closed and the Normal classes at the Colombo Academy were stopped. The Colombo Academy was in peril but survived. The staffs of the English schools were heavily reduced and the fees raised, with the result that attendance declined. The vernacular schools were compelled to levy small fees. In 1858 the Government Normal school for vernacular teachers, which had survived the crisis of 1848, was closed.

29. In the sixties this combination of Government and missionary education was regarded by many as unsatisfactory and the Legislative Council appointed a Sub-Committee "to inquire into and report upon the state and prospects of education in the Island and the amount of success which has attended the working of the present system of education" Its report, printed as Sessional Paper VIII. Of 1867 recommended as follows: -

(1) Elementary education in Sinhalese and Tamil should be undertaken by Government on a larger scale. More Government schools should be set up, but greater encouragement should also be given to denominational bodies.
(2) Anglo-Vernacular schools should take the place of "mixed" schools.
(3) More central schools (*I.e*., schools where English and practical subjects were taught) should be established.
(4) The rules as to religious education in grant-in-aid schools should be revoked so as to leave all religious bodies free to teach religion as they pleased.
(5) The school Commission should be abolished and a Department of Public Instruction under a Director of Public Instruction established.

30. these recommendations were put into operation and resulted in a great increase in both Government and aided schools as the following figures indicate: -

	1869.	1874.	1879.	1884.	1889.	1897.
Government Schools	64	243	372	431	468	474
Aided Schools	21	595	814	938	1,042	1,172
Total	85	838	1,186	1,369	1,510	1,646

The missionary societies operated mainly in the maritime districts, whereas Government made provision for education in the interior. In 1884 Government proposed that its English schools should be maintained by the local authorities with the assistance of a grant. The proposal was opposed by those who objected to the raising of an education rate and was abandoned. All the English schools except Royal College (the former Colombo Academy) and a few English elementary schools were then handed over to the existing Mission Agencies willing to accept them.

31. In 1897 there were on the roll of all the schools 150,593 children with an average attendance of 88,849. This low average attendance was due to the absence of general power to enforce attendance, Village Committees had power to enforce attendance at Government schools, but not at missionary schools. The Sinhalese and Tamil

schools charged no fees, and the grant covered a large part of their cost. Fees, varying from school to school, were charged in the English schools, and the grant was meagre.

32. Until 1886 all the schools except a few private schools not aided by Government were either Government or Christian schools. The Buddhist Theosophical Society was established that year and by 1897 it had 63 grant-aided schools under its control. There were also 13 aided schools managed by Buddhist priests and 27 aided schools managed by Buddhist laymen. There was no widely organized effort on the part of Hindus and Muslims to establish schools for children of their religion, but by 1897 Government had established 6 schools for Muslim girls in which pro- vision was made for instruction in the Koran. This was part of a general development of educational facilities for girls. Until 1869 there were very few girls' schools, but by 1897 there were 85 girls' schools provided by Government, 284 such schools aided by grants from Government, and 645 schools for boys and girls which were aided by grants from Government.

33. The great defect during the latter half of the nineteenth century was the shortage of trained teaches. The normal classes in Government English schools had been closed in 1848, and the Government Normal school for vernacular teachers had been closed in 1855. The missionary societies had training schools for vernacular teachers but none for English teachers. As a result of a recommendation by the Sub-Committee of the Legislative Council in 1867, a Normal school was opened for the training of English, Anglo-Sinhalese and Sinhalese teachers; but the classes for English teachers were closed once again in 1881. In spite of the fact that the numbers attending English schools increased from 3,329 in 1870 to 20,713 in 1901, there was no means for the training of English teachers until the Government Training College was opened in 1903. Even then the quality of the entrants was low, evidently owing to the low salaries paid. ln 1905 there was great activity in the educational field. A Commission reported (Sessional Paper III. of 1905) on the education of the Rodiyas, and another on the education of estate children (Sessional Paper IV. of 1905). More important was the report of the Education Commission (Sessional Paper XXVIII. of 1905) set up ''to inquire into and report on the education question with a view to proposing practical steps to give effect to the suggestions contained in the report of the Committee appointed in 1901 to advise on the general question of imposing a cess for educational, medical and local requirements". Giving its terms of reference a wide interpretation, it proceeded to consider the two main questions discussed by the Committee of 1901: compulsory education, and the provision by local authorities of part of the cost of education.

34. The difficulty of making attendance compulsory lay in the fact that most of the schools were Christian. The balance of evidence placed before the Commission was that there should be compulsion coupled with a suitable conscience clause. The Commission was unable to accept the opinion pressed by the representatives of the Wesleyan and American missionary bodies that a State system of education was the best in the circumstances. Also, the Commission was at that stage unable to recommend compulsory education for girls. On the question of finance, the Commission held that the whole cost should be borne by Government, save that Village Committees should continue to provide new school buildings and extensions to existing school buildings. A system of District School Committees (with the Government Agent or Assistant Government Agent as Chairman) and Divisional School Committees was recommended. This was no to apply to the areas of municipalities and local boards where Government already had a scheme of devolution under consideration. The Commission further recommended: -

(1) that fees not be charged in Sinhalese and Tamil Schools;
(2) that a minimum collection of fees should be required in English Schools;
(3) that the grants to English Schools should be maintained at their present level;
(4) that special attention should be paid to Muslim education and that provision should be made in Government schools attended by Muslims for religious instruction before or after school hours;
(5) that provision should be made by estate for the education of the children of state labourers; and
(6) that a Tamil Department should be added to the Government Training College.

35. Compulsory education in the urban areas was introduced by the Town School Ordinance, 1906, and in the rural areas by the Rural Schools Ordinance. The increase in the number of Government Schools was not, however, as great as had been anticipated, as the following figures show :-

	1905	1910
Government schools	554	759

Grant-aided schools	1,582	1,910

36. Meanwhile, some effort had been made to develop higher education in the Island. The Cambridge Senior and Junio Local examinations had been introduced in 1880, and candidates were sent forward by Royal College, and the denominational English schools. The Matriculation examination and the Intermediate examination in Arts of the University of London were held in Ceylon from 1882 and 1885 respectively. Also, certain of the grant-aided schools were affiliated to the Universities of Calcutta and Madras and prepared for their examinations. By 1897 there was a Government Medical College, whose licentiates were recognized by the General Medical Council; an agricultural school; a school for supplying skilled workers for the Railway, Survey, Public Works, and Postal Departments, and fifteen grant-aided industrial schools. By 1907 the school for skilled workers was known as the Technical College, and in that year a Committee (see Sessional Paper XXXIV. of 1907) recommended that those who had passed through the College should be preferred for appointment in the technical departments. In 1908 Governor McCallum appointed a Commission to consider ways and means of making the Royal College self-supporting and directed that the question of its amalgamation, in whole or in part with the Technical College should be considered. The majority of the Commission recommended that Royal College should be maintained as a model institution in spite of the cost, but that the fees should be raised. The Technical College was recognized to have been a failure chiefly because of the lack of co-operation between the Superintendent and the heads of Government departments. The Commission nevertheless recommended its maintenance; but considering that there was not sufficient demand for trained engineers, did not advocate the introduction of higher classes.

37. Thus, in 1910 there was no higher technical or professional education in the Island except in law and medicine. Except for a few students presented for Indian degrees, there was no University education. A special examination was held annually for the award of "Government University Scholarships, “the successful candidates being sent to Great Britain at the expense of Government. From early in the nineteenth century there had been suggestions for a University in Ceylon, and an association was set up in 1906 to advocate this development. In 1911 an Education Committee was appointed to survey and make recommendations on secondary and higher education, and was assisted by Mr. J. J. R. Bridge, an Inspector of Schools of the English Board of Education. The Committee recommended the establishment of a University College and proceeded to discuss secondary education. Among other recommendations, it suggested the compulsory teaching of Sinhalese or Tamil to Sinhalese or Tamil pupils in the primary classes, the institution of an elementary School Leaving Certificate, the development of commercial education, and the making of grants for school buildings. Perhaps the most important recommendation was that a change be made in the system of assessing grants. The system introduced in 1871 on the recommendation of the Sub-Committee of the Legislative Council was the ''result'' system, by which the amount of the grant depended on the results shown by the examination of individual pupils in individual subjects. Except in eleven schools, this system was still in operation in 1911. The Committee recommended that, provided that equipment and staff were adequate, grants should be based on average attendance; but an increased rate per pupil should be paid for each trained teacher employed. It also recommended that a minimum scale of fees be insisted upon.

38. The recommendations of the Committee were accepted by the Executive Council and forwarded to the Secretary of State, who consulted the English Board of Education (see Sessional Paper XXVI. of 1913). All the proposals except that for a University College, were accepted by the Secretary of State (see Sessional Paper VII. of 1914) and brought into operation by the Departmental Code of 1914. These reforms were salutary and beneficial. The improvement in the grant system, and specially the encouragement through increased grant of the employment of trained teachers, resulted in a notable advance in the quality of the grant-aided schools. A movement to improve salaries became possible and a better type of person was attracted to the teaching profession. The fact that the

old-established schools were Christian, however, led to the establishment of rival schools not always by religious bodies, and not always of the best type. In his report made in 1912, Mr. J. J. R. Bridge, referring to the denominational system, wrote as follows: ''The desire of the different denominations to have their own schools in natural and it is inevitable, but nevertheless the competition is highly detrimental to efficiency and entirely

prejudicial to economy, and as so much cannot be recognized by the State". On November 19, 1919, Governor Manning tabled in the Legislative Council the famous memorandum in which he said: -

> ''Government can hardly acquiesce in the suggestion that compulsory attendance could in any way connote the suggestion of compulsory Christianity, and such an idea it has never entertained. The Christian manager of schools in non-Christian villages is within measurable distance of being superseded by the non-Christian proprietor of the private school, and it would be inadvisable to seek for any remedy except a system of State education in areas other than those where the large majority of inhabitants are Christians; for with the elimination of the school under Christian management the private school established, it is presumed, with the idea of avoiding the influence of Christian doctrines-loses *its raison d'etre,* and it must be granted that, however high the motives which may have animated the promoters, there is connected with these schools, and the voluntary system generally, an incontrovertible record of ill-paid teachers, for there has been no legislation to define the limits within which public funds given as grants-in-aid to these private ventures might properly be expended''.

39. The policy thus enunciated was confined to Sinhalese and Tamil schools. A Bill to give effect to it was introduced into the Legislative Council and passed as Ordinance No.1 of 1920. It provided for the establishment of Government schools in purely non-Christian areas, the closing of missionary schools in those areas, State neutrality in religious instruction and the observance of a conscience clause by Assisted schools. The Department of Education and the Board of Education were given legal status, and the powers of the latter were increased though it remained advisory. District Committees were set up for the construction of new Government schools, the repair of existing school buildings, and the enforcement of compulsory attendance. The whole cost of education was transferred to general revenue.

40. The policy was not fully put into operation without opposition and, though there was a very large increase in the number of Government schools, there was also an increase in Assisted schools. The following are the figures of Sinhalese and Tamil schools in 1920 and 1930: -

	1920.	1930.
Government schools	895	1,395
Assisted schools	1,868	2,246

Government expenditure on education increased from Rs. 3,465,703 in 1919-20 to Rs. 12,053,379 in 1930-31.

41. The improvements in the educational system represented by these figures of expenditure were qualitative as well as quantitative. In a large measure the qualitative improvements were brought about by an improvement in the type of teacher which in turn was rendered possible by improvement in the salary scales The Government had for a considerable time found it difficult to raise the standard of teaching in the Assisted schools. Both under the early haphazard grant system and under the "result" system adopted in 1871, the Assisted schools were left to determine the salaries of their teachers, and neither system permitted of the introduction of incremental scales unless the schools were able to increase their revenue from other sources. Even in the, Sinhalese and Tamil schools, where the grant covered most of the expenditure, there was no variation according to the experience of the teachers. The "result" system was gradually abolished in the. English schools, but the only differentiation even after 1914 was that higher grant was paid where trained teachers were employed. As a result of pressure from teachers increased grants were sanctioned to Sinhalese and Tamil schools in February, 1920, in order that higher salaries might be paid; and later in the same year increase of 15 percent was sanctioned for English schools. The percentage was increased to 30 In the financial year 1920-21. There was, however, no guarantee that the increase accrued to the teachers, and it appeared that they gained by 10 percent only. Accordingly, the Department decided to lay down minimum salary scales; and this was done by Circular C4 of October 14, 1922, for Sinhalese and Tamil schools, and by Circular D7 of February 26, 1923, for English schools. The scales were incremental and were dependent upon qualifications.

42. This decision did not solve the problem, for there was no guarantee that managers would have the funds to pay salaries. A Select Committee of the Legislative Council appointed on April 19, 1923, recommended that the grant should be a proportion of teachers' salaries. Its observations on this point are as follows: -

''The Committee are fully aware that, if the calculation of grant is to depend upon salary cost or some ratio of salary cost, it will be necessary to have a recognized salary scale established in the case of both English and Vernacular school teachers, and they are strongly of opinion that such salary scales should correspond to the scales applicable to Government schools. If such a uniform salary scale could be adopted, it would not only remove many of the anomalies which at present exist in regard to the emoluments drawn by teachers of similar standing in different schools, but it would also form a useful basis for the calculation of contribution for pensions in any pension scheme which may hereafter be adopted. It would also have the further advantage that managers would be in a position to forecast the amount which they are likely to receive in the form of Government grant, and thus would remove any of the uncertainties of the present method''

For Sinhalese and Tamil schools, the grant should cover the whole salary cost of an adequate staff and also a fraction for the maintenance and equipment of the school.

43. The Committee's report was referred to the Board of Education, which approved it, drew up salary scales, and defined an adequate staff by reference to maximum units of pupil attendance for teachers of different qualifications. The Board also recommended that the manager's share of the salary cost in English school's should be made constant and drew up a scale of manager's contributions (see Sessional Paper XXI. of 1925). A Committee appointed to report on a pension scheme produced a draft scheme in the same year (see Sessional Paper XVll. Of 1925). The Board of Education recommended the creation of an Advisory committee, consisting of members of the Board of teachers' representatives, to advice the Director of Education on the salary scheme and the suggested pension scheme. Some members of the Legislative Council were added later. The salary scheme took effect from October 1, 1925, but was modified in the following year on the recommendation of the Advisory Committee (Sessional Paper XXXIII. of 926). Further details were laid down in the code of 1927, and the status and prospects of teachers were much improved by the passing of the school Teachers Pension Ordinance (No. 6 of 1927).

44. The latest development in the educational field is the establishment of the University of Ceylon on July 1, 1942, while our Report was under consideration. The establishment of a University College was the only proposal of the Committee of 1911-12 not immediately accepted by the Secretary of State. Governor Chalmers took up the question soon after his arrival, and on January 20, 1914, wrote a dispatch supporting the proposal. The Roman Catholics, however, requested the establishment of a separate (grant-aided) College to be affiliated, like the University College, to the new University when established. The Governor recommended the proposal with the qualification that no grant should be paid. In view of this qualification the Roman Catholics abandoned their proposal, and on March 30, 1915, the Secretary of State approved the proposal for the establishment of a University College affiliated to the University of Oxford.

45. The war and the post-war difficulties delayed the opening of the College until January, 1921. Affiliation with Oxford proved to be impossible-though an advisory Committee was appointed by the Hebdomadal Council-and the College began teaching for external London degrees. Plans were made for its early conversion into a University, and in 1924 the Legislative Council voted Rs. 3,000,000 for land and buildings. Controversy developed, however, over the location and nature of the University. In 1927 the University Site Committee (see Sessional Paper V of 1927) recommended that the University be unitary and residential in character and that it be located on, a site near Kandy. The proposal was accepted by the legislative Council and the University Commission (see Sessional Paper IV of 1929) was set up to draft a constitution on this basis. A Bill based on the recommendation of the Commission was introduced in 1930, but was not proceeded with owing to the impending constitutional changes.

46. Though the Executive Committee of Education established by the new Constitution took up the University question from time to time, there was still difficulty over the site. This was not settled until1938, when the New Peradeniya Estate was (in part) acquired. Thereupon it became possible to proceed with the organization of the University with a view to its transfer to Peradeniya when the site should be ready. The Ceylon University Ordinance (No. 20 of 1942), which fused the University College and the Medical College and provided the University constitution, was passed by the State Council on April 2, 1942.

47. Ceylon thus has a complete educational system from the primary school to the University. It is perhaps difficult to describe it as a system, for as in most other countries, it has developed in piecemeal fashion and at no time has the whole been consciously planned. The majority of the schools use Sinhalese and Tamil as media of instruction and are divided between Government and corporate or individual owners though Government in all cases provides almost the whole of the cost except the capital expenditure required for land and buildings. There are also a few not very successful bilingual schools. Except in a few cases all secondary education leading up to higher appointments and the professions is given through the medium of English. All the English secondary schools except the Royal College are controlled by denominational bodies or private persons. Technical training is given in the Ceylon Technical College (which is now an independent department under the direct control of the Executive Committee of Education), the 125 Industrial schools operated by the Department of Commerce and Industries and the School of Agriculture and Agricultural schools operated by the Department of Agriculture. The Pirivenas, a good many of which are now assisted with grants from public funds, provide education of a high standard in the literature and grammar of the Sinhalese and Pali languages and in Buddhist culture. Steps were taken recently to introduce into the curriculum of these Pirivenas modern subjects so as to enable the training given in them to be more broad based. There are, besides these Pirivenas, two Oriental Studies Societies, one in Colombo and the other in Jaffna, constituted with the object of promoting higher learning in the Sinhalese and Tamil languages respectively. These have done valuable work to stimulate interest in Oriental studies. Professional education is given in the Faculty of Medicine of the University[9], in the Law College, maintained by the Counci1 of Legal Education, in the Government Training College, and in some measure, in the Ceylon Technical College. University education is limited to the Faculties of Oriental Studies, Arts Science, and Medicine. Most technical, professional and University education is given through the medium of English.

48. This state of affairs with regard to our schools, institutions, authorities and languages is the justification for the present Committee. Though its terms of reference do not cover quite the whole field, it has a function wider than that of any of its predecessors. Not since 1905 has there been any full survey of elementary education; never has there been a full survey of both elementary and higher education together. Moreover, there has been no survey at all since the new constitution was established. Nevertheless, great strides have been taken in the present century. We would estimate literacy at 60 per cent and among those of the new generation (especially young men) it is much higher. According to the latest available information those in attendance in our schools were in number as follows: -

Government Schools	...	...	...	331,951 pupils
Assisted Schools	...	...	...	480,191 pupils

No accurate figures are available of the number not at school, nor of the number· who leave before the age of compulsory attendance is reached. Both figures would be high, but neither would be proportionately large. The standard of our teaching is not as high as we should wish, but it bears comparison with any in Asia. The quality of our best students is very good, and that of the average comparable with that obtainable elsewhere. Those who proceed to other countries, whether before or after graduating in Ceylon, are a credit to Ceylon. We must spend subsequent chapters in criticizing and recommending changes, for that is our function: we are nevertheless fully aware of the debt which is owed to those who, during the course of the past century, have contributed to the high standards of our educational system.

CHAPTER V.

PRESENT DEFECTS.

[9] Even prior to the establishment of a properly recognized Medical College under Government auspices the American Mission had about 1850 started a Medical school in the Jaffna District under the superintendence of Dr. Samuel Fisk green. The Green Memorial hospital at Manipay still bears testimony to the valuable work of this Mission for the prevention and cure of decease.

49. The lack of system indicated by the short summary of Ceylon education in the preceding chapter has led to certain defects. In Ceylon as in England, too. changes have been the subject of much controversy, with the result that compromises have been, and still are, inevitable. It is the task of this Committee to point out the present defects and make recommendations for their removal.

50. The most obvious feature of the present system is the existence of two types of education according to the medium of instruction used. The great majority of the pupils are taught in "vernacular 11 schools were Sinhalese or Tamil is the medium of instruction. With a few exceptions, the rest are taught in "English'' schools where English is the medium of instruction. It is true that, throughout the history of Ceylon education, attempts have been made to establish schools in which both languages were used-the '' mixed '' schools were succeeded by the "Anglo-Vernacular " schools, and they in turn by the "bilingual'' schools. The distribution of pupils for selected years has been as follows: -

	English.	Bilingual.	Vernacular.
1928	55,905 ...	37,365 ...	420,267
1938	83,219 ...	20,156 ...	625,699
1939	86,476 ...	19,912 ...	640,517
1940	92,049 ...	15,917 ...	650,910

These figures demonstrate the lack of interest in the bilingual schools as at present conduct.

51. We need not be accused of cynicism if we remark that the great attraction of English education lies in the fact that a knowledge of English is required for all the better-paid posts. Parents naturally choose for their sons, and often for their daughters, that from of education which promises the best material prospects. English is the language of Government and of most of the important commerce of the island. It is, therefore the path to affluence. Even if it were not, a knowledge of English (or some other western language) would be required by all who wished to pursue higher students. There are few suitable advanced textbooks in Sinhalese or Tamil. The demand for such books has not been sufficiently great in the past to warrant the expenses of translation. Accordingly, those who wish to proceed to higher education must inevitably possess a thorough knowledge of Education of English. These facts do not in themselves justify the use of that language as the medium of instruction: but those who are taught in English will speak, and understand it better than those who are merely taught it as s second language. Consequently, so long as there are English schools, they will inevitably be preferred.

52. Moreover, the English schools have been, and are, better schools. They have better buildings, better equipment and better teachers. Some have held the view that, in a country which takes its political thought and its economic principles in such large measure from the west, an education through a western medium would be preferred; and according to others the material advantages to be gained under the system of government which has prevailed since the beginning of the nineteenth century alone suffice to explain the preference. What is certain is that, since Government and the missionary societies began opening English schools those who could afford the luxury have patronized them. Those schools have charged fees throughout their history and, with the aid of these fees and benefactions, have gradually been able to provide buildings and equipment on a scale impossible in the Sinhalese and Tamil schools, whether provided by Government or not. What is more, they have employed better teachers. School Principals have been brought in from the west. Though the general standard of entrance to the teaching profession was not very high until the present century, it was always higher than in the Sinhalese and Tamil schools. “English” teachers had a more costly education and as they had adopted a higher standard of living, they had to be paid higher salaries: and since these schools offered higher salaries, they attracted a better type of teacher. Cause and consequence have been so entwined in the course of over a century that it is now impossible to sort them out.

53. For all these reasons, those who could afford to do so have sent their sons and daughters to English schools. There they have learned to use English as their normal medium of expression. Many of them, indeed, are unable to speak fluently and easily in Sinhalese or Tamil. English has thus been a badge of social superiority. We all recognize this state of affairs to be harmful and our recommendations are calculated to mitigate the evil. We are of opinion that the neglect of their own languages by the English educated classes prevents them from developing their own culture thus contributing their quota to the culture of the world. We are convinced that Sinhalese and Tamil is the “natural” medium for the Sinhalese or Tamil people and the only medium through which they can effectively contribute to the world of literature and art, although some are of the view that it is desirable only from

a national standpoint that Ceylonese children should be educated through the medium of the languages of the island.

54. A second major defect in our educational system is its excessive uniformity. Whilst it may be necessary to have a considerable degree of uniformity in the primary stage of education differentiation becomes essential in the post-primary stage according to the capacity of the pupils, their inclinations and the needs of the country. We accept the view of the Spens Committee that post-primary education "may be described as education conducted in view of the special life that has to be lived with the express purpose of forming a person fit to live it". This is not exhibited, however, in our system of education which is purely academic in character and bears little relation to the practical aspects of life. There has been some attempt at functional differentiation by the establishment of rural scheme and industrial schools and the introduction of domestic science in the curricula of girls' schools. But at the present time these schemes are not of general operation yet. Though we do not agree that education should be conditioned by the prospects of employment, and do accept the view that every child should receive the type and degree of education for which he is more fitted, it does not follow that all post-primary education should be of one type and should be almost completely divorced from the needs of the pupils after they leave school.

55. A third major defect is the absence of equality opportunity. The development of our educational system has resulted in two types of schools-one attended mainly by those who can afford to pay fees, and the other attended by those whose means did not permit them to do so. There is no easy transition from the one to the other, so that it is quite impossible for the child of poor parents to proceed to higher education. Nor is the child's progress in "English education" determined primarily by his ability. If he leaves at fourteen, or sixteen, or eighteen, the explanation may be that he has reached his educational limit; but it is more likely that he has reached the bottom of his father's purse or that his brothers and sisters are beginning to make calls on what remains of its contents.

56. There is no evidence that ability depends on the size of the father's income, and the loss to the country caused by the series of economic barriers presented by its educational structure must be considerable. In other countries there are means by which the ablest of the poorest classes can go as high as those of equal ability in other classes. In Ceylon there are few such opportunities. The fault must not be attributed wholly to Government, nor wholly to the fact that nearly all secondary education is in the hands of denominational bodies; in most countries there are large endowments provided by ''pious and immortal'' benefactors for the education of "poor scholars". In Ceylon the local authorities, namely, the Municipal Councils, Urban Councils, and Village Committees do not bear any share of the financial responsibility for education and the Central Government has all along found from its revenue the entire public expenditure on education. Although the Education Ordinance of 1939 provides for the devolution of this responsibility on local bodies there is no prospect of these provisions being given effect to in the near future. The country has not been fortunate too in the matter of private endowments or benefactions for the educational cause. There are just a handful of such endowments and let us hope that for the future public-spirited citizens of affluence will come forward to demonstrate in a concrete manner their enthusiasm for the cause. It must, however, be admitted that the Assisted schools have been doing something in this direction by awarding scholarships and free places to enable poor and deserving children to prosecute their studies at such schools.

57. A fourth major defect is that "compulsory education" is in substantial measure not compulsory. This is due to a variety of causes, such as, an insufficiency of schools to take in all the school-going children in certain areas, the poverty and apathy of parents and certain difficulties in enforcing the law relating to compulsory attendance. Ever since the introduction of the new Constitution a sustained effort has been made by Government to put up more schools in areas insufficiently served but the pace has not been rapid to cover the entire gap in the school system. We may also refer here to the indifference shown by local authorities to this question. We are informed that in the city of Colombo itself there are many children not attending school because there are no free schools for them. We understand that some time ago the Executive Committee of Education proposed to the Municipal Council that, if the council would set apart suitable land or the purpose, Government would put up the necessary schools. Had the Council acceded to this proposal, the blot of thousands of children in the city of Colombo going without schooling would have been removed. We cannot omit to emphasize that our educational system cannot be satisfactory until schools are provided for all the children of the Island without exception. We deal in a later chapter with the laxity of the compulsory attendance law and the apathy of parents in the matter of their children's education and suggest ways and means of combating them. We may, however, note in passing that the

provision of free midday meals in the free schools in certain areas of the Island has contributed a great deal to the improvement of attendance at schools. We do not agree that the poverty of parents should be accepted as an excuse for exempting children from school attendance. In Great Britain no exemptions are permitted up to the age of 14 and recent legislation has raised the age (subject to exception under stringent condition) to 15. Proposals are now being made to increase the compulsory minimum to 16. If the State decides that every child should be educated up to the age of 14 at least, the State should see that the rule is enforced. The lack of a proper school survey and funds for the provision of new schools are defects which will be discussed in detail in the Chapter on "Educational Administration"

58. There are other defects, of less importance, to which we draw attention in subsequent chapters and for which we suggest remedies. Some of the more important of these are the following: -

(1) The inadequacy, in many cases, of school grounds, buildings and equipment especially for practical work;
(2) The domination of curricula by examinations;
(3) The narrowness of curricula, especially in the secondary schools;
(4) The unsuitable nature of external examinations;
(5) The shortage (and often the poor quality) of books in Sinhalese and Tamil;
(6) The lack of sufficient provision for the blind, deaf, dump, epileptic, crippled, mentally deficient, and backward children;
(7) The inadequate provision for adult education; and
(8) The abnormal percentage of withdrawals of pupils at the end of the primary stage.

59. Many of these problems are due to shortage of funds. We were appointed to investigate partly because of doubts whether the state was receiving value for its experience. That question we cannot answer, for there is no means of measuring the benefits obtained or obtainable from expenditure on education. The annual report of the English Board of education for 1935 gives a survey of educational developments from 1910 to 1935. The expenditure from the Treasury and the local authorities on those branches of education within the preview of the Board increased in that period from £27,900,000 in 1909-1910 to £85,100,000 in 1934-35, or from 15s. 6d, to 42s. per heads of the population[10]. The Board does not attempt to assess the consequences. It merely quote from the report on the primary school issued by the Consultative Committee: -

"Few features in the history of the last thirty years are more striking or more inspiring than the improvement in the health, the manners, the level of intellectual attainment, the vitality and happiness of the rising generation".

60. In Ceylon too there has been a rapid increase during the last two decades in the Government expenditure on education. The expenditure for the year 1920-21 was Rs. 4,138,762; that for the year1930-31 was Rs. 12,479,918; that for the year 1940-1941 was Rs. 19,687,010. The expenditure during the last financial year was Rs. 21, 605,952 which works out at a little less than Rs. 4 per lead of the population. So that in spite of the rapid increase the present expenditure on a per capita basis is very low. This of course is not comparable with that for England. A highly industrialized country with a high standard of living can afford to pay far more for education than a country such as Ceylon. Yet the productivity of a country depends in large measure on the educational level of its people. Nor can it be said that the difference between Rs. 30 and Rs. 4 is the difference between an England level and a Ceylon level. Although a good deal of improvement can be affected without an appreciable increase in the present cost, we must frankly confess that full developments are not possible without the provision of adequate funds.

CHAPTER VI
CONTROL OF EDUCATION

61. As envisaged in the questionnaire under heading "C" "control of schools" we discuss in this chapter in a general way the question of the administrative control of schools reserving to the chapter on "Educational Administration" the consideration of details. As will be seen in the next succeeding chapter the schools system we

[10] Education in 1935 (Cmd.5290), p. 35

have evolved will consist of the primary school in the primary grade; and the practical, senior and secondary schools in the post-primary grade. We are primarily concerned with the control of these types of schools. The question as to who should have control of education is still a burning question. With us although it has been definitely answered in a number of progressive countries. It leads us to the consideration of the advantages and suitability to this country of (a) a State system of public education, and (b) the voluntary system commonly known at the present day as the denominational system. We have amidst us either system in operation side by side. We have seen how in 1920 an attempt was made by the then administration to introduce a system of State education without much success. The legislation of 1920 no doubt provided for an expansion in the number of Government schools, and there was in fact such an expansion, but denominational schools too increased in number. Whilst Government schools increased from 895 in 1920 to 1,395 in 1930 the Assisted schools increased from 1,868 to 2,246. The controversy as to State v. denominational system was again revived in 1939 when the present Education Ordinance was in draft. There was no question at that time of "scrapping" the denominational system. But denominationalists got alarmed and demanded that the opportunity should be taken to give the denominational system a legal status. On the other hand, a considerable body of public opinion expressed itself in favor of a State system. The memoranda submitted to us at the outset of our inquiry and the oral evidence taken by us indicate that the support of either system is more or less equally balanced. All Christian organizations are opposed to a State monopoly of control. Among the Hindus and Buddhists opinion is divided. The Muslims are mainly on the side of denominational education but realizing that they do not have the necessary resources to establish their own schools prefer State schools for their children to those conducted by other denominations. In these circumstances we are compelled to weigh carefully the advantages or otherwise of either system of control.

62. We would make it clear that mere State control of education does not necessarily connote a State System, for even under a denominational system the State has to exercise over schools a certain measure of control; for example, State control must ensure the maintenance of a minimum standard of educational efficiency. By a State system we mean a system in which the schools are owned, controlled and administered by the State. Very few in this country favour a perfectly State controlled system in which a central administrative authority defines and prescribes virtually every aspect of its organization, curricula, courses of study, &c. The State system we discuss here is one in which control will be confined to what are called the *externa* of education, i,e., matters such as compulsory attendance, character of school buildings, medical inspection and health of children, Size of classes, qualifications, salaries and appointment of teachers and above all ownership of schools. We are agreed that the *interna.*, i.e., those aspects of education for all the promotion of which teachers and pupils are brought together, namely, curricula, courses of study, methods of instruction, &c., should not be made subject to prescription by the State.

63. The main argument for a State system of public education rests on the thesis that the State as the representative of the people should alone have the right to determine the nature and the means which will guarantee both its own stability and the welfare of its citizens. In the West education was for a long time in the hands of the Church and private bodies. But with the rise of the political concept of nationalism and the realization that national welfare and security depend on education State interference became inevitable. In some cases, this resulted in conflict between Church and State in others in a partnership between them. As all things that constitute progress and welfare depended on education, mass education became an imperative need. This could only be attempted by a powerful organization such as the State. With the development of democratic institutions, the idea of equality of educational opportunity took root. The State could, it was argued, achieve equality of opportunity and justice in social life better than any other body or organization. By equality of opportunity is not meant the same opportunities for all children for obtaining the same education. It really means opportunities for obtaining an education for which a Person is best suited. There is a further argument for a state system of education. No system of mass education can be satisfactory carried out unless it is Financed from funds raised by taxation. Now under our democratic procedure if public funds are expended on any project public control is inescapable. It is also urged that the teaching profession being a large one the greater part of the salary cost of which is now borne by the State, opportunities for employment in it should be available to all deserving persons and the State alone could distribute these opportunities impartially on the basis of merit and not of race, caste or creed. Countries like France, Germany, the U.S.A., Italy and Russia have accepted a State system of public education. We are, however, not certain that its operation in these countries, particularly in countries where education had been fashioned to sub serve the ends of totalitarian ideology, has always produced desirable

results. We do nevertheless admit that there are certain advantages in a State system. But there are disadvantages too. The tendency to encroach on individual liberty is inherent in such a system. There is the possibility of collective aims being unduly stressed and a uniformity of views incompatible with the democratic way of life might result. We do not, however, think that the system of Government schools in existence at present has suffered from any of these disadvantages. It is difficult to say either from theoretical argument or from the experience of the operation of both the denominational and State system in other countries that one is superior to the other. With certain religious communities it would appear to be a strong conviction that education must be conducted under denominational auspices. We do not believe that in seeking to control education denominational bodies are influenced by any desire to play the ''high and dangerous game of power-politics". Neither do we agree with the witness who stated at Kandy that "denominational schools often serve as political outposts". At the same time, for some years there has been a growing body of opinion which has expressed itself strongly in favour of a national system emphasizing, quite apart from individual development, equality of opportunity and certain national ideals common to all sections of the population. We therefore recommend *that the system of direct State control and the system of denominational control should be permitted to exist side by side.*

64. The main argument for the denominational system has been that education must be imparted against the background of religion. The world is as much in need of religion today as ever before. We are in the midst of a cataclysm that has engulfed the whole world. We see the extent to which power and greed dominate the world and knowledge and science are being prostituted to bring about the destruction and devastation that is now going on all around us. Some people are asking-" Have the youth of today who are fighting each other in all parts of the globe been brought up on a wrong sense of values? ''The answer is that social, political and educational aims have been deficient. Accordingly, in any new educational system we should attach greater importance to moral than to mere intellectual development. It is no less the duty of the State than that of the parent to ensure that the child receives as far as is practicable a "complete'' education and we are of opinion that a religious background is indispensable to a ''complete'' education. It is the purpose of denominational control to ensure that this religious background or atmosphere is always present and character training is given as much emphasis as the training of the mind. Accordingly, our next recommendation on the question of denominational control is *that whenever any section of the community desires the education of their children conducted under the supervision of the denomination to which the children belong the State shall grant the necessary facilities.* If on the other hand there is no school in a locality or if the majority of the parents of that locality ask for a State school it is the duty of the State to establish such a school. The conditions under which new denominational schools may be established and aided by the State will be dealt with later.

65. We noticed in the Course of the evidence that there is a misapprehension as to the significance of the term "religious background". We should have thought it obvious that religious background or religious atmosphere can refer only to the religion of the child whose education is under discussion-or rather the religion into which the child is born, i.e., the religion of the parents at the time of his or her birth (providing that no conversion from the religion at birth to another has taken place). So that, to a child born of Christian parents only a school conducted by a Christian denominational body will furnish a proper religious background, to a Buddhist child a Buddhist school, and so on. But some witnesses appeared to think that the kind of religion did not matter whereas others thought some religious atmosphere was better than none. In our opinion the denominational ideal should be to ensure that the education of a child is controlled and supervised by the denomination to which the parent of the child belongs. We realize however that this is not practicable in the present conditions where minority denominations are in control of the majority of schools. It was pressed upon us that the State should bring about a reversal of this state of affairs by discouraging children from attending a school of an "unlike'' denomination. As far as the existing denominational schools are concerned, we think that such a reform should be achieved without resort to any action by the State. The objection to a child attending a school of an "unlike" denomination is nevertheless sound. Present day denominationalists have time and again publicly stated that they do not now proselytize (whatever might have happened in the past) through the medium of schools. We welcome this changed attitude. We are also aware that the recent tightening-up of the conscience clause has had some good effect. But all the same it is incompatible with the denominational thesis that children should attend schools on an ''unlike'' denomination. When during the period of the first School Commission Catholic children were obliged to attend the more efficient Protestant schools one of the Catholic leaders wrote that "for a bit of bread they were tempted in those very schools to renounce their faith and become Protestants before they could well understand

what religion was". This argument gives in a nutshell the *raison d'etre* of denominational control of education. What is strongly objected to by some parents is that children in their impressionable years should be weaned away from the faith of their fathers. We must, however, mention that conversion through the medium of schools has not been considerable in recent years. But a final settlement of this question can be achieved only when the denominational system reaches its ideal state. Of course, it will then have achieved one undesirable result, i.e., the segregation of the youth of the Island into religious groups without opportunities for mixing with and understanding each other. But we consider that the advantages of an ideal denominational system outweigh its defects. Until this ideal is reached a large number of children Will have no alternative but to attend schools of an "unlike" denomination. Their education cannot of course be said to be complete. The foundations of moral and religious development must, however, be laid in the home. If parents or guardians and the various religious organizations will assume greater responsibility for the moral upbringing of children the advantages of an education in a denominational school to children of an "unlike" denomination will be offset to a great extent. We would also suggest for the consideration of denominational authorities that provision be made for the instruction of these children in their own religion. Such provision would of course involve what used to be known as the right of entry, to which objection had been taken in the past. We do not think that, in these enlightened days, when people all the world over are becoming more tolerant, any such objection will be taken. Apart from the impossibility of reversing the existing state of affairs in which children belonging to majority denominations have to attend schools under the control of minority denominations we do not think it fair by the promoters of the existing established denominational schools to do anything that will have the effect of crippling such schools. They have done and are doing a great service to the country and should be allowed to continue without being subjected to any disabilities. For the future, however, we suggest certain remedial measures. We have taken into consideration the unhealthy rivalry and competition which in recent times have been observed in the development of the denominational system. The present ay denominations would appear to be content to limit their activities to providing education for their own children. They are as anxious as the Government is to avoid duplication schools and wastage of public money. *We therefore recommend that the following conditions should be laid down in regard to the recognition of a denominational school established after the date of these reforms and in regard to assisting such a school from, public funds: -*

(a) to be recognized it shall have at least 30 pupils of school-going age of the same denomination as the controlling body who reside with their parents within a radius from the school of two miles for boys and one mile for girls and children unde18 years of age.

(b) having been recognized and registered for grant such a school shall have at least 30 pupils of school-going age of the same denomination as the controlling body if it is to continue to receive assistance from public funds;

(c) if it is within 2 miles of an already existing State school, children of an "unlike" denomination shall not be taken into account for assessing grant;

(d) if it is within, 2 miles of a State school established later, children of an ''unlike'' denomination shall continue to be reckoned in the assessment of grant.

The above conditions shall apply to the primary and the three types of post primary schools. In the next chapter we recommend that practical schools should be conducted as central schools. As we want to avoid a multiplicity of such schools, we recommend that practical central schools must be State-managed except where there are over 100 post-primary children belonging to one denomination when a separate practical school under the control of 1the denomination may be permitted.

66. We now come to the question of religion in State schools. There was a certain section of opinion that was entirely opposed to any religious instruction being given in State schools. State neutrality in matters pertaining to religion was pleaded in support of the objection. To our mind State neutrality, which we certainly uphold, means that the State shall not do anything that will have the effect of helping any particular denomination alone to further its objects; that the State should hold the scales evenly as between different denominations. We do not agree that religious instruction in Government schools is inconsistent with State neutrality in matters of religion so long as the State makes similar and equal provision for all communities. In fact, we go further and assert that it is the duty of the State to provide in its schools for the religious instruction of the pupils. We do not even see anything wrong in the State subsidizing the teaching of religion in schools provided all denominations are equally treated in the matter of such subsidy. By religious instruction is of course meant instruction in the religion of the

parent of the child given by a teacher belonging to the same religion. We already have provision in the Education Ordinance, 1939, for the giving of religious instruction in Government schools. It is provided that such religious instruction should be given out of school hours and by persons authorized by the Director of Education and with the consent of the parents. There is nothing novel about this provision. We understand that in countries like the U.S.A. where a State system prevails, there is a strong agitation for the introduction of religious instruction in State schools. Our present attitude, which may appear to some as revolutionary, is based on the thesis we have propounded earlier, that a religious background is indispensable to a complete education. To be logical, we cannot in the same breath decry religion in State schools. Anyone who does so will be accused of merely trying to bolster up a case for the denominational schools. Our view is, therefore, the logical conclusion of the denominational thesis itself. We are not aware of any administrative difficulties in the way of arranging for religious instruction in State schools. *We therefore recommend that religions instruction shall be provided in all State schools subject to the condition that any parent may withdraw his child from such instruction by request addressed to the head teacher.* We realize that different arrangements have to be made for children of different religions. The responsibility for making the arrangements should be cast on the head teacher and other competent teachers who should be instructed to consult the denominational authority concerned in regard to the teachers who will be in charge of the arrangements. The actual teaching may be entrusted to competent teachers on the staff or to teachers from outside if no suitable person on the staff is available. Outside teachers must of course be approved by the Director. We also recommend that religious instruction be made part of the curriculum. Teachers on the staff will not be paid for this work, but if visiting teachers have to be appointed, we recommend that a small allowance be paid to them.

67. We also discuss in this chapter the control of training schools. Till recently all the training schools with the exception of two have been under the control of denominational bodies. During the last three years, in response to the demands of Muslims and Kandyans, three more Government training schools were established. The number of teachers trained annually is not very large, but we cannot help observing that the number of small schools is too many. We understand that some are conducted with 25 or 30 students. We do not think it possible to maintain a high standard of training in these small schools. It is certainly preferable to pool the resources of the small schools and run larger, better organized and better equipped schools. Training schools cater to adolescents over the age of 18. We therefore did not consider that the reasons for denominational control were so compelling as in the case of the primary and post primary schools. While we were prepared to admit the desirability of teachers, who are to serve in denominational schools, being trained in a religious atmosphere, we were opposed to segregating them and dividing them by communal barriers during a period when they have a good deal to gain by contact and association with colleagues of different views and outlook. Besides, the entire recurrent cost of training schools is now home from public funds and we are recommending later that this system should continue. In view of these considerations we decided to recommend that future training schools should be controlled and conducted by the State, but that provision should be made in them for the giving of religious instruction as part of the curriculum. We considered the position of the existing Assisted training schools and were of opinion that they should, within a period of three years, come under State control or be conducted by the respective controlling bodies on a self-supporting basis without any aid from public funds. These recommendations were made public and strong representations were received from some denominational bodies that absolute State control of teacher-training was not in the boot interests of denominational education. The question was accordingly brought up for review and reconsideration. *After further prolonged discussion we came to the conclusion that denominational control of training schools should continue.* We, however, adhere to the view that too many small schools cannot but militate against efficiency. We therefore recommend that denominational training schools should be assisted from public funds only if they are conducted in accordance with the principles laid down in Chapter XII. The existing Assisted training schools will continue to be grant-aided only if they are reorganized to conform to these principles within a period of three years. We think that the insistence on this condition will induce the denominational bodies to combine and amalgamate some of their small schools and this is bound to ensure more efficient teacher-training.

68. It was suggested to us that we should consider the question of banning altogether unaided schools, i.e., schools conducted without any form of aid from the State. It was argued that these schools might exercise a disturbing influence on the schools which come within the system we recommend. In certain countries private schools mainly catering to the richer classes add variety to the school system. Even if it is feared that a large number of such schools would spring up, we do not consider that Government would be justified in prohibiting them altogether. Such action would be justly objected to as an unwarranted encroachment on the liberty of the

citizen. *We therefore recommend that no undue restriction be placed on unaided schools, but that power be taken to inspect them to ensure that they maintain a minimum standard in regard to accommodation including playground, equipment, staff and efficiency of instruction given.* There is also the question of private tutories. Provided they do not admit children who are within the age of compulsory school attendance we do not think that there should be any undue restriction of their activities. They should of course not be permitted to enter candidates for school examinations held by the Department. The approved unaided schools may be allowed to enter their pupils for such examinations.

69. One of the pressing problems of to-day relating to the control and management of schools is the difficulty of ensuring that schools are properly conducted and the funds collected in their name are properly used. We are told that a good deal of the time of the Department is spent in inquiring into abuses perpetrated in regard to the administration of Assisted schools. These are said to be more frequent in the case of schools owned by individual proprietors. In respect of the Sinhalese and Tamil schools the Government today bears the entire salary cost as well as a fraction of the cost of maintenance of buildings and of equipment. In the olden days when grants were meagre the school was considered to be a charitable concern and very often the proprietor or manager had to spend from his own funds to maintain the school in a state of efficiency. Witness after witness has told us that the position is deplorable at present and abuses such as ''voluntary'' contributions from teachers and false salary receipts had assumed alarming proportions, particularly in schools owned by individual proprietors. Such schools have come to be regarded as the proprietors' property transferable for consideration. We think that it is time that some remedy is found for this state of affairs. *We recommend, firstly, that no school established in the future and controlled by an individual proprietor shall be assisted from public funds. Secondly, a condition of State aid to all new schools shall be that proprietor a hip, as defined in the Education Ordinance, shall be vested in a religious or educational society incorporated by law or an educational society duly registered under any written law, provided that in the latter case the society possesses a minimum capital of Rs. 10,000.* It is necessary that one of the fundamental aims of the body that seeks to conduct a school shall be the promotion of education. We do not think that we ought to give short shrift to the existing Assisted schools under the control of individual proprietors. As we are proposing further safeguards to ensure the proper administration of the funds of aided schools, we see no objection to their being allowed to continue. It has been brought to our notice that even in respect of society-controlled schools the administration of funds raised in the name of education leaves much to be desired. We therefore consider that the principle should be affirmed that all schools which receive any form of aid from the State along with the property and funds dedicated to them should be declared by law to be perpetual educational trusts. This is all the more necessary if the State, as we recommend later in this Report, is to bear the full cost of education. As our existing Ordinance relating to trusts is somewhat involved and complicated it would be necessary to enact a separate law and include in it provision for the registration of school proprietors. We realize that in a number of cases the land on which Assisted schools are situated might belong to a church, mosque, or temple. We do not contemplate that such land should be brought within the ambit of the proposed legislation. The main objects are to give a certain degree of permanence to the school and to prevent abuse of property and funds belonging to the school. Appendix 5 contains a draft of the Ordinance we have in view. We have not been able to get it settled by the Legal Draftsman. If the Executive Committee of Education accepts the principle which we want laid down it will no doubt take up the question of having the law properly drafted.

70. There remains to be considered the question of the control of the institutions to which the practical, senior and secondary schools lead. First, there is the University and professional colleges. These are all autonomous institutions except teachers' training schools which we have dealt with already. The Polytechnic and Technical schools will cater mainly to the senior school pupils and the agricultural and trade schools to the practical school pupils. We do not favour the application of the grant-in-aid system to these types. These are more or less professional and vocational institutions and might to a large extent be established and conducted by the State. There is already a Government Technical College which is also an Engineering College. The higher engineering side will in due course be transferred to the University and the Technical College will then become a Technical High school imparting training necessary to produce all classes of skilled workers. We are of opinion that a few more Government Technical schools should be established in the more important provincial towns. There should of course be no restriction whatever on the conduct of Polytechnics by private enterprise. The State need not assist them with funds, but should encourage them and help them with advice and guidance on matters relating to organization, courses, &c.

CHAPTER VII.

GRADING, CLASSIFICATION AND ORGANIZATON OF SCHOOLS.

71. A reorganization of the school system based on generally accepted principles of educational theory and the needs of the country is perhaps the most pressing of the many overdue reforms in our educational structure. We have already referred to the lack of variety in the existing system which consists of, on the English side, the primary, junior secondary, senior secondary and collegiate schools. We use the expression “English side'' to indicate the medium of instruction used in the school. On the vernacular side (the medium of instruction being Sinhalese or Tamil) there are the primary, junior secondary and senior secondary schools. A few primary schools are separately organized and there are a few collegiate schools, which have no primary departments. The other two types almost invariably include the primary school. The above division merely indicates the standard of the courses and is not based on any principle of differentiated educational provision. We also see in it the two parallel systems of schools which have already been referred to and which are distinguished by the medium of instruction used. There is also the bilingual school in which the courses are given through the medium of Sinhalese or Tamil at the beginning and English is progressively introduced from the IVth standard, and ultimately English becomes the sole medium of instruction. The use of the term "bilingual'' for this type of school is misleading. It has more or less been in the nature of an experiment intended to discover the best method of harmonizing the claims of English so necessary on utilitarian grounds and of Sinhalese or Tamil necessary on national grounds. We have already stated that it has not been a success. We use the term "bilingual" hereafter to indicate the use of two languages side by side as media throughout the entire course. The question of bilingualism is both interesting and important and we shall revert to it in the next chapter. There are then the industrial schools with impart vocational training and the rural scheme schools which are a recent attempt to impart a rural and practical bias to education. They have, however, not been established on a large scale. Some industrial schools have done and are doing valuable work but on the whole, we cannot say that they have realized the objects for which they were started. With their extreme specialization on selected industries they were not found to fit in properly into a system administered by the Education Department. Many of them were transferred to the control of the Department of Industries with effect from October 1, 1941. Four years ago, a new type of school called the “central school'' was established by the Government in certain areas. The term is used here not merely in the geographical sense but also to indicate differentiated educational provision in the same school. This was a well-considered step taken by the Executive Committee of Education; it was a genuine attempt, however feeble, to free the educational system from the reproach of being purely literary.

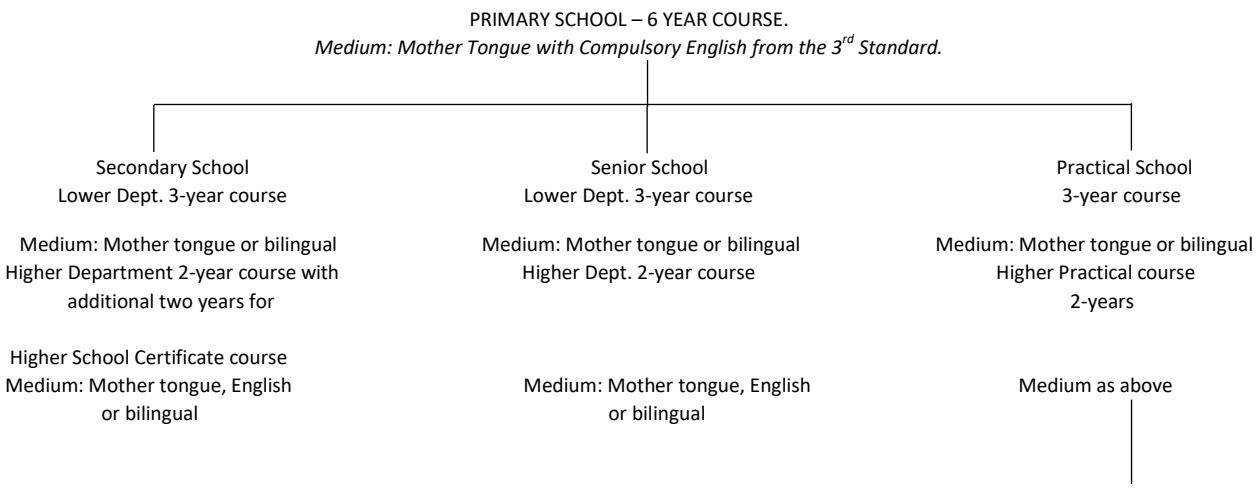
72. It is not altogether correct to say that the present classification with very little differentiation in the courses has alone been responsible for the country's stagnation in the economic field. On the other hand, it cannot also be said that the extent and nature of the present educational provision has been solely determined by the country's development or the lack of it. It is very often true that a country gets the educational system it deserves. But then it is also true that only part in and make their due contribution to its social, economic and political development. It is really a vicious circle. But the accepted view now is that although the educational system should be closely related to the present needs and conditions it has also to be planned with due regard to all possible lines which future development is likely to take. The development of education must not only keep pace with a country’s advance but should definitely contribute to accelerating the pace of the advance. This country has vast areas to be developed and many natural resources yet to be tapped or exploited. Its industrial developments has lagged behind. In plantation agriculture vast strides have been made, but in peasant agriculture a good deal more has yet to be achieved. Then in the political sphere we are able to foresee to some extent the line of advance. The need to produce more men and women to shoulder far greater responsibilities and to lead the country is manifest. Although we may take some pride in the existing social services such as education and health further expansion is called for. Then new services and schemes like unemployment insurance and old age pensions have to be undertaken. All these require trained personnel. It is obvious that a uniform education will result wastage of the nation's energy, money and human material. Educational provision has therefore to be differentiated with reference to the future careers of the pupils and the contribution to social and individual well-being they are capable of. To get at a sound basis of differentiation we may group the workers in the State into three categories. Every citizen will eventually become a worker of one kind or other. We have in all civilized societies the following

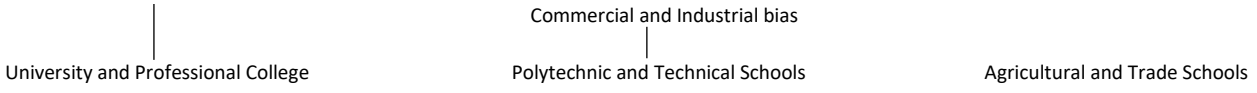
classes :-(i) the professional class, i.e., the administrator, the lawyer, doctor, teacher, and the ' staff ' men in commerce and industry; (ii) the highly skilled class, i.e., the middle executives in the public and mercantile services, technicians, &c.; and (iii) the ordinary skilled and semi skilled class, i.e., the artisan, farmer, laborer, &c. The classification of schools and the differentiation of courses we have devised is partly based on the above economic groupings. We should, however, not be misunderstood as holding that for definite employment. As will be seen later we do not depart from the generally accepted view that the demands of a liberal education should not be sacrificed to the interests of narrow specialization for particular vocations. This of course is more a matter of curricula and method of teaching than of general school organization.

73. The most compelling and convincing argument for differentiated educational provision is the existence of wide differences in the general intelligence, special abilities and innate aptitudes of children on which more light has been thrown by modern psychological research. Education to be successful and profitable must be related to the actual needs of the children to be educated. Diversity of gifts must be catered for by diversity of educational provision. We are therefore of opinion that the new school system should be designed to supply three types of education. We have no doubt that a large number of boys and girls who are in attendance at the present-day secondary schools are not altogether fitted for the type of education they receive and the experience of our educators confirms this view. At the same time there must be many children who ought to do well in a secondary school but who owing to economic and other causes are unable to receive that type of education. Our proposals will go a great way to correct these anomalies although complete equality of opportunity is not a matter of educational reform only.

74. Our proposals for grading and classification of schools, a diagrammatical illustration of which appears below (also in Appendix 6) are based on the principles enunciated above. They were widely circulated before oral evidence was taken, and have received whole-hearted support. The diagram gives an indication of our recommendations not only in respect of grading and classification but also in respect of such matters as length of courses and medium of instruction. We shall discuss the subject of medium of instruction and allied questions in the next chapter. We now proceed to a detailed explanation of our proposals. It will be seen that three definite stages of education are contemplated. i.e., the primary, the post-primary and the stage beyond the post-primary which comprises University, professional and technical education. We are primarily concerned with the first two stages. We refer to the division into these two stages as ''grading'', i.e., 3--J. N. A 93(l95 (11/49) to say, there shall be two grades of schools, the primary and post-primary. Classification of schools will be necessary only at the post-primary stage. We recommend three types of schools for the three types of education which have been referred to above and which will be distinguished not only by curricular differences but also by the length and standard of the courses. The division into stages should not be considered as constituting a break in the education of a person at specified points in his career. Education does not stop with the school or even with the University. Life itself is the best educator. Education is accordingly one continuous process. It must be regarded as a single organic whole. But it has to grow and expand with the growth of the education. Hence the necessity for successive stages.

Diagram Illustrating the Special Committee's Proposals for Grading, Classification, &c., of Schools





75. *The Nursery School* - Some witnesses brought to our notice the necessity for provision of nursery schools for the age group 3+ to 5+. We are only too well aware of the increasing imparlance that is beginning to be attached to what might be called the "nursery foundation" of civilization. We understand that psychologists consider that the foundations of mental health are laid during the period of two to five years of age. But we foresee various difficulties administrative and financial-in establishing nursery schools either separately or in connection with primary schools throughout the Island. We suggest that as soon as our most immediate needs in the educational organization have been satisfied the nursery school question should be considered. We have no doubt that Government will then have the necessary public support for establishing nursery schools. For the present we have left them out of our grading scheme. *We recommend that an experiment be made with this type of school in the principal towns like Colombo, Galle, Jaffna, and Kandy, and even other urban areas where it is possibly, with the financial support of the local authorities concerned, to cater in particular to working class children.*

The Primary School.

76. Nursery education is commonly referred to as pre-school education. We therefore regard the primary stage as the first stage in school education. Education during this stage is of a very general and preparatory character and should be directed towards fostering the healthy growth-physical, intellectual and moral of children. There is therefore no necessity for any ''types''. The schools which are to represent this first phase will be of the same kind. There was compete unanimity of view on this point, but it was urged by a few that although uniformity should be enforced in respect of curriculum and objectives there should be freedom to choose the medium of instruction and to charge fees to enable the primary schools to be run with the maximum of efficiency. We certainly agree that the maximum of efficiency should be aim at in every primary school, but we have no hesitation in rejecting the proposal for types of primary schools other than those using the mother tongue as the medium of instruction and, then again, to affect a further division according as fees are charged or not. We are convinced that the existence of such divisions in the primary stage would perpetuate the present state of affairs in which the children of wealthy Ceylonese parents are educated from the beginning through the medium of a foreign language. Except in the case of those whose mother tongue is English or of those whose mother tongue is neither Sinhalese nor Tamil, there is no justification for adopting English as the medium at the primary stage. Even if the medium were to be the mother tongue or bilingual, the creation of two types the fee-levying and the free school will lead to the division of the community of children so early in life into rich and poor and foster a type of snobbery detrimental to social solidarity. We are therefore strongly of opinion that all primary schools should have a common ideal and objective and should offer not merely equality of opportunity but identity of opportunity. *In short, we recommend for the primary stage a common school with a common education.*

77. The next point we have to establish is the demarcation of the primary stage from the post-primary stage. Here, two questions arise. Firstly, at what point, not merely with reference to age but also with reference to mental and physical development, should the educand be introduced to a higher and different stage in the educational process differing from its predecessor in regard to organization, methods, standards and objectives? Recent psychological research has uncovered two main facts: - (i.) that in the generality of cases the development of "general intelligence" reaches its peak about the age of 11 or 12; (ii.) about this age differences in the interests and abilities of children become manifest. This period also coincides with the onset of certain physiological changes that mark the end of childhood and the beginning of adolescence. A new type of school with new methods of approach and staffed by a new set of teachers and preferably in an altogether new environment is accordingly indicated. The vast majority of our witnesses are agreed that the primary stage should be regarded as ending at the age of 11+. Allowing for a six-year course (in certain cases it may be reduced to five years), we

assume primary education will begin at the age of 5+. The primary school will be organized into six substages or classes: - the infant class, 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 4th and 5th standards. We realize that under present conditions in many cases the age of entry will for some time be 6+ (in some cases it may be even 7+) and in such cases the primary course will extend to the age of 12+. We are however of opinion that efforts should be made to draw in all children into schools at 5+. With the improvement in social conditions and the health of the child population Government would be justified in universally enforcing attendance at schools at the age of 5. Secondly, at what point should differentiated educational provision be introduced? On this question there are conflicting opinions not only among the witnesses who gave evidence before us but in the educational world in general. The opposition to fixing this point at 11+ or on the completion of the Vth standard is based on the alleged difficulty of deciding which pupils will be suited to one or other of the types of education contemplated. There is of course a considerable body of opinion which regards 11+ as too early to make an effective or reasonable selection of those pupils who are deemed to be best suited to the more academic education of the secondary school. According to its selection at 13+ is more reasonable. Even if a selective examination is given up as unreliable the difficulty remains, the onus of deciding which type of education will best benefit their children being put on the parents. Then the next objection urged against differentiation at 11+ comes from the school of thought that holds that every boy and girl should have a minimum of general education unmixed with any technical or practical bias up to the age of fourteen so that quite apart from the material benefits of education, he or she may acquire a minimum of culture. We appreciate the force of the former objection, namely, the difficulty of making an effective and reasonable selection at 11+. But we are assured that a good deal is being done now in the way of perfecting intelligence tests and If these tests are held under the proper conditions the chances of error are remote. We do not see any substance in the latter objection. Culture can be acquired not merely through the knowledge and training imparted in the course of the teaching and learning in accordance with the "traditional" curriculum but also through the training of human skills. Besides, in this country under the present economic conditions the vast majority of the student population will have to take to some kind of occupation soon after the age of 14. If a uniform general education were imparted up to this age without at the same time giving some kind of training in the nature of a preparation for the life after school it is obvious that those, whose school education practically ceases at 14, will not find themselves any better for their education and will not be able to make any effective contribution to the economic life of the country. Accordingly, the need for a practical or technical bias is imperative in the case of the vast majority of post primary children. An academic bias is necessary only in the case of a few. We must however emphasize that whatever be the bias there should be no interference with the educational aim of mental development. An all-round general education for all up to the age of 14 is not ruled out by the trifurcation we recommend. The curriculum of the practical school and that of the secondary and senior school in the lower department will under our scheme be more or less the same although the method of approach to subjects of teaching may be different. Any intensive practical bias will be given only in the VIIIth standard. Our recommendation under the head of primary school accordingly are: -

(a) The primary school shall be of one type giving a six-year course normally beginning at the age of 5+ and ending at 11+

(b) It shall be separately organized under a separate staff and headmaster and conducted in separate buildings but may exist in the same premises as a post-primary school.

(c) The medium of instruction in the primary school shall be the mother tongue of the pupils.

78. The delimitation according to the age range above laid down should not be regarded as rigid. Under our law (which we later recommended should be amended) school attendance is enforceable only from the age of 6. In point of fact, too, a large number of children are not sent to school before this age. There are cases of children beginning their schooling even at 7. We realize that this state of affairs should not be allowed to continue but we appreciate the practical difficulties in the way. Reform has to be achieved gradually. Accordingly, primary school education may have to go on for some time till the age of 12 or even 13. A few children begin to attend the primary school at 4+. This should not be permitted. Children below the age of 5 should, if at all, be sent to a nursery school. Our recommendation for a separate organization, staff and buildings for the primary school is based on the desirability of keeping away children of this age group from the society or older children, who have begun to cultivate different habits and interests. We would wish the premises of primary schools also to be

separate from those of the post-primary schools but this may not always be possible. The staff of the primary school must have some special knowledge of problems peculiar to the training of children. In our opinion the majority of them must be women teachers. It is preferable that up to standard III all should be women. *We recommended that at least 75 percent of the primary school staff shall be women.*

Post-primary Schools.

79. We are of opinion that every primary school leaver, unless he has already reached the age of 14 and his circumstances do not permit of his continuance at school, shall enter one or other of the three types of post-primary schools we have decided. At present an unusually large number of Vth standard children do not proceed to post-primary education. The reasons are many and well known. We have no doubt that the variety of educational provision we introduce at the post-primary stage will help to remedy this state of affairs, but if the present abnormal percentage of wastage or ''falling by the wayside'' is to be effectively avoided other measures are necessary. This will be dealt with later in this Report. The three types of post-primary schools are designed for the different kinds of aptitudes and interests. The length of the courses has been determined on the basis of the type of education most suited to these different kinds having regard to the probable after school careers of the pupils. *We recommend that a three-year course shall be organized in the practical school with an optional further two-year course called the higher practical course, a five-year course in the senior school and a seven- year course in the secondary school.* We refer to the stage comprising the first three years in the senior and secondary school, i.e., the VI., VII. and VIII. standards as the lower department. This corresponds to the three years in the practical school. Normally the secondary school course should be one of five years. We recommend a further two years to enable a Higher Certificate class to be organized.

80. We now come to the question of the selection of the children for the three types of schools. We propose a differentiating test at the end of the Vth standard. We shall refer to this as the Vth standard test as later we recommend another test on completion of the VIIIth standard. It was suggested by a few that there should be no test at the Vth standard stage and parents should be free to choose for their children the type of post-primacy education they (the parents) like. Under present conditions we do not think that many parents can be expected to exercise their choice judiciously. They would rather choose a type of education which they consider socially and economically superior-which would confer the greatest material benefit-only to be disillusioned later when they see the finished products of education struggling hard to find suitable work in a glutted employment market. The choice of the type of education which a boy or girl should receive must therefore be determined by a selective test designed primarily to grade pupils according to their aptitudes. *Accordingly, we recommend that admission to the three types of post-primary schools shall be regulated by the results of the Vth standard test.* This test will be a written test organized by the Examination Board referred to later in this Report, and administered by the Department of Education in co-operation with the school authorities. There will be an intelligence test, a test in number, both in the mother tongue. There will also be two language tests, one in the mother tongue and one in English or other second language. Failure in the test in the second language is not to be considered a disqualification. There are some who consider that the results of a test held so early in a child's career should not be allowed to determine his whole future. We counter this argument by offering the following safeguards: -

(i.) by providing that any pupil may appear twice for the test in two consecutive years (the test will be conducted annually).

(ii.) by providing that border-line cases will receive special consideration and will be judged in the light of pupils' record sheets and headmasters' reports.

It was also urged that notwithstanding the result of the test parents should have the right to enter their children in schools of whatever type they desire and that fees should be charged in respect of children admitted to a type of school which they are considered not fit to attend. We do not favour this suggestion. It is of course open to such parents to send their children to private unaided schools. Admission to Government and Assisted schools should strictly conform to the test results. The question was raised in this connection as to whether private schools for these children should be permitted to be conducted alongside Assisted schools. We are, for obvious reasons, opposed to their being run in the same premises as Assisted schools. There is of course the case of the late

developers. We have to provide for them by a further test-not necessarily a written test-at the end of the Vlth or VIIth standard. In fact, it is not difficult for teachers to observe this "late developer" phenomenon in the class room. We recommend that the headmaster of the senior or practical school should report periodically such cases to the Inspector of Schools. The Department of Education will then determine the question of the transfer of the pupils concerned to other schools.

81. Although the secondary school and the senior school will be organized as separate units the course of studies for the first three years will generally be the same. The end of this stage also marks the attainment in normal cases of the age of 14, the compulsory attendance limit. It is therefore found convenient to divide the entire course in the secondary and senior school into two stages, the lower and the higher department. We recommend that entry to the higher department should be determined by a further selective test on completion of the course in the lower department. This will be a General Ability test, designed to test capacity rather than attainment. We shall discuss the scheme of the test in the chapter on examinations. This test will also be administered by the Department of Education. It will be open to practical school pupils as well. No pupil will be allowed to proceed to the higher department of the secondary or senior school unless he is declared to be fit to do so on the results of this test. But a pupil may be allowed to appear for this test twice on two consecutive occasions. We do not recommend that parents should have the right to insist on their children continuing in the higher department of the secondary or senior school in defiance of the results of the test. When it is almost certain from the tests applied that a boy reaching this stage will not benefit by further education at a post-primary school (secondary or senior) it is in his interest to seek some kind of vocational training.

82. We have indicated in the diagram the type of institutions for post-school education or training which the generality of the products of the three types of schools will enter. Provision for such education or training already exists to a certain extent. We have the University (which has incorporated the Medical College) the Law College and Teachers' Training schools. Of these we are primarily concerned here with the organization of Teachers' Training schools only. We have decided that polytechnics, technical schools, agricultural and trade schools shall not come within the scheme of grant-in-aid schools. We have already dealt with the question of their control and shall deal with the question of their organization in the chapter on "Vocational education". There is just one important point which requires clarification. Although the possibility of senior school pupils entering the University is contemplated the path to the University must lie through the secondary schools. Practical and senior school pupils have an opportunity of transfer to the secondary school through the VIIIth standard test. Senior school pupils who complete the senior school course, normally at 16+, may be admitted subject to their competence and aptitude, to a two-year course at the secondary school to enable them to obtain a broad education and to be brought up to the standard required for the University entrance examination. We leave the question of such admissions to the discretion of the headmaster.

83. If our proposals for grading and classification of schools and free education (which we recommend in Chapter XIII.) are carried out a number of private schools both primary and post-primary is bound to spring up. They may not conform to our recommendations regarding classification and organization. They will, however, have to submit to inspection by the Department. It will be the responsibility of the Department to see that they maintain a minimum level of efficiency. We see no objection to pupils of private schools being transferred to Government and Assisted schools under the procedure we have recommended for such transfer. The selective tests will accordingly be open to children from private schools also.

84. Neither the Vth standard test nor the VIIIth standard test should be understood to be competitive. In a competitive examination the number of persons to be selected is fixed beforehand. But the purpose of these tests is to discover intelligence, ability and suitability to a particular course of study. We would therefore deprecate any tendency to introduce a competitive element into these tests. However, the normal percentage of Vth standard pupils that will seek admission to the three types of schools is estimated to be about: -

Secondary school... 5% Senior school... 15% Practical school... 80%. This percentage should of course be under constant review in the light of the experience gained in holding the test.

85. We have at present a type of school called the junior secondary school which always has a primary section. Such a school does not provide a complete course and as such will not find a place in our scheme. It has

however been urged that some provision of this kind should be made to cater for pupils in remote areas who may not on the ground of distance be in a position to attend a secondary or senior school but could with advantage complete the lower department course in a locality near their homes. We know too well the deficiencies of the existing junior secondary school and it is with some reluctance that we recommend concession to the above viewpoint. It should however be allowed only for very strong reasons. In our scheme such a school will be called the "junior school" and conducted alongside a primary school but organized separately. It will provide a three-year course at the end of which the pupils may proceed to the higher department of a secondary or senior school after sitting for the Vlllth standard test.

86. Although we have no objection to the secondary and Senior school being conducted side by side with a primary school on the same premises, we think that a multiplicity of practical schools should be avoided. The ultimate aim should be to run all practical schools as ''Central'' schools. We use the word ''central'' here purely in the geographical sense. Within a radius of about six miles there are bound to be at least five or six primary schools. Much effort and energy can be saved and greater efficiency ensured if, instead of running six practical schools in connection with each primary school, one practical school were established in a central place to serve all the primary schools. There is of course the difficulty of distance. But this could be met by establishing boarding houses attached to the school. We realize that our proposal cannot be universally adopted straightaway. We therefore recommend that for a start practical schools should be conducted as central schools wherever possible. The proposal should be gradually applied all over the Island. In the long run this will result in considerable saving in expenditure and greater efficiency.

87. Another important question that engaged our serious consideration is the feasibility or otherwise of permitting the three types of post-primary schools to be conducted in the same premises and as one organization. A school combining the three types is commonly referred to as a ''multilateral school''. A few witnesses who gave evidence before us favored the multilateral idea whereas the majority preferred differentiation on a functional basis. The advantages and disadvantages of a multilateral organization are discussed in detailed in the Spens Report.[11] Apart from other reasons we are obliged in general to oppose the proposal for multilateral schools on the ground of expenditure. But having regard to the necessity to super-impose the new school system on the existing one with a minimum of dislocation and the advantages of multilateral schools in remote areas we have no objection to a few post-primary schools being organized on a multilateral basis if the authorities in charge of the organization can be expected to develop all the three sides equally. This will of course mean liberal provision in regard to staff and equipment. The Department will therefore have to exercise some caution in allowing Assisted schools to be conducted on a multilateral basis. *We would recommend that the 'Government should conduct under the management of the Department a few well equipped multilateral schools in areas where conditions are favorable.* The results of the enterprise should be examined before this type of schools is started on a large scale.

88. It will not be out of place in this chapter to consider the age limits that should apply to the various schools. The normal age of admission will be, as already stated, 5+ for the primary school and 11+ for the post-primary schools. Our attention was drawn to the problem of overage pupils. It is not uncommon to find children between the ages of 15 and 18 in some of the primary schools today and adults of 21 or 22 in the senior secondary schools. We understand that a certain Percentage of overage pupils are considered eligible for grant too. Several causes are attributed to this problem economic conditions and social customs which influence the age of admission, mental retardation due to physical illness, &c. Whatever may be the cause it is obvious that the retention of overage pupils in schools or in particular classes does neither the pupils concerned nor the schools any good. We therefore decided to fix age limits beyond which pupils should not be retained in schools. In doing so we have to allow for the difficult of remedying the present state of affairs all at once. We have also to give special consideration to the Muslim community among whom a long-standing religious custom of sending the children to a Quran school until the age of 7 prevails. We are told that with the introduction of religious instruction in Government schools and the teaching of the Arabic language Muslim parents will find the Quran school no longer

[11] Secondary Education H.M.S.O., 1938, page 291.

necessary so that, in the course of a few years, they will accept the normal age of 5+ for entry of their children to the primary schools. Until then some concession is reasonable. Accordingly, we recommend that the following maximum age limits be enforced: -

(a) No pupil who is 14+ at the beginning of the school year, in the case of Muslims 15+ shall be admitted to a retained in a primary school.
(b) No pupil shall be retained in the Vth standard for more than two years.
(c) No pupil who is 17+ at the beginning of the year shall be retained in the practical school, except in the classes giving the higher practical course for which the limit will be 18+.
(d) No pupil who is 18+, in the case of Muslims 19+, at the beginning of the year shall be retained in the senior school.
(e) No pupil who is 20+, in the case of Muslims 21+, at the beginning of the year, shall be retained in the secondary school.

In devising the above age limits, we have made sufficient, allowance for cases of mental retardation due to physical and environmental causes. We therefore consider that there should be no option for schools or parents to retain overage pupils in Government or Assisted schools.

89. In making the above proposals for classification and organization of schools and for assignment of pupils to the different types we wish to emphasize that no implication is intended that one type is superior to another. Academic education has no doubt acquired a prestige and is regarded as superior to other types by most parents. We would state unequivocally that we intend that all the three types shall be accorded parity of status in our scheme. This can be achieved only by applying the same standards to all the schools in regard to organization, equipment and staff. One type shall not be favored at the expense of the either. Parents should be made to realize that secondary education will not guarantee in all cases a safe and secure position for their children in the public service or the learned professions. We recommended that the conditions in regard to staff, equipment, laboratory and playground should be clearly laid clown in the Code and the power to classify schools in accordance with these conditions should be vested in the Department. The same conditions should be applied to unaided schools as well. They should not be certified as providing adequate and suitable instruction unless these conditions are complied with. Unless the same standards are applied, the unaided schools are bound to disturb the balance of the school system we recommend.

CHAPTER VIII

MEDIUM OF INSTRUCTION

90. According to our earlier recommendations' schools will cease to be divided on the basis of the medium of instruction. In the new system expressions like "English school", "Sinhalese school" will no longer have the connotation that was wont to be attached to them. But the question of the medium of instruction still remains. The English language has for many years been the principal medium of instruction for all forms of higher education. It was allotted this position not of choice but of necessity as it was not only the language of administration but also that of the outside commerce of the Island. It is the mother tongue of a minority community, *i.e.,* the Burgher community. It has also been adopted as the home language in a number of Sinhalese and Tamil homes where the indigenous language is used only in conversation with servants. With the advent of British rule, the adoption of English as one of the media of instruction even by the Sinhalese and Tamils became necessary in the circumstances of the period. Nevertheless, it was a wrong choice from the national point of view. The use in a few cases of a home language different from the mother tongue was the result of the perpetuation of this mistake through the years. Things have considerably changed now. Sinhalese and Tamils of the more well-to-do classes who once neglected their own languages are now beginning to take some pride in them and in the culture found embedded in them. Apart from our historical association with the United Kingdom and the fact that

as far as higher education is concerned Sinhalese and Tamil have yet to be perfected as competent instruments for acquiring modern knowledge, we cannot see any reason why English should be retained as a medium of instruction at any stage in the educational process except for those who have adopted it as their mother tongue. Language is of course only a vehicle of thought and a medium for acquiring knowledge and standards of learning should be independent of the language used in the learning process. Though it may be urged that for the purpose of mental training and acquisition of knowledge it should not matter what the medium of instruction is, we consider that the mother tongue is the natural medium of education and the genius of a nation finds full expression only through its own language and literature. We are therefore of opinion that the ideal should be the mother-tongue medium at all stages of education. There may be difficulties at present in realizing this ideal, but that does not prevent us from setting the goal which the educational system should attain some time or other. In fact, it is the duty of all educators to remove the difficulties. It is true that Sinhalese and, to a less extent Tamil, have not kept pace with the times and are not in their present state able to serve as media for the expression of modem thought, particularly scientific thought. This is not due to any inherent defect in the languages themselves. It is not that they are incapable of expansion. By concerted efforts it should be possible, within a reasonable time, to demedy this state of affairs. Until then we shall be obliged to retain English as the medium of instruction at certain stages. There is no reason, however, to resort to the English medium in the lowest stage, i.e., the primary stage. It was pressed on us that those children whose home language is English should be permitted to be taught through the medium of English even in the primary stage. People desire things that confer such material benefits as secure employment, wealth and social position to the neglect of less tangible advantages. Apathy for the indigenous languages in the past was also due to an excess of enthusiasm for "English, more English and better English''. English also came to possess a superior value in that it was the language of Government. After all is said and done, except in the case of the Burgher community, it is only in a very few Ceylonese homes that English is still the language of ordinary conversation. For the sake of this few, we are not prepared to violate a principle to which we attach the greatest importance, namely, the use of the mother tongue, as far as possible, during all stages of education. Educationally also, the child should begin his education in the language he actually uses at home. This will in 99 per cent of the cases, be the mother tongue. We therefore recommend that the medium of instruction in the primary school shall be the mother tongue. By "mother tongue" we refer primarily to Sinhalese and Tamil, the languages of the two major communities in the Island. It is not, however, our intention that small communities like the Malays should be compelled to adopt Sinhalese or Tamil as their medium of instruction. The home language of the Ceylon Moors is generally Tamil, but Moors who are resident in Sinhalese areas may prefer to be taught through the medium of Sinhalese and in such cases, we have no objection to their being taught through Sinhalese in the primary school. There is also the question of the mother tongue of children of mixed marriages. To cover all doubtful or difficult cases we have evolved the following definition of "mother-tongue”:

(a) Where both parents are Sinhalese or Tamil then Sinhalese or Tamil, as the case may be;
(b) Where the parents belong to different communities, the home language, i.e., the language commonly spoken by the parents and the children;
(c) In the case of all others English, Sinhalese, Tamil or Malay whichever the parents desire to adopt.

We also envisage a difficulty which will confront an isolated family of one community living in an area inhabited by people of another community. Let us take, for instance, a Tamil family living in a purely Sinhalese area like Ratnapura. In such an area, as Tamil's are few, it will not be necessary to have a school with Tamil as the medium of instruction. In such cases, we are of opinion that the option of adopting one of the three languages, English, Sinhalese or Tamil as the medium of instruction, should be permitted. There will then be schools with a heterogenous primary school population. If numbers warrant the organization of parallel classes it should of course be done. If, however, numbers do not us justify parallel classes there is no alternative but to allow a departure from the principle of the mother-tongue medium.

91. The only language common to all the communities in the Island is, however, English. At present it cannot be said to be very common because few outside the "English educated" classes know enough of it to make use of it. Among the English educated classes, however, it is the usual means of expression and in a small proportion of homes, as stated earlier, it is the language generally spoken. In this minority of cases the educational principle is so clear, that they should be taught to use English correctly. In other cases, it is not educationally important unless-and it is a very large exception-the child is likely to proceed to higher education. For some years to come higher

education must continue to be given through the medium of English. Even if the difficulty of text books for higher learning in Sinhalese and Tamil is overcome and English need no longer be retained as the medium of instruction an educated Ceylonese will never be able to dispense with English so long as English is a world language. Any effective advanced study would require a knowledge of English, French or German. The major contributions to advanced knowledge are often published in one or other of these three languages. Given the political and economic affiliations of Ceylon, the primary European language must be English which in fact is the lingua franca of at least half the world. For these reasons the study of the English language must be retained in the curriculum of Ceylon schools*. We therefore recommend that it should be universally taught so that, apart from other reasons, by becoming a common second language it may cease to be a badge of class distinction and become a means of common understanding.*

92. Although we would wish to see even post-primary education conducted through the sole medium of the mother tongue with the least possible delay there are various reasons why such a radical reform cannot be achieved straightaway. Firstly, there is the practical difficulty of text books and suitable teachers which can only be overcome gradually. Even translation of text-books will not do. A good many have got to be written. Teachers trained for, and used to, the existing order of things will not be able to adapt themselves overnight to teaching through a new medium. In fact, some of them will be found incapable of such adaptation. This difficulty is not so great at the primary stage where teaching is of a general character. Secondly, the language of administration will continue for some considerable time to be English. Therefore, a good knowledge of English will be expected of the majority of secondary and senior school pupils when they leave school. Further, a higher standard of competence in English can be obtained by those who learn through the medium of English. Thirdly, the retention of English as a medium of instruction in the post primary stage for some time will help the teachers to keep in touch with up-to-date knowledge and methods. Fourthly, as University and professional education will have to be given for a considerable time through the medium of English a thorough acquaintance with English at the stages immediately lower down will be indispensable. We would therefore introduce English as a medium of instruction at the beginning of the secondary and senior school course. We also recommend that it should, as far as it is practicable, be one of the media of instruction in the practical school too. But this innovation for the practical school would of course prove to be a stupendous task in the present conditions when there is a dearth of teachers suitable for the purpose.

93. As, however, the ultimate aim is to have all teaching-from the primary school to University conducted mainly in the mother tongue, the use of Sinhalese and Tamil must be continued as media of instruction in the post-primary stage. In fact, they have been the media of instruction in the majority of the present-day secondary schools, but their deficiencies as media of instruction for post-primary teaching have to some extent contributed to the lower standard, and content of education in these schools. These deficiencies are bound to be remedied in course of time. We resolve the conflicting claims of English, Sinhalese and Tamil by proposing the bilingual medium in the post primary stage. By bilingual medium we refer to the language combinations English and Sinhalese or English and Tamil. We do not, however, intend that the bilingual medium should be universally adopted in all the three types of schools and in all schools of one type. As observed earlier there are insuperable difficulties in adopting the bilingual medium in all the practical schools. We suggest a range of options. *We recommend that for the practical school and the lower departments of the secondary and senior school the medium shall be either the mother tongue of the pupils or bilingual*. We think it desirable that English should be permitted to be used as sole medium for all pupils in the higher departments of the secondary and senior school. *The medium in these higher departments will accordingly be English, Sinhalese, Tamil or bilingual.*

94. Passing reference has been made in an earlier chapter to the question of a bilingual medium. Two languages will be simultaneously noisily utilized as media of instruction. We do not however mean that the same subjects should be taught through either language. We intend that certain subjects should be taught through one language and others through the other language. This might sound somewhat novel in educational practice but we are assured by experts that standards of educational achievement will not be affected. During the early stages of the operation of the bilingual medium it will be found expedient and desirable, except perhaps in the practical school, to apportion those subjects to the two respective media which can more advantageously be handled through the particular language. For example, subjects; Science and Civics are better taught through English, and teaching mathematics through Sinhalese or Tamil will not present any difficulty. The choice of medium and subjects must of course be left to the teachers. At the beginning there should be no objection to the dominance of the English medium except in the practical school where it is unnecessary to teach many subjects through English.

The satisfactory evolution of Sinhalese and Tamil as media must be left to time and be progressively achieved in the light of experience. To secure compliance with our definition of bilingual medium it is necessary that at least two non-language subjects should be taught through the medium of Sinhalese or Tamil.

95. The question of a second language is a matter of the curriculum. But as it is influenced by the question of the medium of instruction, we state here our proposals for the introduction of a second language in all types of schools. According to our plan the medium of instruction in the vast majority of primary schools will be Sinhalese or Tamil. To facilitate the introduction of the bilingual medium at the post-primary stage it is essential that the Sinhalese and Tamil pupils of primary schools should have an acquaintance with English and the Burgher pupils an acquaintance with Sinhalese or Tamil. We therefore recommend that English should be introduced as a language subject in all primary schools where it is not the medium. Similarly, in primary schools where the medium is English, Sinhalese or Tamil shall be a language subject. This second language should be introduced in the IVth year or the third standard. We see no objection to it being taught in a conversational way in the third year. We may also mention in passing that Muslim children in primary schools will have to be introduced to a third language, namely, Arabic; about the time the teaching of the second language is begun. The teaching of Arabic in primary schools where Muslim children preponderate was decided the Executive Committee of Education in response to the demands of the Muslim community which attaches great importance to such teaching. Although some consider that the growing mind should not be subjected to the strain of having to learn three languages, we see no reason why a provision so zealously advocated by responsible Muslims should not stand, particularly as we understand that only the elements of Arabic are required to be taught in the primary school. Then at the post-primary stage (lower department) where the medium of instruction is not English or bilingual, English shall be a compulsory second language. If the medium is English, Sinhalese or Tamil shall be a compulsory second language. This applies to the practical schools as well. The majority of the secondary and senior schools are, in the present circumstances, bound to adopt the English medium in their higher departments, and in their case, we recommend that Sinhalese or Tamil shall be a compulsory second language. In higher departments where the medium is Sinhalese or Tamil, English shall be a compulsory second language. Various views were expressed in the course of the evidence on the subject of the medium of instruction. Some witnesses would have the Sinhalese or Tamil medium right through the primary and post-primary stages, others until the eighth standard only. On the other hand, a few witnesses would rather let the present state of affairs continue unchanged. We had to strike a via media. We had to take into consideration the desire of most people to raise the Sinhalese and Tamil languages to a position in which they will be effective instruments of thought. At the same time, we had to take into account the practical difficulties. Our proposals are designed to overcome these difficulties gradually. English will have to remain as a medium of instruction so long as these difficulties exist. Even when the mother tongue becomes the universal medium for all types of education English will still have to be retained in the educational system, for we have no doubt that it will generally enrich education.

CHAPTER IX.

GENERAL EDUCATION.

Section 1. - Primary and Practical Schools.

96. Under our scheme the primary and practical schools will be the most important in the Island. All children who are not sent to unassisted private schools will begin their education in primary schools where the medium of instruction will be their mother tongue. There, they will spend six or seven years, and afterwards, some eighty per cent of them will proceed to practical schools. We emphasize the necessity for making elementary education genuinely compulsory. The State cannot justify a grandiose educational scheme leading to the University of Ceylon unless it provides sufficient primary and practical schools to provide education for every child in Ceylon. Nor should it accept any excuse except mental or physical disability. The argument that parents cannot afford to keep their children at school until the age of fourteen has been the argument used in all countries where compulsory education has been established. The answer is that the community cannot afford to let them stay away. The full-time employment of children under the age of fourteen should be forbidden, as it is in most countries. The

suggestion that they must be used in the paddy fields is incorrect in so far as it implies that this work will prevent them from attending school. There is nothing to prevent Ceylon from following the example of other agricultural countries, where part-time work in the fields is the normal lot of many children who nevertheless receive a full education.

97. The substance of the curriculum in the primary schools is determined essentially by the need for giving the child the necessary equipment for further education. In the infant class and standards 1, 2 and 3 will be given, as it is now, the basic instruction in speech, reading, writing, number, health habits and games, drawing, singing, needle craft for girls, and handwork for boys. The changes contemplated are two only. First there should be a greater variety of methods adopted so that there may be a constant process of experimentation in operation. Secondly, the second language (normally English) will be introduced in the third standard. It is clear that, if the teaching of the second language is to be successful, the direct method must be used. Indeed, in areas where a smattering of the second language has already been acquired through contacts in the home and in the street, conversation in that language may be begun even earlier.

98. The basic requirements having been met by the end of the third standard, the normal educational subjects can be introduced in the fourth and fifth standards. These subjects will be the mother tongue, the second language, number, history and geography, health and physical training, needlecraft and handwork, nature, drawing, and singing. The methods to be adopted in the treatment of these subjects are explained later in this Report. The necessity of relating them to the environment and preventing them from becoming bookish subjects must be emphasized. Use of the project method f or certain periods of the week is to be commended. In the project method, a particular topic of daily life is selected and is considered as a whole, without reference to the particular “subjects" of the curriculum. The method has the advantage that it prevents the development of the idea that knowledge is divided into water-tight compartments having no connection with each other. It shows the pupil, that though he studies different subjects in different lessons, this is for convenience only, and that, when he faces practical problems, he needs to use the whole of his knowledge in order to solve them. Pushed to extremes, it produces chaos by preventing the logical unfolding of a branch of learning. As an addendum to the normal methods it is a useful corrective and gives some indication of the unity of knowledge. Such "projects" should, of course, be selected from the pupil's own environment.

99. At the end of the primary school course, the pupils will undergo the first differentiating test and will be divided among the secondary, senior and practical schools. This section is concerned only with the practical schools. There the pupils will undergo a three-year course with an optional two-year higher practical course---aimed at giving them an education which will not unfit them for the occupations that they may be expected to follow when they leave schools-agriculture, industry, commerce, and the many ancillary trades and occupations. The curriculum must be varied according to the environment of the school. A rural school will emphasize country life, an urban school the life of the town. Nevertheless, the practical school is not intended to provide a vocational training. So far as vocational training may be desirable, it will be provided by the Departments of Agriculture and of Labor, Commerce and Industries, though we hope that these Departments will secure the collaboration of the Department of Education in order that their vocational training schemes may be adapted to the previous education of those who make use of them.

100. It has already been emphasized that while stress should be laid on the practical application of the subjects studied at school. The primary purpose of the education in the practical school, as in the other types of schools, is the mental development of the child. Accordingly, there should be no depreciation of the so-called academic subjects. Language and literature, including the second language and its literature, should be directed to enabling the pupil to obtain a competent grasp of both languages. The need for competent instruction in the second language should be particularly stressed. Our purpose in insisting upon early instruction in the second language is not only to enable those who show special ability, whatever be the status of their parents, to proceed through secondary schools to the University or through the senior schools to technical education, but also to enable those who have passed through the practical schools to use the language in their daily lives. Were this not so, there would be no justification for teaching the second language in the practical schools, and very little justification for compelling 80 per cent of the pupils in the primary schools to spend part of three years in learning the elements of the second language. Accordingly, the aim of instruction in the second language must be to enable the student to read, speak and write it by the time he reaches the age of fourteen years. In other words, Ceylon is proposing an experiment which is normally not tried elsewhere. In most countries, the second language

is taught only in secondary schools, and the aim is to give the student a competent grasp of it by the age of sixteen. It follows that more time must be devoted to the second language than is commonly devoted elsewhere.

101. The other subjects more or less choose themselves-physical training, Elementary Mathematics, History and Geography, Science, Art and Music, health education, handwork, agriculture and fishing have been assumed to be included as "science", but such a classification need not be insisted upon. They are so included because of the practical emphasis which should be given to all the subjects in the curriculum, and a very wide course in science will be regarded by many as a suitable means of giving that emphasis. The course should include a good deal of practical work, and at least one hour a day should be spent in the school workshop or the school garden or paddy field or in the village itself. The work need not consist only of manual labor. A social survey or health survey of a Village is, for instance, an excellent means of enabling the student to see the relevance and importance of his study. Nevertheless, a large part of the practical work should consist in gardening, the maintenance of the school buildings (including minor repairs), the construction of store rooms, libraries, health museums, roads, playgrounds, swimming pools, wells, latrines, &c. The aim should be, of course, not only to provide these amenities but also as to instruct the pupils in their nature and purpose. The erection of a building which collapses may be educationally as important as the construction of a building which stands the test of time and weather. If the lesson is learned, the pupils may have acquired some knowledge of mathematics as well as of other subjects.

102. The emphasis of all subjects should be upon the immediate environment without giving the instruction a purely parochial character. The town or village should be used to demonstrate principles of universal validity, but the extent of their validity must be made plain and the variety of the world's problems pointed out. The elements of geography may be taught in relation to the town or village in which the school is established but the pupil should know a great deal of general geography. Similarly, history should not be limited to the history of Ceylon, but should spread far beyond into the history of the World as a whole.

103. The need for adequate libraries has been stressed elsewhere. It needs repetition in this section because there may be a temptation to consider that the practical schools need them less. Such an assumption would be a complete fallacy. The purpose of creating a literate population is obviously to enable the people to read and write. The aim has not been achieved if they know how to read and write but do not in fact do it. They must be encouraged to read for themselves and write to others. Since in most of the poorer homes there is no literature available, not even a weekly newspaper, it is essential that the school should provide the need. At a later stage no doubt will arise the need for travelling public libraries, which are so familiar a spectacle on the roads of western nations.

Section 2. - Senior Schools.

104. A principal defect of our educational system has been that there has been only one channel of development for the ablest of students, the academic type of schools. Those with different abilities have had little opportunity for development. The result has been a waste of effort on the one hand and of latent talent on the other. More serious still, the community has been deprived of men and women, who, if properly trained, would have rendered useful service, but who have been turned out as misfits and have probably joined the ranks of the discontented and the resentful. Accordingly, the aim of the senior school should be to attract students of the right type-students who will not feel that they are inferior to those who have been permitted to enter the secondary schools. In order that this may be done, the senior school must provide an education as good of its own kind as the secondary school provides of its kind and its pupils must feel that entrance to them will not preclude them from rising to the highest ranks of the various professions for which they are prepared.

105. We have already stressed the importance of making clear that the differentiation between the secondary school and the senior school should be based on kind of ability rather than on degree of ability. The same emphasis is necessary in considering the content of the syllabus, and above all the equipment and the other necessities of the school. Our aim will be defeated if the public generally consider the senior schools to be less important than the secondary schools. The realization of our aim requires its appreciation by the parent and the citizen. It must be clear that the preference for academic education without respect to the aptitude of the child is not only bad for the community but bad also for the child. The present preference is not, however, due to the parents only. If they have shown an obstinate preference for the academic type of school there has been very

good reason for it. There alone lay the avenue to the most lucrative and most respected forms of employment. The differentiation of students cannot be made completely effective by compulsion. The cooperation of the parents must be obtained, and it can be obtained only if it is made clear from the outset that the pupil of the senior school will be given an education which will, if he has sufficient ability, fit him for the highest posts available.

106. The senior school should evolve into a type of "secondary school providing a liberal education based on a more realistic and scientific curriculum than that of a secondary school" (Spens Report, p. 269). Since it will aim at a liberal education it must avoid the danger of early specialization and vocationalism. As in the secondary schools, specialization should begin after the age of fourteen. During the first three years, the student of the senior school will cover a curriculum only slightly different from that of the secondary school. The difference will appear not in the “subjects'' studied but in the angle of approach to them. The effect will be the same, ''the unfolding of all the powers in the pupil, the making of them suitable to the utmost degree in the special phase of production or the special phase of living in which he may chance to engage''.

107. The years from entrance to the age of fourteen will have no great degree of specialization. Students from the practical schools may be transferred to senior schools on the result of the eighth standard test or even earlier, and the curricula of the two types of schools must therefore be in substance the same. The pupil of the senior school will, however, require a higher standard of knowledge of English. Even if at this stage he is not receiving his instruction through that medium, it is probable that for some time to come most of the instruction from fourteen to sixteen will be given English. Accordingly, it is desirable that more time should be devoted to the use of English from the beginning of his career in the senior school. In other respects, the difference between the practical school and the senior school will appear in the stress laid in the former on practical work. The subjects will be the same, but they will be treated rather differently. It is probable, too, that most senior schools will he in urban areas. So that the practical work will emphasize urban rather than rural pursuits. In any case, the assumption is that the student will require technical or commercial training, rather than agricultural.

108. In the higher department of the senior school there should be rather more specialization and therefore alternative courses ought to be provided. The body of the curriculum will not differ, because we must again emphasize that the primary aim of general mental development requires all kinds of schools to have a large common element in their instruction. There will be, however, a number of periods every week during which the student may take subjects according to his choice and the facilities provided by the school among such subjects as applied mechanics and engineering practice, carpentry, metal work, needlework, domestic science, applied electrical work, arts and science, specialized book-keeping, and shorthand and typewriting. We do not suggest that all schools should provide all these alternatives. If they attempt to do so the instruction and the equipment will in most cases be inadequate. Each school should select two or three of them and do their best to make themselves efficient in those subjects. The Department of Education will no doubt take steps to make certain that the alternative subjects are reasonably spread throughout the Island according to local conditions.

Section 3. -Secondary Schools.

109. According to our scheme, some five per cent, of all pupils from the primary schools will it is estimated, go to the secondary schools. At the eighth standard and perhaps also at the age of sixteen, there may be some interchange with the senior and even with the practical schools. It should be generally understood, however, that pupils who enter secondary schools are intended to continue their education at least to the age of seventeen. In the case of those preparing for the University or professional colleges, this age may be extended to nineteen. After that age, a secondary school is no place for a young man or young woman, and the present practice, followed by a few schools, of allowing students to remain at school in the hope that they may pass the Matriculation should be firmly discouraged, if not forbidden. On the other hand, those who expect to proceed to education in agricultural or technical schools should not normally be allocated to secondary schools.

110. The purpose of the secondary school will be to give a brood general education. There should be no vocational bias at all until the late stages of school life, and then it should form an ordinary part of the school curriculum. The vocational training should be essentially educational rather than vocational, and the staff and equipment provided should be on no less generous a scale than for other subjects. It is even more important with secondary school than with practical and senior schools that the greatest possible freedom should be given to them to work out their curricula according to their special needs. Uniformity is actually a danger. The maintenance of the denominational system will necessarily provide some elements of differentiation; but the temptation for

one school in a district to follow the example of another in that district should be resisted. The character of a school and the value of the education that gives will depend in large measure on its individuality. Nor should the fact that some secondary schools will be provided by the Department of Education make for uniformity even among them.

111. The creation of the University of Ceylon will enable the secondary schools to adopt a new orientation. After June, 1943, the London Matriculation and Cambridge Senior examinations have been replaced by the Senior School Certificate. What is at present called ''post Matriculation'' work should be governed, in so far as it is governed by examinations, by the University Entrance or by a Ceylon Higher Certificate examination. The secondary schools should not permit their curricula to be dominated by examinations at all, but in so far as examinations determine the courses of studies, they should be Ceylon examinations based upon local needs and conditions. Leaving aside the London Intermediates, the new arrangements permit secondary school Curricula to be based upon a unifying principle which might be formulated as "Ceylon's heritage-both eastern and western-and her place in the modern world ''. We are recommending elsewhere that after a certain period schools should not be permitted to prepare for the London Intermediates."

112. The curricula of the schools should not however, be determined by examinations. The present practice of directing the whole of a student's education towards Matriculation and then limiting his work to the four subjects of the London Intermediates is destructive of all educational principles. The Senior School Certificate should be so designed as to enable part of his work to be tested, but the examination should depend on the curriculum and not the curriculum on the examination. Nor should the curriculum be limited to the number of subjects prescribed for the examination.

113. The general principle on which the curriculum should be based has been laid down by the Spens Report. ''The curriculum should be thought of in terms of activity and experience rather than of knowledge to be acquired and facts to be stored" (p. 363). This principle requires not only the subordination of the examination to the curriculum, but also the placing of greater emphasis than hitherto on what the Spens Report calls "the creative elements of the community's life" especially the graphic Arts, Music, and Handicrafts. For the same reason, and also for the reasons given in Chapter XVI., Physical Education, combined with instruction in Hygiene, should form an integral part of the curriculum and should receive more attention than hitherto.

114. It would not be possible for us to lay down rules for the teaching of religion. We have decided that there should be religious instruction in the State schools as well as in the denominational schools, and each religion necessarily has its own method of instruction. We suggest, however, that in a country whose people have different religions, it is very desirable that a spirit of tolerance should be inculcated. Opportunity might be taken, especially in the higher forms, to include the history of religion and the comparative study of religious books among the subjects of study.

115. Many of the secondary school subjects require for their efficient teaching elaborate and expensive equipment. It is important that such subjects should not be included in the curriculum unless the equipment can be provided. The tendency of schools to provide teaching in subjects merely because other schools provide it should be restrained. Among the more advanced subjects there should in fact be some degree of specialization among schools and they should not be regarded as competing with each other. The recommendation we make later in this report that classes covering the subjects of the University Entrance examination or the Higher School Certificate examination must be approved by the Department of Education will assist in establishing this principle.

116. Another general problem relates to home work. The emphasis upon examinations, and the economic advantages to be obtained from passing examinations, have tended to place a heavy burden on the students of our schools. The burden of home-work may be so heavy as to impair their physique and destroy their powers of initiative. Also, it cuts out a large part of the student's education, that part which comes from general reading, hobbies, play and conversation. It would be better to have no home-work than to have too much of it. The amount should vary according to the age of the student. No hard and fast rule is possible, but we suggest that the maximum should be three-quarters of an hour for the student of eleven years, and two hours for the student of seventeen or eighteen, intervening ages being graded accordingly. These periods should be the time taken by the average student, or by the student somewhat below the average. As the Spens Report recommends, the amount to be done over the week-end should be the amount required for a single night. We strongly deprecate the practice too frequently adopted by many parents of supplementing the school home-work by private coaching. In the end it destroys its object, by making the student incapable of originality and initiative, and these qualities always impress examiners strongly.

117. Our essential principle that each school must be permitted to develop its own scheme of studies in relation to its special need makes it unnecessary for us to discuss curricula in detail. The course should be undifferentiated for the first two or three years in the secondary school. It should inch1de (i.) English, (ii.) Sinhalese, Tamil, Malay or Arabic, (iii.) History, (iv.) Geography, (v.) Mathematics, (vi.) General Science, (vii.) Arts (viii.) Music, and (ix.) Physical Education. These subjects, it will be seen, will be common to secondary schools, senior schools and practical schools. We also recommend that the study of a third language, preferably another national language of Ceylon, might be introduced in all the three types of schools. There is no reason why this third language should not be started at the beginning of the post-primary course. Then, there is the question of a classical language in secondary schools-Latin, Greek, Pali and Sanskrit. There should be no compulsion in regard to the introduction of one of these languages. It need be taught only to those pupils who show an aptitude for it. We think that classical languages should not be included in the curriculum of senior and practical schools and those who are transferred from these schools to the secondary schools should be intelligent enough to make up any leeway of necessary. If it is found after two or three years that a pupil shows no interest in or aptitude for a classical language, he should be encouraged to drop it.

118. After the undifferentiated stage described in the previous paragraph, there should be a gradual divergence into alternative courses of study. Mistakes may be made at this stage, however, and it should be made as easy as possible for students to change from one course to another at the end of a school year. In order that this may be so, subjects common to parallel forms should have identical syllabuses. Also, every course in the second stage, up to the age of seventeen or the S.S.C. stage should include the following as compulsory subjects: - English, at least one language other than English (e.g., Sinhalese, Tamil, Latin, Greek, Pa.li, Sanskrit), History or Geography or both, Mathematics, and Physical Education. One "creative subject", Art, Music or Handicrafts, should also be included as an optional subject.

119. The traditional bifurcation into two "sides" Arts and Science, has much to commend it. A tendency to subdivide the Science course into two branches in order to provide for those preparing for Medicine and Engineering respectively should not be encouraged at this stage, since it tends to make for too early specialization and to obscure the unity of the sciences. The course of the S.S.C. should be determined primarily by educational considerations and not by the career which the student may follow subsequently.

120. The final stage in school work will begin with the Sixth Form. Here a greater degree of specialization will be permissible. Some pupils will be preparing 4-J. N. A 93095 (11/49) for the University Entrance examination, some for the First Examination for the degree of M.B., some for the Higher School Certificate examination. The appropriate examination should not dominate the curriculum, though it will determine the specialist groups into which the students will fall. We should like to emphasize, in relation to all stages of secondary school education, that time should be found for general discussion, supervised reading, and so on. In other word, as the Spens Report recommends, the formal instruction in classes should be split up through the use of other methods. These periods could be used above all for discussion and reading on current problems, general literature, appreciation of art and music, and similar topics. They are especially useful for the more mature boys and girls in the Sixth Forms. It is also an advantage that they would not be followed by examinations: indeed, we must stress once more the essential educational principle that the curriculum ought at no stage to be determined solely by the next examination.

CHAPTER X.

TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION.

121. The type of education that prepares boys and girls for occupation in the various branches of industry, commerce or agriculture is generally referred to as technical and vocational education. Professional education is used in the restricted sense of education designed to fit a person for employment in the learned professions. Though it is embraced in the term of vocational education we exclude professional education from the scope of

this chapter. It is already organized on a proper footing. The aim of technical and vocational education is to impart specialized training designed to fit a person for a specific occupation or group of occupations either immediately on completion of the training or after a period of apprenticeship. Various types of technical education and technical schools have been evolved in the Western countries to meet the needs and requirements of modern industry. Before the organization of technical education industry and commerce had to depend solely on the apprenticeship scheme for training skilled workers. As for agriculture no scheme of training was considered necessary. With the advancement of science and its application to industry and with the evolution of specialized and complex processes in industry the apprenticeship system by itself was found inadequate and ineffective to meet the new demands made on it. Apprenticeship is still necessary to perfect the training of certain classes of skilled workers. But it is now a settled point that the method of training skilled workers solely through apprenticeship is faulty and the only sound basis of training consists in giving a thorough grounding in the principles underlying particular skills in conjunction with, or followed by, a course of practical training. Technical and vocational education has accordingly come to occupy an important place in any educational system.

122. Vocational education understood in the widest sense of education leading to a vacation would comprise not only professional education but also University and technological education. Although the economy of Ceylon is predominantly agricultural, we are aware that Government has accepted a policy of industrial development wherever establishment of large-scale industries is economically possible. It is obvious that only those industries which could be fed and maintained with raw materials easily procurable will be fostered. The Industries Commission of 1921 envisaged the possibility of industrial development on certain lines provided the Island's resources of water power were exploited. Among the industries, whose suitability for establishment in Ceylon they discussed, are cement, spinning and weaving, fisheries, glass, soap and paper. The Industries Department has established factories for the manufacture of quinine, leather goods, plywood, paper and ceramics. The establishment of a factory for the manufacture of acetic acid is still under consideration. A glass factory is now under construction. A steel rolling factory was recently started to promote the war effort. Among industries which are developed on a cottage scale are paper, pottery, textiles, coir, carpentry, spinning and weaving, hosiery and button-making. Future development of industries will certainly create a demand for trained executive personnel. We are aware that technological experts for such enterprises as quinine, leather and ceramic industries had to be obtained from outside. In spite of the need for similar experts in other branches of industry we do not consider that the time has come to establish an Institute of Technology. Such an institution will be expensive and in the present stage of industrialization we see no justification for it. We suggest that when the need is greater, which will be some years hence, the question of adding a Faculty of Technology to the University of Ceylon be considered. Until then the few experts who are necessary to organize new industries will have to be recruited from abroad or local men sent abroad for training. A Faculty of Engineering giving courses in civil, mechanical and electrical engineering will of course have to be established much sooner.

123. The technical and vocational education whose organization we discuss here will be of three kinds. The first type will be provided in the technical schools and polytechnics-the age of entry to which will be 16. The objective will be to produce the skilled personnel necessary for the various branches of industry and commerce. The only polytechnic we have at present is the Technical College. The need for a greater supply of foremen, mechanics, builders, electricians, stenographers, and accountants will be greater in the future. The engineering industry is many sided, the main groups being civil, electrical, mechanical, marine, aero nautical, automobile, irrigation and railway. Each group has various branches leading to many different occupations, manual, mechanical, scientific, artistic, Technical and administrative. The technical schools we propose will not provide higher courses in engineering, commerce or accountancy which have to be organized in the University or an institution of University status. Courses will however be provided for the training of skilled workers of all types lower than this level.

124. The next type is agricultural education. The agricultural production of the Island, particularly which of foodstuffs, has not kept pace with the increase in population-and this in spite of the fact that a more liberal land policy has been followed during the last ten years. One of the chief reasons for this slow progress is to be found in the primitive methods still employed in peasant agriculture. We do not think that such measures as reform of land tenure laws and establishment of credit facilities will alone help to increase of agricultural production. The most important measure of reform is to train the future peasant farmer and colonist into an efficient agriculturist and to

introduce him to scientific methods of agriculture. We therefore lay great emphasis on developing agricultural education both in the practical schools and special agricultural schools.

125. The trade school we contemplate will mainly provide courses to cover the training of workers for the cottage industries and such occupations as carpentry, weaving and spinning, lacemaking, printing and book binding. The training will be concentrated on manual craftsmanship of high artistic standard and will be directed to prepare the students for a specific occupation. It should be noticed that the agricultural and trade schools are purely vocational while the technical school is only quasi-vocational, the difference being that the former offer more narrowly specialized courses, whereas the training in the latter is based on a group of allied occupations one of which the trainee could join in accordance with his inclination. This difference will be reflected in the curriculum of these schools, the technical schools paying more attention to the principles of science and to enlarging the general education of their pupils.

126. There are two difficulties which must be fully appreciated in organizing a proper system of vocational education. It is true that the present provision for vocational education is inadequate. We have about 125 industrial units operated by the Department of Industries and Commerce where training in spinning and weaving, carpentry and similar occupations is imparted. Then we have the Ceylon Technical College which is a polytechnic combining courses in various branches of industry, art and commerce and courses in such technical skills as surveying, leveling, and signaling and radio engineering. We certainly think that more schools of this type are needed, but we must stress the necessity for caution in making increased provision for vocational education. Vocational education should be closely coordinated to the needs of existing industries. It is of course true that new industries cannot be initiated or carried on unless there is a supply of men specially trained to direct and manage those industries and to fill positions in the sub-technical grades of employment in such industries. On the other hand, capable and ambitious men cannot be expected to spend their time and energy in acquiring special knowledge and skill unless there is a reasonable prospect of exercising it and earning a decent livelihood. It will be unfortunate if a considerable number of men received a prolonged technical training and, on completion, found that there were no opportunities of putting their training to any use. Besides the supply of personnel industrial development depends on many factors-social and economic. The question resolves itself into-which should come first: initiation of new industries or vocational education to meet their demands. We make two suggestions to resolve the difficulty. Firstly, there should be close liaison between the Department of Industries and the Department of Education on the one hand and between the heads of technical and vocational schools and the representatives of industry and commerce. Secondly, we suggest that extreme specialization be avoided in the technical schools except in the advanced stages. The training should aim at imparting a sound knowledge of fundamental principles applicable to different tasks and as high a degree as possible of skill in applying it. In short, vocational education should be as broad-based as possible. It may not be possible to apply this suggestion always to agricultural and trade school education. As agricultural occupation will always be available with the evolution of a wise land policy there is no fear of trained agriculturists being without work. We would therefore recommend that Government should make liberal provision for establishing agricultural schools. As the trade school is designed to produce workers in a particular trade great care has to be exercised in the choice of the trade or trades to be taught in school and the localities where such a school is to be established. It is obvious that at least at the commencement only such trades as are concerned with the services or with the production of commodities that have a fair demand should be selected.

127. The second and by far the greater obstacle to the organization of vocational education in this country is the existence of social divisions based on the trade followed by an individual. According to the caste system certain traders are associated with certain castes. All manual work has been graded and labels of inferiority attached to some. We do not pretend to offer any ready-made solution to this difficulty. It will be many years before the social structure based on caste undergoes substantial change. Until these prejudices die out completely there is no alternative but to take them into account in framing a scheme for the expansion of vocational education. Those who are reluctant to overcome these, traditional prejudices and to learn 'inferior' trades have the option of obtaining training in agriculture which happily is regarded as a high caste occupation.

128. The technical school course will normally extend to two years, i.e., from 16 to 18. We do not however think that this should be rigidly laid down. The length of the course will very often depend on the nature of the skill to be acquired. A year's course may suffice for subjects like telegraphy, surveying, motor engineering and salesmanship. Moreover, the technical school, which of course should be located in the principal towns, should

also offer part time evening courses to enable those already in employment to acquire a grounding in the principles underlying their work or acquire new skills, which we have no doubt, will broaden their outlook and enhance their usefulness. Full time courses must be organized in such subjects as engineering and building construction. Art will also be part of the curriculum of a technical school. We do not think that present conditions warrant the establishment under Government auspices of a separate School of Art. The agricultural and trade school course will be normally one of two years duration. The agricultural schools should be located in suitable places in Close proximity to State farms or agricultural experiment stations. There should be liberal provision of land for practical work. The first year of the course will be devoted to the teaching of the sciences which have a bearing on agriculture. In the second year subjects like animal husbandry, dairy farming and poultry breeding will be introduced. The trade schools should be located in areas where the particular trade or trades have flourished. For example, a trade school for weaving should be sited in a village where the majority of the people are weavers. A carpentry school for furniture making located in a place like Moratuwa is bound to flourish.

129. We have already stated that the State should establish and control the majority of the technical, agricultural and trade schools. Private enterprise in this direction, should, however, not be discouraged. Although we have recommended that the grant-in-aid system should not apply to private schools of these types there is no reason why they should not benefit from the advice and guidance of the Departments which will administer technical, agricultural and trade school education. We have given careful consideration to the question of the administrative control of the State vocational schools. The State Technical schools, being quasi vocational, will continue to be administered by the Department of Education. *We recommend that the State agricultural schools should be administered by the Agricultural Department and the trade schools by the Industries Department.* In drawing up the curriculum of the higher practical course care should be taken to avoid any overlap with the work of the agricultural or trade school. The age of admission to the agricultural and trade schools shall be 16 +, and the pupils for these schools must invariably be drawn from those who have had at least three years of post-primary education. We have stated that the higher practical course will be optional. This means that a pupil completing the normal three year course may, if his circumstances do not permit, proceed to employment. The administration of the agricultural and trade schools by the Agricultural and Industries Departments respectively will be of definite advantage as they will be in a better position to follow up the pupils when they leave school and place them in suitable employment that may become available in connection with industrial and colonization schemes. The co-ordination of the work of the schools to the needs of the country is also better affected by these Departments.

130. With regard to recruitment to the technical, agricultural and trade schools the diagram in Appendix 6 only indicates that in the generality or cases the technical school will draw its pupils from the senior school and the agricultural and trade schools from the practical School. For some years to come the majority of children will seek employment soon after the age of 14 and a lesser number about the age of 15. Accordingly, we do not expect that every practical school leaver and senior school leaver will enter the vocational schools. Provision for vocational education will therefore be on a limited scale at the beginning. We, however, repeat that agricultural schools should be provided on a liberal scale so that a sufficient number of students trained in modern methods of cultivation may go back to their lands and set an example in agricultural methods which might probably be copied by the village farmer who did not have the same opportunities. We see no reason why access to the agricultural schools should be limited to pupils from the practical schools. With the introduction of mechanical methods, farming can become a profitable career. Pupils of secondary and senior schools who have the necessary spirit of enterprise and a mechanical bent could, on the completion of the lower department course or, even later, be drafted on to an agricultural course. The notion that clerical work is in some way more honorable than work on an estate or farm is gradually breaking down and will break down even more with the establishment of a Faculty of Agriculture at the University.

CHAPTER XI.

EXAMINATIONS.

Section 1. - London Examinations.

131. An examination may be distinguished according as it is a "fitness test" or an "attainment test". A fitness test looks to be future; it seeks to determine whether the candidate is fit to proceed to a certain course of study.

An attainment test looks to the past; it seeks to determine whether the candidate has attained a set standard in the courses of study which he has pursued. A fitness test of the ordinary type is, of course, an attainment test also. To test whether the candidate is capable of doing something in the future, it is necessary to ascertain how successful he has been in what he was set to do in the past. Nevertheless, the aim of an attainment test is quite different from the aim of a fitness test, and the two tests ought not to be confused. Unfortunately, they have been confused in the past even in England, and still more so in Ceylon.

132. The London Matriculation examination, for instance, is in principle a fitness test. Its original purpose was to ascertain what proportion of those approaching the end of their school careers were fit to proceed to University study. The Senate of the University still chooses the subjects accordingly. It does not assert that every student leaving school at the age of 16 should have reached a certain competence in five subjects, but only that those who wish to proceed to University work must have attained that competence, and that it cannot admit any student to the University unless he has passed the test of fitness for higher academic study. In practice, however, employers adopted the same test of fitness when they wanted to make certain that their employees had reached the necessary standard of secondary education. It thus ceased to be an ''examination bar'' designed to select a small proportion of the ablest student's, and became instead the main aim of secondary education. Two unfortunate consequences followed. In the first place, the standard became too low for it to act as an efficient University entrance examination. The Colleges of the University select from among the matriculates those only whom they think to be qualified. They are not always successful, so that the proportion failures at the next "examination" the Intermediate examination, is much higher than it should be .In the second place, the Matriculation examination came to dominate the school curriculum, and the requirements of the University from its own students determined the course of study of the whole mass of students in secondary schools though most of them did not intend to proceed to a University.

133. This second consequence has received much attention in England. Many of the best schools prepare students for the examinations of the Oxford and Cambridge Joint Board. Since the entrance examinations for Oxford and Cambridge, Responsions and the Previous Examination, nave never been popular school examinations the examinations of the Joint Board could be framed primarily as attainment tests. Similarly, the Northern Universities and the University of Bristol have sought to separate the Matriculation from the General School Certificate. This has not proved to be a solution, because exemption from Matriculation is given to those who obtain " credits " in the subjects required by the Universities for University entrance. To obtain a General School Certificate is good, but to obtain exemption from Matriculation is better, with the result that University entrance requirements continue to dominate the school curriculum.

134. In Ceylon every examination except those held by the University has become an attainment test, and there is a whole series of them-Junior School Certificate, Senior School Certificate, London Matriculation or Cambridge Senior (with exemption from Matriculation), and even the London Intermediate examinations. The Junior School Certificate and the Senior School Certificate can fortunately be adapted to the needs of Ceylon schools. It is not too much to say, however, that the whole of secondary education in Ceylon has been dominated by Loudon Matriculation. This result is more obvious than even in England. The school in England has a fairly good notion of what is means by "education", and even in the Matriculation' forms far more is demanded from the students than the Matriculation subjects. In Ceylon, on the other hand, the great aim of the parents of the "English-educated" has been first to pass Matriculation and then to obtain a Degree. The schools have been far more subservient to the mistaken demands of parents, and only recently has an attempt been made to educate the parents in order to permit of the education of their children. It is obvious, too, that if an examination designed by an English University to test the fitness of its own intending students is unsuitable for English schools, and it must be still more unsuitable for Ceylon schools. The matriculation requirements of the University of London assume that those who seek to meet them are English students from English schools intending to proceed to an English degree.

This, we believe, provides the fundamental fallacy of secondary education in Ceylon.

135. The position has been made worse by school teaching for the London Intermediate examinations. Even in England these examinations are not attainment tests. They are devised by the University in order to prevent unfit students from proceeding to Final degree courses. The senate of the University, acting on the advice of its Boards of Studies, plans degree courses covering three years. The course for the first year is an integral part of the whole course, and has no relevance apart from the courses which follow. Subjects are prescribed for the first year not because they are desirable in themselves as giving an education, but because they give the students the

necessary introduction to the courses which are to follow. There is, indeed, no need to have an examination at the end of the first year. In order to affect the final weeding out of the unfit, however, an examination is held on the first year's work. In England it is purely a fitness test. It is true that it is occasionally taken by students at school, but in that case the University insists that the candidates spend three years at the University, and some of the Colleges insist that its students repeat the first-year course even though they have already passed the Intermediate examination.

136. In Ceylon, on the other hand, the Intermediate examination has become an attainment test. The passing of that examination is required from candidates who wish to become advocates or teachers. A high proportion of the students at the University College have had no intention of proceeding further. The schools assume that, if they conduct post-Matriculation teaching, it must be on the Intermediate syllabus. This stultifies the whole purpose of the Intermediate examinations and induces the schools to undertake work for which they are unfitted and to teach students courses on a narrow syllabus which has no relevance whatever to school work.

137. The creation of the University of Ceylon will solve some of these difficulties. It will no doubt have its own Entrance examination. No doubt, also, the preliminary requirement of London Matriculation will be waived, except in the case of medical students. The requirement must he maintained in the case of medical students an order to satisfy the requirements of the General Medical Council, at least until the Council can be persuaded to accept the S.S.C. and Entrance examination of the University of Ceylon as evidence of a sufficiently high standard of general education. From the angle of school-teaching, we assert emphatically that London Matriculation should no longer be permitted to dominate the curriculum. If that examination is taken from school (and those intending to follow a medical career must take it even now) it should be taken incidentally. This is the practice followed in England by many schools. The ordinary student studies for one of the more intelligently framed School Certificate examinations. If for any special reason he desires to take London Matriculation also, he studies for it incidentally, and for the most part by himself, as an addition to his normal work for the Higher Certificate examination. We advise even more emphatically that the practice of teaching for the London Intermediate examination should cease as early as possible. The intermediate courses should be confined to students who intend to proceed to the London External degrees. They are not intended to be school examinations; they have never been framed with the idea that they might be taken from school; they are an integral part of University education and should not be separated from the final degree courses; in some cases, notably that of the Intermediate examination in Arts, they are recognized by a large section of opinion in the University of London itself to be badly framed for external students (they are made suitable for internal students by the insistence of the Colleges that students take suitable options); and thy are utterly unsuited to the conditions of Ceylon. These arguments are unanswerable, and we think that the practice of teaching for London Intermediate in Ceylon schools has nothing whatever to commend it.

Section 2. - The Examination Mentality.

138. The domination of school curricula by examination is not peculiar to Ceylon. It seems to arise wherever the Western system is adopted in all its maturity and without the roots by which that system is fed. It seems strange however, that it should exist in Ceylon, where for a century attempts have been made to copy the English system in all its details. Its existence falsifies the common assumption (by those who defend it as well as by those who criticize it) that "English education" in Ceylon is in fact English education. In England, the ordinary student at an elementary school takes his ''scholarship examination" at the age of 11+. This is not a "public examination". There is no certificate and no standard of passing. It is an examination provided by the local education authority to test the fitness of the pupils to proceed to a secondary school or to a central school. Most of the grant-in-aid secondary schools and all the public schools have then own entrance examinations. There is no school leaving examination for those who complete their education at elementary schools and central schools. For those who proceed to secondary schools or public school there is no examination before the School Certificate examination taken normally, at the age of 16+. Most students leave at that stage, but a small proportion proceeds to study for the Higher School Certificate examination which is taken, normally, at the age of 18+. Of those who take this examination a substantial Proportion proceeds to a University at 18+ or 19+.

139. The result of this system is that by far the greater part of the school education of a student has no reference whatever to examinations. The local education authority or the governors of the grant-in-aid schools determine the curriculum according what they believe to be the needs of education. The “scholarship examination" at 11+ is based entirely on the school curriculum; if it is not that, the school curriculum is based upon the examination. Not until the student reaches the age of fifteen does, he begins to think about examination. Even then the schools insist that their task is to educate, not to prepare for examinations. Accordingly, the student is compelled to study many subjects in which he will not be examined. The tendency to give undue importance to London Matriculation or the General School Certificate was made the subject of acute criticism, and the Universities (other than London) modified their examinations and put them in the charge of joint boards simply in order to meet this criticism. Nor does the Higher Certificate examination dominate the curricula of those who remain at school after the age of 16 years. The student is expected to take these public examinations in his stride. The school is pleased if he passes, but it is even more pleased if he is educated.

140. The position in Ceylon is quite different, and it is no exaggeration to say that in the secondary schools the student hops from one examination to another, and that his curriculum is almost entirely determined by the next examination. Teachers think that it is their business to get their students through examinations, and inevitably adopt a cramming technique. The students themselves "prepare" perpetually instead of for a short time before a single examination. Their parents frequently provide private coaches whose whole justification is that they will get their pupils through examinations. Coaching establishments, which do not pretend to educate all, flourish.

141. That the results are not worse than they are is due to the eternal resilience of youth, the resistance of the elastic mind to the worst that the educational system can do to it. Nevertheless, they are clearly and undoubtedly bad. Many students end their scholastic career with much knowledge and little understanding. They have not read books; they have "studied" texts. They cannot write, they produce essays after a set style. They can answer questions but not question answers. They have little power of applying their knowledge to practical problems. Their imagination has been stunted, their originality suppressed, their capacity for thought undeveloped, their emotions inhibited. Brilliant students are undoubtedly produced, but the quality of the general average and the general average is a better test of an educational system than the quality of the cream-is not high enough. It is urgent that the system be reformed.

Section 3. - Ceylon Examinations.

142. The simplest solution would be to abolish examinations altogether. Nevertheless, they have their uses. In particular, carefully devised fitness tests are a valuable, if not essential, adjunct to an educational system. If education in Ceylon is to be planned on the basis of the differing capacities of students, it is clear that means must be found for effecting the differentiation. We have decided that the allocation of students among secondary schools, senior schools and practical schools must be affected by means of a differentiating test at the fifth standard. In order that a reallocation may, if necessary, be affected at a letter stage, we have also decided that there shall be another differentiating test at the eighth standard. The university too must have its differentiating test in order not to waste its funds and the time of students by admitting to its courses those who are unfitted for them. On this point we need only say that it must be differentiating test or fitness test, and not an attainment test. Its purpose must be only to weed out the unfit, not to provide the summit of school education. It must be adapted to the school system with due regard to the needs of the University. It must not dominate the school curriculum even in the final two years of school education.

143. The educational system as such does not need attainment tests. If the school does its work properly, the standard or form which the student reaches is sufficiently indicative of his educational level. In many countries, in fact, there are no attainment tests below the university stage. Nevertheless, the economic system has become accustomed to them, and employers, including the State itself, require that entrants to the higher ranks of employment shall be limited to persons, who have reached standards of attainment measured by public examinations. We presume that this demand must be met, though we again emphasize that educationally public examinations are unnecessary.

144. There are four levels at which students enter employment. The great mass of students will leave at the compulsory minimum of 14 years. The school system devised by us assumes that students will leave at this age only from the practical schools. We express the hope that this will indeed be so. If a student is expected to leave at the age of fourteen, he is obviously intended to undertake some form of manual work. Accordingly, he should be in a practical school and not in a secondary or senior school. There must clearly be exceptional cases, but an effort should be made (as in England) to prevent the misuse of the secondary schools and senior schools by allowing students to leave before they have completed the course. The question on which we have to recommend, therefore, is whether there should be an examination for those leaving practical schools at the age of 14 years. The Committee of the Ceylon Headmasters' Conference and the Association of Ceylon headmistresses, which considered the subject of examinations generally, has assumed that there should be such an examination. We are unable to agree that such an examination is necessary. Employers at this stage do not want evidence of academic qualifications. The capacity of the student to do things is more important to the employer, and we doubt whether an examination can be devised to meet their needs. So far as the educational system itself is concerned, there is no such need. Students can be encouraged to make the best of their opportunities without offering them certificates as bait at the end. We see no reason why Ceylon should require such an examination when other countries do not. Moreover, if an examination is set it must almost inevitably be academic in quality and inevitably also the teachers and parents will give emphasis these subjects. This would destroy the foundation on which our recommendations rest. *An attainment test at the end of the higher practical course is however necessary.* .

145. The Committee mentioned above also recommends that there be a Junior School Certificate examination in the secondary schools (and presumably in the senior schools). Again, we are unable to agree. Indeed, there is less case for it than there is for an examination for those leaving practical schools. It is true that there will be a break in the student's education at the eighth standard. He will leave the lower department of the secondary school to proceed to the higher department. Nevertheless, the work of the secondary school must be planned as a whole. To insert an attainment test in the middle is to break up the scheme for more than is necessary or desirable. Moreover, the proposal is quite inconsistent with our scheme. At this stage the student should take not an attainment test but a fitness test designed to ascertain whether he should continue with his secondary education or be transferred to a senior school or enter an agricultural, school or employment. If he is capable of proceeding to the higher department of a secondary school, he does not require an attainment best at this stage. The fact that he is so proceeding is evidence that he is capable of proceeding.

146. The second level at which students enter employment is the age of sixteen. We are at present concerned only with those leaving secondary and senior schools at this age. It is at this stage that a public examination is most desirable. From the angle of the educational system it is not necessary but we anticipate that employers will require evidence of educational attainment. We have decided that there shall be a school leaving examination at this stage. The University of Ceylon will require all candidates for its entrance examination to have passed this examination.

147. The third level is the age of eighteen or nineteen. Here the position is somewhat confused by the fact that this is the normal age for entering a University. The Ceylon University Ordinance provides the age of seventeen as the minimum age of admission to the University. No criticism need be offered provided that it is understood that seventeen is not the normal age. It is true that it has hitherto been assumed in Ceylon that the passing of London Matriculation was sufficient evidence of fitness to proceed to University education. This no doubt has arisen because of the London external system. It is not the practice of the London colleges to admit internal students at this stage. Normally, they impose the minimum age limit of eighteen, and admit students below that age only where there is special and incontrovertible evidence of early maturity. The Oxford and Cambridge Colleges similarly adopt the minimum age limit of eighteen, and this is very rarely, if ever, waived. In fact, Oxford and Cambridge much prefer the age of nineteen, which is the normal age for leaving a public school in England. It is quite untrue that Ceylon students are more mature than English students. On the contrary, the unnatural forcing to which they are subjected in the pressure to pass examinations tends to make them less mature. The consequence of early enhance to the University would be a very high percentage of wastage and an unnatural lengthening of the University curriculum. The percentage of wastage cannot be precisely determined because of the unfortunate development of the London Intermediates as attainment tests with the result that many students have no wish to proceed further. It is nevertheless high. The experience of the London Colleges

(which have no entrance examinations) is that 60 percent at least of those who enter at the age of eighteen or nineteen do pass the Intermediate examination at the end of one year. Those who fail are permitted to repeat the course only in exceptional circumstances, because the examination is regarded as a test of fitness, and it is reasonably certain that those who are unable to pass such an elementary examination are unfit to proceed to more advanced work. At the Ceylon University College, the proportion of students, who passed the examination only at the end of the second year, has been high. Further, the normal course in a London College is three years from entrance to degree. Of those who pass the Intermediate examination at the end of the first year, 90 percent should obtain their degrees at the end of the third year. At the Ceylon University College, students who took the B.A. Honors examination or the B.Sc. Special examination were given three year's' teaching after Intermediate, and a very large proportion of those who took the B.A. General or B.Sc. General examination took three years after Intermediate. The result is that a four-year course was normal and a five-year course not exceptional. Partly, this was due to the necessity of working for irrelevant London examinations which required knowledge outside the students' experience; partly, also, it was due to the cramming technique developed in the schools which renders the student unfit to take intelligent examinations, but in large measure it was due to entrance at an immature age. The solution for the last difficulty is being imposed upon the educational system by the limitation of accommodation at the University. The age of admission is increasing rapidly, and it is noticeable that there is no corresponding time -lag in the attainment of degrees. In our view, it should be considered normal in Ceylon (as it is in England) that students should do two-year work at school after passing the School Certificate. There should be no corresponding increase in the age of completing the University course as the University course has been planned on a three-year basis. The present practice of requiring four years for specialist courses will be abandoned. This system will be cheaper for the State and for parents. It will also be better for the schools to have a more mature sixth form.

148. Not all those who leave schools at the age of eighteen will enter the University. Nor, indeed, is it desirable that the requirements of the University should dominate the school curriculum in the final two years of school work. This may be the case if the University Entrance examination is the only examination taken. Indeed, it is hardly possible to avoid this difficulty, because in the present economic system the University graduate usually has an advantage in the search for employment. So long as the University remains in the present premises of the University College and the Medical College, the University Entrance examination must be competitive in the sense that no standard can be set in such a way that all who attain that standard can be admitted to the University. Accordingly, it will not be possible for the University invariably to accept the results of a Higher Certificate examination.

149. A Higher School Certificate examination is however absolutely necessary. It will serve both as the summit of secondary education and as a qualification for the guidance of employers who wish to recruit to certain positions a type of candidate who by reason of his broad general education and flexibility of mind will be fitted to proceed in course of time to more responsible executive posts. At the same time, it is desirable to avoid two distinct examinations at this, stage-the Higher School Certificate and the University Entrance examination. But even when the question of accommodation is solved with the transfer of the University to Peradeniya it is unlikely that the University will, and undesirable that it should, grant admission to all students who pass the Higher School Certificate. The solution to this combination of difficulties appears to be to establish a Higher School Certificate examination which can be operated by a Joint Board on which the University is represented. The syllabus should be framed to meet the needs of schools, but the detailed results of candidates who seek admission to the University should be available to the Board of Admission of the University. The fitness of these candidates could then be scrutinized by the Board (and, if the University thought fit, additional papers might be set or special subject groupings prescribed for University entrance) and their admission decided on the basis of their performance. We consider that this procedure will ensure that University entrance requirements do not dominate the Higher School Certificate examination.

Section 4.-The Content of Examinations.

150. The content of the Standard V. test has already been described in Chapter VII. As the VIIIth Standard test is also a fitness test, it should be conducted on the same lines as the Standard V. test. It will stress General Ability, Elementary Mathematics, English and the Mother Tongue, these being the chief subjects that will be common to all three types of post-primary Schools. It should be possible for a candidate to take the first two papers in the language preferred by him.

151. The Senior School Certificate examination and the Higher School Certificate examination are essentially attainment tests. Therefore, they must be of a different nature. They must test the special abilities acquired at each type of school, at least those abilities that are examinable. These examinations will be useless if they become mere tests of memory and promote cramming. Therefore, examiners should be on their guard to set a sufficient number of questions involving the application of knowledge to new situations.

152. We do not propose to enter into the relative merits of different types of examinations but we wish to recognize the fact that there are at present two types of examinations, the essay type and the "new type". The term "essay type" really describes the answer to the question and this kind of question was the only one used in the past. It measures ability to deliberate and arrange ideas, logical thinking and style of expression. The new type question requires a brief answer in a few words or figures, as the case may be, and measures precision, quickness in perceiving relations and factual knowledge. The latest investigations show that neither the essay type nor the new type is definitely superior. They apparently measure different aspects of ability. Hence if these two types are combined, their shortcomings will be partially cancelled out and the total validity will become greatly superior to that of either of the separate types. Each should be employed for the purpose for which it is best adapted. For improving examinations, we suggest the following principles: -

(1) The examiner should go through the syllabus carefully and make up his mind as to what exactly he wishes to measure. He will be helped if he thinks in terms of abilities rather than of knowledge. The questions and exercises he sets should be such as cannot be answered by a pupil who has not gone through the course and who relies on General Knowledge.

(2) When the examiner has made up his mind in regard to his aims, he should decide how much of the examination should fall into the new type and how much into the essay type. The testing of factual knowledge and straightforward skills is best done through the new type tests. But when the examiner wishes to test such qualities as originality, reasoning ability, interest in the subject and literary style, he should use the essay type of test.

(3) If the examiner decides to use for both the purposes mentioned above the essay type of test, he must make sure that the field is adequately covered by his questions. A detailed scheme of marking should be drawn up showing the facts and skills that have to be marked. When the questions are intended to test originality and other qualities which are not of a factual nature, it is still more important that the examiner should, before he begins to mark, draw up a list of qualities to be valued, to prevent his being biased by bad handwriting, spelling and other things which may be against his predilections.

153. In assigning an impressionistic mark to the essay type of answers (question by question marking is best, a record being entered at the same time), it has been found best to begin by dividing the scripts into three main sets, above average, average and below average, and then subdivide these into finer groupings. This procedure gives much more reliable results than the usual practice of dealing with the scripts in the order in which they are sent up, arranged according to index numbers, giving absolute marks to each one as it comes. If it is decided to have only 5 groups A, B, C, D and E, they should, in the case of large examinations, be in the proportion of 1 : 4 : 6 : 4 : 1. These letter marks can be converted into numerical marks, when necessary, as follows:-

A 72 and above
B 58-71
C 44-57
D 30-43

E 29 and below

The number of divisions can be increased, as at some Universities, by subdividing A into A+, A and A-; B into B+, B and B- and so on.

154. Finally, at the Senior School Certificate and Higher Certificate examinations there should be alternative papers in all subjects except language subjects, so that a candidate may be free to take such papers in the language preferred by him.

CHAPTER XII.

SUPPLY OF TEACHERS.

155. In the existing system of education there is a variety of qualifications which differentiate one class of teacher from another. Some of the qualifications are general and others specialist. This basis of classification was adopted mainly for the purpose of a salaries scheme for teachers. There is no grading of posts and no differentiation in status of teachers according to the type of schools. The differentiation of schools according to the medium of instruction used has however introduced a marked differentiation in status between teachers of English schools, i.e., schools where English is used as the medium of instruction and teachers of Sinhalese and Tamil schools. In the latter schools we have the trained teacher, the certificated teacher, the provisionally registered teacher, the teacher of practical subjects like lace-making, embroidery and the uncertificated teacher. In the English schools the classification is based on a greater variety of qualifications. We have the trained graduate, the graduate, the trained teacher, the possessor of a science diploma, the Ceylon commercial certificate, the bilingual trained certificate London Inter-Arts and Inter-Science certificates, and the certificated and uncertificated teacher. This multiplicity of groups according to qualifications has often given rise to confusion in regard to the administration of the Salaries Scheme and has also been the cause of the undue preoccupation on the part of teachers in their salary prospects. We cannot of course do away with qualifications as a basis of classification as a teacher's degree of competence and knowledge has to a large extent to be gauged from his qualifications. We, however, think that the divisions should be reduced to a minimum. The abolition of the classification of schools according to the medium of instruction implies the abolition of the undesirable labels ''English Teacher'' and ''Vernacular Teacher''. All teachers in our scheme will be accorded a status in accordance with their educational attainments, qualifications and experience in the profession. We suggest the following classes of teachers: trained graduate, technically trained graduate, untrained graduate, technically trained specialist, trained teacher, approved specialist, and the probationary teacher. The training of graduates will of course be undertaken by the University. *We recommend that the University should be provided with the necessary funds at an early date to enable a Training Department to be organized.*

156. The key to educational reform is the proper training of teachers. The comparative ineffectiveness of the educational efforts during the "last century was in a large measure due to the lack of adequate provision for the training of teachers. Modern development in education and psychology (the hand-maid of education) strongly emphasize the importance of teacher training. A system of teacher training has been in operation in Ceylon for some time. There are at present two types of training schools one for training teachers for the English schools and the other for the Sinhalese and Tamil schools. The Training College for English school teachers is conducted by the Department of Education whereas 18 Assisted training schools conducted under denominational auspices and 4 Government training schools train teachers for the Sinhalese and Tamil schools. A good deal of improvement has no doubt resulted from these efforts. We understand that an average of 300 teachers are trained annually. Still the number of untrained and uncertificated teachers is very large. We give below the figures for the different classes of teachers for the year 1941 :-

		English schools	Sinhalese and Tamil schools	Bilingual schools
Number of trained teachers	...	748	5,458	218
Number of certificated but untrained teachers	...	2,125	9,781	207
Number of uncertificated teachers	...	793	2,569	80

Total	...	3,666	17,808	505

We observe that 20 percent of this staff in English schools is still uncertificated, and only a like percentage trained. In the Sinhalese and Tamil schools, the proportion of trained teachers to the total number of teachers is about a third. We are of opinion that almost all teachers of the future should be trained. There are only a handful of trained graduates at present and the majority of the graduates are untrained. We recommend that when a University Training Department is established and is able to train graduates the untrained graduate should be appointed ln a probationary capacity.

157. The technically trained graduate will be one who has specialized in a technical subject like engineering, commerce, or accountancy besides possessing a University degree. To be recognized as a technically trained specialist we suggest that the requirement should be a diploma of a Technical or Agricultural College or a College of Music, Art or Physical Training, certifying the special subject in which a certain standard of competence has been attained. We need hardly state that the course of training for such a diploma should include a course in the principles and methods of teaching. We think that the Ceylon Technical College will be the proper institution to organize courses in technical subjects. For agriculture a diploma awarded by an approved Agricultural College may be recognized. Practical training and workshop practice should form part of the curriculum of such courses. There may be diplomas in engineering, building construction, surveying and levelling, commerce, industry and accountancy. By approved specialist we have in view teachers who have specialized in such subjects as Art, Music, Handicraft and Oriental Languages. We observe that the pundit in Oriental Languages is at present considered uncertificated. This is a position not compatible with the standard of learning attained by pundits in their special fields. At the same time, we recognize that their narrow specialization does not fit them to be efficient teachers unless they are put through a training course. We therefore recommend that a way should be devised for these pupils (who hold the final certificate of the Madura Sangam, the Jaffna or Colombo Oriental Studies Society) to go through a course in the principles and methods of teaching and some academic subjects, which will help widen their culture, in the training colleges which are recommended later in this chapter. The successful completion of such a course should be a necessary condition of their recognition as teachers. Teachers of Music, Art and Handicraft may be trained either at the Technical College or in the training colleges.

158. For the training of the non-graduate teachers, we recommend a single type of training college. This training college will not merely be a place where the specific tricks of teaching are learnt, but also a place where students will be able to acquire broad principles and learn how to apply them to a variety of school circumstances. In addition, it ought also to be a centre of educational research as well as a centre of culture. In short, the training college of the future will be a first-class institution which will not only train teachers but also contribute to the general progress of education.

159. A training college cannot exist by itself. It should be conducted in connection with an educational centre. An educational centre should consist of a training college and schools in which the art of teaching can be practiced. The Principal of the college will be the Controller of these schools. There should be attached to every training college a primary school, a practical school, and a senior or secondary school. The centre should have playing fields, a gymnasium, a workshop, suitable laboratories and agricultural gardens in close proximity for the use of the component institutions. We strongly recommend that the residential system which has been in operation for many years should be continued. We attach great importance to the corporate life of the centres. The staff of a training college should consist of a Principal and one Assistant to every 20 students. In a women's training college, the post of Principal should be held by a woman and in a men's by a man. In a co-educational college the Principal should be a man but there should be at least two women on the staff. Specialist teachers such as teachers of Music and Art should be common to both the training college and the component schools.

160. We think that most of the present-day training schools are conducted with too few students. The number of teachers is determined according to a formula related to the number of students. This does not permit the schools to have an adequate number of teachers as well as up to date equipment. We consider that the

training college we have in view should admit 150-250 students, i.e. 75-125 students in any one year. The course of training will be one of two years. Those teachers who will be required to teach in practical schools must undergo special training in practical subjects. A good part of this additional work should be done in the workshop and the field.

161. The curriculum of the training college course shall consist of four main sections: -

(a) The study of the theory of education which would include: -
    (i) The meaning and aim of education, (ii) the value of the subjects taught, and
    (iii) the organization of schools and classes
(b) The study of educational psychology and hygiene;
(c) The practice of education under the headings: -
    (j) General method (ii) method of teaching particular subjects, and (iii) testing and statistics of marks.
(d) Research into educational problems.

Teaching requires knowledge of subjects, knowledge of principles and methods of teaching, as well as skill in using them intelligently and sympathetically. Although non-graduate training colleges will have to spend a good deal of time in teaching Music, Art, Handwork and Agriculture, Adequate attention should also be paid to developing the students' academic knowledge. Work in this connection should look towards the special equipment of those who are to teach children. There should not merely be courses in language but also courses in child literature; not merely a knowledge of biology but courses planned specially with reference to the work which can be offered to children in biological and physical nature study. In History, Geography, Music, Art, indeed practical in every subject the student ought to study the field from the standpoint of the material available and the method to be employed in teaching children. This work may be just as significant from the standpoint of scholarship as is any of the work now done. It may result in an appreciation of the subject taught as a possible means of mental growth for children. It is. Not necessary that the attainment of the students in training in the academic subjects should be tested by a public examination. The colleges themselves may hold an internal test at the end of the first year for this purpose. Students found deficient should be warned to make good during the next year. The final examination will be confined to the professional subjects only. It will be one examination held for all the colleges and the scheme of the examination will be framed by the Examination Board referred to in Chapter XIV. A trained teachers' certificate under the signature of the Director of Education will be issued to those who complete the two years course and pass the examination.

162. Great care must be exercised in the selection of teachers for the training colleges. The Principal should ordinarily be a trained honors graduate with at least five years teaching experience. The Assistants except teachers of Music, Art, and other technical subjects or specialists in Oriental Languages should ordinarily be trained graduates or trained teachers with at least five years' experience. It is desirable that oriental language pundits should also have been trained.

163. We now come to the question of the qualification for entrance to the training college. This is connected with our scheme for the appointment of probationary teachers. We realize that talents and ability alone will not make anyone a successful teacher. Suitability for this vocation is best tested during a period of probationary service. *We therefore recommend the creation of a grade of probationary teachers for the primary, practical and the lower departments of the senior and secondary schools.* The probationary period will not exceed three years. If during this period the probationer is not found unfit for the career on which he has embarked he will at the end of this period be admitted to a training college. Those who are found unfit will be discharged before the lapse of the three-year period so that they may try their hand at some other vocation more congenial to their interests, ability, and temperament. The decision to discharge the service of a probationer will be taken by the manager in consultation with the Divisional lnspector. The recruitment of probationers will be made on the results of a selective examination the minimum qualification for entry to which will for the present be the Senior School Certificate or its equivalent or the final certificate of efficiency issued by an Agricultural or Trade school. It will be

obvious that in our new scheme all teachers must be bilingual. Those who obtain the new S.S.C. will of course be bilingual. During the period of transition, the products of the present-day schools will have to be permitted to enter for the probationers' examination. It must however be insisted that those who possess the S.S.C. (English) have offered and passed in Sinhalese or Tamil and those who possess the S.S.C. (Sinhalese or Tamil) also possess an adequate knowledge of English. In the case of Burghers who possess the S.S.C. (English) it would be sufficient if they possess in addition a sufficient knowledge of Sinhalese or Tamil. The upper age limit will be 21, and in the case of Muslims 22, and the lower age limit will be 18. No candidate should be permitted to sit for the examination on more than two occasions, which will be consecutive. It is not necessary that an interview should form part of the examination as any person selected can always be discharged during the probationary period for any cause that makes him unfit to be a teacher. This examination too will be held by the Board referred to in paragraph 161 and selection shall normally be according to the order of merit in the examination. We recognize complication which the requirements of denominational schools will give rise to. Denominational managers will often prefer to select their students in training from candidates belonging to their respective denominations. If a situation arises in which sufficient candidates belonging to a particular denomination do not come within the number proposed to be taken, we see no objection to the Department fixing a minimum standard of attainment and allowing denominational managers to make the selection from candidates who have obtained more than a certain minimum aggregate mark. Probationers for the practical school shall in addition provide evidence of having undergone a course in practical subjects, probationers fur the senior school must possess a diploma in a technical subject or the Higher School Certificate and probationers for the secondary school must have passed the Higher School Certificate. When a probationer enters the training college, he will continue to draw his probationers' salary during the period of training. Probationary service should be counted as pensionable service.

164. The non-graduate teachers trained under the above scheme are mainly intended to staff the primary and practical schools. After they have gained least six years experience, they should prove suitable to teach in the lower departments of the secondary and senior schools. But this should not prevent a trained teacher who possesses a diploma in a technical subject or the Higher School Certificate joining the lower department of a senior or secondary school, as the case may be, straight away. A teacher's training should not be regarded as being complete with his leaving the training college. Teachers should keep in touch with modern developments in education and should riot let their knowledge grow rusty. We recommend that refresher courses should be periodically organized to enable teachers to meet one another, listen to the exposition of the latest discoveries in education and psychology and exchange views. In the case of the non-graduate trained teacher in particular, attendance at refresher courses should be made compulsory. Suitable efficiency bars in their salary scales should be devised and attendance at refresher courses should be made a condition of promotion or raising of their certificates to a higher class. We consider that the higher department of the secondary school should be staffed by trained graduates, graduates and approved specialists for certain special subjects. The higher departments of the senior school should be staffed by trained graduates, technically trained graduates, graduates and approved specialists.

165. It will be seen that apart from the probationary assistant there is no assistance for the uncertificated teacher in our scheme for the supply of teachers. The teachers' certificate examinations of the present day have outlived their usefulness. They were introduced at a time when the majority of teachers were uncertificated. They were intended to provide an easy means whereby uncertificated teachers might become certificated when facilities for training were limited. With the operation of the reforms we have recommended increased facilities will be available for training persons for the teaching profession. No time should be lost in converting the existing Government training schools into training colleges of the kind contemplated by us. Other colleges should be established by Government in suitable centers. A steady output of an increased number of trained teachers should he maintained. In these circumstances we see no justification for continuing the teachers' certificate examinations. We recommend that they should be abolished forthwith.

CHAPTER XIII.

EDUCATIONAL FINANCE.

Section 1. - Present Position.

166. In the present system, as already stated earlier, education in the Sinhalese and Tamil schools is free throughout the entire course, i.e., till the completion of the S.S.C; whereas education in the English schools has to be paid for from kindergarten to post-Matriculation. No part of the expenditure on public education is yet borne by the local bodies; by far the greater part of it is met from the funds of the central government. In respect of the Sinhalese and Tamil schools, the full salaries of the staff and a part of the expenses of maintaining the school buildings and of equipment are found from State funds. In the case of State schools, the cost of buildings and the full cost of equipment and of such books as are issued free to poor children are a further charge on State funds. Buildings of Assisted schools are put up by the school authorities from their funds. In respect of English schools, the State bears a part of the cost of the salaries of the staff, nearly 50 percent The remaining 50 percent and the cost of maintenance of buildings and of equipment are met from fees paid by pupils. Apart from school fees in English schools, the cost of books and school stationery for children in all types of schools is a charge on the parents. An expenditure of Rs. 17,777,723 estimated for the financial year 1942/43 was distributed between English education and Sinhalese and Tamil education respectively as follows: -

	Rs.
Sinhalese and Tamil education (Government)	7,187,453
Do. (Assisted)	7,093,610
English education (Government)	914,927
Do. (Assisted)	2,581,733

The fee collection for the same period in English schools was estimated to be Rs.3,905,329.

167. Education in the Training schools has all along been free. The estimated Government expenditure on teacher training in 1942/43 was Rs.227,347. The greater part of the cost of technical education and University education is also borne by the Government. Comparative figures of the cost to Government and of the fee collection at the Ceylon University and the Ceylon Technical College during the session 1942/43 are approximately as follows :-

	Government cost Rs.	Fee Collection Rs.
Ceylon University	1,000,000	220,000
Ceylon Technical College	191,750	30,360

To summarize, out of an estimated cost of primary, secondary, technical and University education and teacher training, namely Rs.23,352,509, State funds account for as much as Rs.19,196,820 and only a sum of Rs.4,155,689 is found from free collection. Cost of books of pupils which is borne by the parents is of course extra. These figures testify to the democratizing process in education begun about 15 years ago. But we feel that there are still vital gaps in the system which financial considerations have hitherto prevented from being bridged. 5--J. N. A 93095 (11/49)

168. Few will disagree with the proposition that education in a democratic society should be free at all stages. Talents and ability are not confined to any social class or group and any social system must provide for their emergence by the provision of equal educational opportunities. Any efficient system of public education must be expensive and can seldom be administered on a self-support basis. Influenced by the democratic ideal and the recognition of the potential worth of the individual, vast strides have been made in the West in the field of public education. In Great Britain provision exists for free and universal elementary education, for 50 percent scholarships in secondary schools and about 42 percent scholarships in Universities. We understand that the educational systems in the U.S.A. provide for free education up to and including the secondary stage. In certain States there is provision for Free University education too. It may be asked why these progressive and advanced democracies have not thought of making education completely free, i.e., from the kindergarten up to and including the University stage. The emergence and development, through almost a century and a half, of the present industrial democratic culture which has transformed the West and has been exerting a profound influence on the civilization of the East, was made possible by the gradual extension of mass education. But partly influenced by financial considerations very few countries, even of the West, have made secondary education free for all entrants and Universities which offer free education are exceptional. There might have been other reasons too, which it is not necessary for our purpose to enter into here. No thinking person can fail to foresee the likely developments of post-war policy in national and international affairs. The present World War has taught many a lesson and is bound to teach us many more before it is over. Among other things, we cannot fail to recognize that the epoch we are about to enter will be one in which the highly productive economic system that has already been developed could be administered to bring a fuller and a richer life to all according to ability and capacity; and that every individual in the State must have equal opportunities so that, provided he has the necessary innate ability, he can lift himself from the humblest to the highest position in the social, economic and political life of the nation. In the field of education, future policy should, therefore, assume all normal children to be of equal educability. This will replace the assumption implicit in present-day educational systems that only children of a certain economic level or social position can receive certain types of education. The type of education which each child is to receive must be determined by a process of scientific selection and not by the consideration of economic or social status. Stated briefly, not only on the ground of justice to the individual, but also on the ground of social efficiency, it is demanded that the educational system should provide for the training of the proper men and women for filling the proper places in the life of the nation.

169. During the early stages of our investigation discussion was limited to free education up to the 8th standard, i.e., up to the point when education ceases to be compulsory. We had no difficulty in deciding that education up to compulsory stage should be free. On the basis of the salary scale for teachers originally devised by us the cost to Government in giving effect to this decision and the proposal for partly subsidized education in the higher departments of the secondary and senior schools was estimated at Rs.21,306,900, i.e., an increase of about Rs.4,000,000 on the present cost. This left out grants to primary and practical schools for equipment and books. Some of us felt that free primary and post-primary education was the ideal but were reluctant at that stage, on the ground of the financial implications, to recommend free education beyond the compulsory age. We have reconsidered the whole question in the light of the problems of post-war reconstruction. It is not difficult to see that among the objectives that would dominate national policies after the War will be the prevention of unemployment, the raising of the standard of living of the masses, increased production, a more equitable system of distribution, social security, promotion of co-operative enterprise, &c. But as none of these things can be fully realized without mass education, we are of opinion that free education must come first and foremost. To free education would add free medical service. This is not within our purview, but we mention it as later we suggest that the public health service preventive and curative should be at the disposal of schools free of charge.

170. It would be well to anticipate the possible arguments against what might be regarded by some as a revolutionary proposal. Before doing so we would like to define precisely what we mean by free education. We contemplate generally that the cost of education from the kindergarten up to and including the University shall be a charge on the funds of the State and or the local authorities, having regard to endowments, particularly in the case of the University. We define “cost of education” as follows: -

(a) In the case of Assisted primary and practical schools, the entire salaries of an eligible staff, the cost of books and stationery for pupils and a grant for equipment.
(b) In the case of Assisted secondary and senior schools, the entire salaries of an eligible staff, the cost of books and school stationery for pupils and provided no equipment fee is levied, a grant for equipment.
(c) In the case of Assisted Training Colleges, the entire salaries of an eligible staff and a grant for equipment.
(d) In the case of the University, a grant that will be adequate to enable the University to give free education to all entrants.

The cost of education with reference to State schools, i.e., the State primary practical, secondary and senior schools, State Training Colleges, and the State Technical, Agricultural and trade schools, would mean the entire cost of conducting these institutions including the cost of books and school stationery for pupils except in the case of Training Colleges and the Technical, Agricultural and trade schools where the cost of books, &c., will continue to be borne by the pupils. There is a further item of cost which must also be regarded as included in the cost of education, i.e., the cost of affording free board and lodging to poor students where necessary. It will be observed that: -

(i.) no tuition fee whatever will be charged for any type of education referred to above,
(ii.) the secondary and senior schools alone will be authorized to levy an "equipment fee" to cover the cost of equipment. If a secondary or senior school chooses to levy an ''equipment fee'' from its pupils it will not be entitled to any equipment grant.

The cost of books and school stationery for students in the Training Colleges, Technical, Agricultural and trade schools and the University shall not be a charge on public funds. The question was raised whether schools should not be permitted to charge a games fee to enable them to meet the cost or organizing games and other similar activities. We have no objection to such a fee being levied.

171. It will be asked why parents with high levels of income who can afford to pay for their children's education should not be called upon to do so. The answer is that such parents are already contributing to the general revenue of the country and can be made to contribute more, if necessary. Secondly, the protagonists of public control would demand that as the State is now to meet the entire cost all the schools must come under a State system. We do not agree. We have already discussed the question of the control of schools and come to the conclusion that the system of denominational control should be allowed to continue. In our view the extension of the principle of free education to a further point should not give rise to any new difficulty which necessitates a re-consideration of the question of control. Thirdly, there is the question of finance. We suggest that a complete re-organization of public finance is bound to follow in the wake of post-war reconstruction necessitating a fresh outlook with regard to taxation policy and salaries and wages. Although the present good times may be followed by lean years it is not beyond human ingenuity to discover ways and means of financing education the one service that constitutes the key to all progress. There is another consideration. As the State offers education free to all according to their ability it is only reasonable that individual citizens, in whatever position they may be in the life of the community, should not demand or expect scales of remuneration for their services not in keeping with the capacity of the country to pay. The "new education", we hope, will in inculcate a new spirit of service and we have no doubt that public opinion will support any proposal by the Authorities for effecting a general reduction of salaries where necessary. In drafting the salaries scheme for teachers appended to this report we have taken this factor into consideration. *In view of what we have stated in the above paragraphs we recommend that education should be free from the kindergarten to the University.*

Section 3. – Grant a and Quotas.

172. The present basis of computation of grant to Assisted schools is teachers' salaries. This was adopted in 1927 after a good deal of deliberation by various Committees. Definite salary scales for teachers of different qualifications were laid down. An adequate staff for a school was defined with reference to the average

attendance of the school, and the grant was assessed (i) in the case of English schools, as a proportion of the salary cost of the staff, nearly 50 percent of the average salary of each individual teacher computed over a period of 30 years and (ii) in the case of the Sinhalese and Tamil schools, as the full salary cost of the staff. The other 50 percent of the salary cost in English schools was expected to be found from school fees. It was referred to as the 'manager's contribution'. The manager also met the expenses connected with repairs to school buildings and equipment and furniture, in respect of English schools, from the fee income. These items of expenditure in the free schools were met from a 'maintenance' grant paid by Government. Inequality in the distribution of grants was inevitable under this system as the salary of a teacher depended on his qualification. The grants paid to English secondary schools have been found to vary from Rs.40 to Rs.80 per unit of average attendance. Schools which were able to employ a higher proportion of highly qualified teachers received more grant than their poorer sisters. With a view to stabilize the cost to Government on salaries of teachers and to secure a more equitable distribution of grants proposals for the grading of teaching posts were made. The Retrenchment Commission of 1939 formulated a grading scheme which was assented to by the Executive Committee of Education. But the Select Committee of the State Council on Cadres and Salaries have rejected it and have sought to save on teachers' salaries by proposing reduced salary scales. We discussed the question of grading teaching posts at considerable Length. Although the All-Ceylon Union of Teachers (which consists of English teachers only) is agreeable to grading on a unified service basis and not on a school basis any scheme of grading is unacceptable to the teaching profession as a whole. We agree that in the absence of unified control of appointments and transfers in Assisted schools numerous difficulties are bound to arise in the actual working of any such scheme. We consider that the salary scales drawn up by us on the principle of a basic salary and family allowances will affect the saving which grading is intended to achieve. We do not therefore think that grading of teaching posts is necessary. The question we must answer now is whether teachers' salaries should still be retained as the basis of computation of grant under our scheme of free primary and post-primary education. There are two other possible schemes the block grant scheme and the attendance grant scheme. School expenditure would vary from year to year as incremental salary scales will be in operation. Either of these alternatives will impose a rigidity which would tend to handicap school finances. An incremental salary scale cannot be operated without the retention of the existing method of computing grant on the basis of teachers' salaries. We therefore recommend that the full salaries of the eligible staff should be paid as grant.

173. Under this system the grant-paying authority must necessarily determine the number of teachers in respect of whose salaries grant is to be paid and their distribution according to qualifications. The number of teachers will depend on the organization of classes and the curricula drawn up for each school. Now that the entire salary cost will be a charge on public funds there might be a tendency on the part of the school authorities to lavishness in the matter of staff. It is therefore essential that the number and distribution according to qualifications of the staff in respect of which grant will be paid should be rigidly laid down. This is referred to in this Report as the "eligible staff" In fixing the quota of pupils per teacher for determining the number in the staff we have taken into consideration the needs of the various types of schools, the differences in curricula including the teaching of alternative subjects. We recommend that the quota for the primary, practical and senior schools shall be one teacher for 27 units of average attendance and the quota for secondary schools one teacher for every 22 units. We are not in favor of fixing the quota on a sliding scale. We have, however, no objection to exceptions being provided for in regard to schools in remote areas where school attendance is very low owing to distance or the paucity of children of schoolable age. Some consideration might also be given in fixing quotas in respect of the existing smaller schools.

174. Grants now paid are mainly of two kinds--the contribution towards the salaries of teachers, hereinafter referred to as the “Salary grant" and the contribution towards the expenses of maintenance of buildings, provision of equipment, school apparatus and books to poor children, known as the "maintenance grant''. There was a provision in the Code which provided for building grants but it remained a dead letter for many years. We recommend that it be deleted. We are of opinion that funds needed for the provision of land and buildings for Assisted schools should come from the resources of denominational bodies, public subscriptions and other philanthropic sources. We also consider that the cost of maintenance of school buildings should also be borne by

the school authorities from their funds. We propose for the future a salary grant, and 'equipment grant' and maintenance grant by which we mean a grant for maintaining poor scholars in a boarding house. The equipment grant is intended to cover the cost of the provision of and repairs to school furniture and equipment. Any furniture, &c., purchased from this grant shod remain the property of the Government. They should be inventorized separately by the school authorities, the inventory being periodically inspected by the Inspector. We do not propose that Assisted secondary and senior schools should be paid any equipment grant if they charge an equipment fee. Our recommendations for payment of grant under our proposal for free education will be as follows: -

Primary school: Salary grant will be the full salary cost of the eligible staff. The equipment grant will be at rate not exceeding Rs.1.50 per unit of average attendance.

Practical school: Same as for the primary school except that the equipment grant will be at a rate not exceeding Rs. 2.50 per unit of average attendance.

Secondary and Senior school: Salary grant will be the full salary cost of the eligible staff. The equipment grant will be at a rate not exceeding Rs.5 per unit of average attendance.

Training colleges: Salary grant will be the full salary cost of an eligible staff. The equipment grant will be at a rate not exceeding Rs.20 per unit of average attendance.

The secondary schools may levy an equivalent fee not exceeding Rs.3 per pupil per mensem and the senior schools an equipment fee not exceeding Rs.2 per pupil per mensem. In paragraph 88 we have laid down age limits beyond which children should not be retained in the different types of schools. We have no objection to all pupils of primary and practical schools being reckoned in the computation of the average attendance for fixing the eligible staff. With regard to the secondary and senior schools, however, we are of opinion that the limits laid down there should be reduced for computing average attendance. We consider that no pupil who is 17+ at the beginning of the school year in the senior school and no pupil who is 19+ at the beginning of the school year in the secondary school should be reckoned in the computation of average attendance.

175. The salary scales on the basis of which the salary grant will be computed are given in the respective appendixes. Salaries of teachers in some of the present-day free schools are paid by the department. As the full salaries of teachers of all types of schools will, under our proposal, be a charge on public funds it might be desirable to extend the principle of direct payment. In any case we consider that schools will be considerably helped if the grant can be paid quarterly if not monthly. We recommend that schools should be taken on to the direct payment list wherever they apply for it.

Section 4. - Teachers' salaries.

176. We have endeavored to obtain the greatest possible measure of agreement on all sides on the question of teachers' salaries. The profession as a whole appears to have been satisfied for a time with the salary scheme brought into operation in 1927 on the recommendation of the Advisory Committee on Salaries. In 1933, as part of a general measure of economy in public expenditure, the salaries of teachers in English schools were also reduced. Complaints on the part of teachers which started then have continued ever since. Teachers now demand not merely a minimum wage necessary to enable them to maintain a standard of living in keeping with their position in society, but a salary in parity with that obtaining in other walks of life, particularly the Public Service, for workers of similar qualifications and attainments. Teachers are never tired of pointing out that the salaries of certain classes of teachers in England compare favorably with those of the executive clerical classes of the Public Service of that country. We do not think that the local problem could be approached in the light of what obtains in England. Our sympathies, however, are with the teachers in their efforts to secure a decent wage for the very responsible duties they perform. We referred this question to two Sub-Committees. As there has been a hue and cry in recent times against the mounting scale of educational expenditure we considered it our paramount duty to suggest ways and means of stabilizing the cost to Government of education. The Sub-Committees were accordingly directed to keep this aspect in view. The teaching service is a large one and as such any scheme providing for the liberal salaries which the teachers demand is bound to prove unworkable. Under our proposal for free education the entire cost of the salaries of teachers will be a charge on public funds. We see no immediate prospect of local bodies taking

over an appreciable part of the financial burden. The first Sub-Committee produced a scheme providing for somewhat lower scales than the old entrant scales introduced in 1927. We could not see our way to accepting this scheme. The second Sub-Committee's proposals provided for higher emoluments in certain cases by introducing the principle of family allowances. We understand that this principle is applied even in the Public Service in certain countries, e.g., New Zealand, and has worked satisfactory. We do not see any reason, in view of the present trend of opinion regarding the much-debated question of social and economic security, why the same principle should not gradually be applied to other forms of employment. We give in Appendix 7 the scales recommended by the Sub-Committee which we have adopted with slight modifications. We have suggested basic salaries for bachelors and spinsters who have no dependent parents. There will be three allowances besides the wife's allowance, but men teachers marrying women teachers will not be entitled to the wife's allowance. The three allowances will be either for 3 children, or for 2 children and one parent provided the parent is dependent on and living with the teacher. A married woman teacher will not be entitled to any allowance. An unmarried woman teacher will get a parent's allowance provided the parent has no other means of subsistence (e.g., does not get support from any other children) and is living with her. A married woman teacher is, however, entitled to children's allowances if her husband dies. The children's allowances will continue until the children are 18 years old provided, they are not wage earners. If, however, they continue in an educational institution beyond this stage the allowance will be payable till 21. Different rates of allowances have been fixed for Municipal, Urban and rural areas: We have also recommended a Headmasters' allowance in the case of primary and practical schools. In this scheme we are also introducing a new principle of differentiation in salary scales according to the grade of the school. We have recommended the same scale for the primary and practical school and another scale for the secondary and senior school. The question was raised whether the allowances should be pensionable. We recommend that only the allowance in respect of the wife should be pensionable.

177. The financial implications of the salary scheme for teachers of the primary and post-primary schools are worked out and indicated in Appendix 8. In Appendix 9 we give the salary scales we have devised for Training Colleges. In working out the cost of primary and post-primary education we have taken the stabilized cost which our scheme would entail on the basis of an assumed number of school population. Any increase over this figure would be due to increase in the number of school-going children which is bound to happen as there is a substantial number of children still not attending schools. The total commitment of Rs.22,742,202 will, in the immediate future, be a charge on the funds of the central government. If, as we suggest later in this Report, the local bodies take over primary education within their areas contributing a proportion of the cost, there will be a substantial easing of the burden of the central government. Whether the disbursement be from the funds of the central government or local bodies the essential principle we have tried to establish is that the 'whole community' should bear the cost of education of the 'whole community'. Financial difficulties should not be made an excuse for whittling down our proposal and future reorganization of public finance should be based on an acceptance of our proposal in its entirety.

CHAPTER XIV.

EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION.

178. "Policy is the choice of ends whereas administration is the means to attain those ends.'' In the preceding chapters we have not only set out the shape which the educational organization should take but also endeavored to state the lines on which future educational policy should be developed. It should not, however, be forgotten that a sound administration is as essential as a sound policy, for faulty or half -hearted execution of policy can well defeat the whole policy itself. The end of education is the growth and development of the educant through the exercise of professional freedom by the teacher. This is not to say that the teacher should be free of all controls from the administrative authorities or should not welcome help and guidance offered to him. He must be allowed freedom for experimentation and evolution of methods and given all facilities which will render possible the transmission, interpretation and development of culture. Another of the most important problems of

administration is the provision of equality of opportunity. The object of educational administration has been aptly defined to be "to enable the right pupils to receive the right education from the right teachers at a cost within the means of the State, under conditions which will enable the pupils best to profit by their training''. We have already drawn attention to the uneven distribution of schools throughout the Island. The Department of Education has recently, with the assistance of the Local Advisory Committees, carried out a school survey and compiled a priority list of new schools to be established as funds become available. This list relates to areas where no facilities for schooling exist at all and where it is intended to establish Sinhalese and Tamil schools. If our recommendations for classification of schools and differentiated educational provision including provision of vocational and technical schools are accepted, a fresh survey will be necessary to help in the planning of a coordinated system of schools. *We suggest that such a survey should be undertaken at the earliest opportunity.* It should be as comprehensive as possible and should include a census of literacy: a census of children not attending any school, a census of occupations, and details regarding normal school leaving age and age of entry into occupations. The results of the survey should be published and the co-operation of denominational authorities sought in giving effect to an accepted plan for the establishment of new schools, amalgamation of existing schools, &c. We wish, however, to make it clear that action on our recommendations need not be held up pending this School survey.

179. Any system of public education must obviously rest on legal enactment defining and allocating powers and duties to the several parties concerned in its provision-the central authority, i.e., the State, the local authority, the proprietors and managers of schools, the teachers and parents. In the first place it is necessary to create the conditions in which alone education can achieve its object, and then to maintain these conditions. The decision as to what matters should be prescribed by law or regulation would depend on what these conditions are. Secondly, it is necessary to ensure efficiency and economy. We consider that the State should take power for dealing with such matters as compulsory attendance, length of the school year, character of buildings, playgrounds and equipment, medical inspection and health, size of classes, qualifications salaries and pensions of teachers, and their security of tenure. In a purely, State system the problem of teachers' tenure will not arise. Our system is dual in character and past experience shows that if the teacher were to be expected to give of his best and cultivate interest and love for his work, be must be spared undue worry and concern over his own economic security. We shall revert to this later in the chapter.

180. Education is at present administered under the Education Ordinance, No. 31 of 1939, which superseded the Ordinance of 1920. It effected certain important changes in policy and re-distribution of powers. The most important changes were-(i) the reconstitution of the Board of Education as an advisory body, (ii') the replacement of Education District Committee functioning under the old Ordinance by Local Advisory Committees and (iii) the provision for devolution of responsibility for education on Municipal and Urban authorities and Village Committees. The Central Government has so far borne the administrative and financial responsibility for all types of education. We consider that the time has come for effecting at least a limited devolution of responsibility on the local authorities. We have three types of local authorities-the Municipal Council, the Urban Council and the Village Committee. According to the Ordinance the decision as to whether an urban authority, i.e., a Municipal Council or Urban Council shall undertake the provision of education within its area rests with the Executive Committee of Local Administration. With regard to the Village Committee the decision lies with the Committee itself. We do not think that the Village Committees will have for a considerable time the funds for financing education. *We, however, consider that the three Municipal Councils and the more well-to-do Urban Councils should be called upon to bear a share of the responsibility for education. It will of course not be possible for them, at the commencement, to take over completely the work connected with education in their areas. We recommend that they might begin by assuming sole charge of primary education.* The Central Government could contribute a share of the cost, the other share being found from rates. An expensive organization for administering education can be avoided if the Inspectoral staff of the Central Government can by arrangement continue to perform the services they have been attending to in respect of the schools in the urban areas. The extent of the financial burden to be borne by local authorities should be decided with due regard to their present financial resources or the additional revenue raiseable by the introduction of an education rate. This should be settled by negotiation between the government and the local authorities.

181. The Ordinance does not place any restriction or prohibition on the establishment of new schools. All that is necessary before a new school is opened is a notice in terms of section 42 (1) of the Ordinance. But there is a valuable provision in section 42 (2). We recommend that it should be invoked freely to prevent multiplication of schools and to ensure that the location of new schools does not conflict with the plan for new schools drawn up in the light of the school survey. No school can of course be conducted unless it is approved under section 33 (1) (a). But this approval can be withheld only on the ground that the school does not provide adequate and suitable instruction. It will not be difficult for private schools to obtain this approval. They have only to comply with certain minimum requirements as to buildings and premises, hygienic conditions, efficiency of staff and equipment. If a school is put up in a Locality where it is not necessary the Director of Education should warn the promoters of the school at the earliest opportunity that assistance from public funds should not be expected. The question as to the necessity for a new school should be a matter for determination by the Director. Two of the conditions that should be insisted on prior to approving a school should be-(i) that there shall be at least 30 pupils, and (ii) that at least half the staff shall be certificated. We also recommend that before a school is put on the list of grant-in-aid schools it must have already been approved and efficiently maintained for a period of not Less than six months. We have already recommended that approved unaided schools should be allowed to present candidates for the school-leaving examinations. It is therefore necessary that these schools too should come under the supervision of the Department of Education. We recommend that they should be inspected annually, and if it is found that the conditions for approval are not maintained, the approval should be withdrawn.

182. The authority by virtue of which the Department supervises and regulates the affairs of Assisted schools is derived from the power to distribute grants. The conditions under which grant is paid are set out in the Code which consists of regulations passed under section 32 of the Ordinance. Regulations can be made in regard to every aspect of school organization and administration and the penalty for contravention in most cases is reduction or forfeiture of grant. Control of managers is exercised by virtue of the power to appoint and remove them being vested in the Director by section 31. We do not consider that any modification is necessary in the present procedure by which the Department enforces its decisions on such matters as grading and classification of schools, admission and retention of pupils, promotion of pupils, provision of scholarships and free books, and appointment and discipline of teachers by the threat of withholding, reducing or stopping grant. We recommend later a certain special provision to regulate the disciplinary control of teachers. A substantial amendment to the Ordinance we wish to see effected early is the lowering of the age at which compulsory school attendance should begin to five years. While on the subject of compulsory attendance we cannot help reiterating the need to enforce the law strictly. There is now a good deal of apathy on the part of parents in the matter of sending their children to school. Once having sent them to school some are only too anxious to take them out and get them to work for the family. Unfortunately, the exemptions now granted defeat the very object of the law. We recommend that no exemption should be allowed until a child is at least 12 years of age and then only if he has completed the primary course and is beneficially employed. It was suggested that the upper limit for compulsory attendance should be raised to 15 years. We do not think that this is feasible in the present conditions of Ceylon. We recommend that the upper limit for Muslim girls be raised from ten to twelve. We are satisfied that Muslim public opinion will support this measure. Legislative measures will not by themselves achieve much. Compulsory attendance cannot be universally enforced unless we have schools all over the Island within at least two miles, if not one mile, of one another. We suggest that the Government and the local authorities make a bold effort to bridge the gap in certain areas without being deterred by the consideration of a heavy initial outlay. They should not rely much on denominational enterprise as owing to lack of funds establishment of new denominational schools will in future be a slow process. The number of school-going children not attending schools is estimated at about 100,000. To leave them unprovided for any length of time is incompatible with our proposals for a democratic system of education.

183. Pointed attention was drawn in the course of the evidence, particularly by officers of the Inspectorate, to the abuses perpetrated by some managers of Assisted schools. The Ordinance of 1939 introduced an innovation in regard to the procedure for appointing managers. The Ordinance of 1920 provided for the appointment of a manager by the governing body of the school (the proprietor in the present Ordinance) and the acceptance of the appointee by the Director. Under the present Ordinance the appointment is made by the Director on the

recommendation of the proprietor. We understand that the Director normally accepts the proprietor's nomination. The Director is also vested with power to remove unsuitable or peccant managers. In spite of these powers, we are informed, the Director has often found it difficult to "manage" managers, particularly the managers of schools owned by individual proprietors. Sometimes the proprietor himself is the manager. The Director's trouble appears to arise from the provision that gives the right of recommending an appointment to the proprietor. When a bad manager is removed from office the proprietor, acting under the influence of the manager so removed, nominates some person to be manager in name only to enable the previous incumbent of the office to be manager in fact. If a person who is put forward by the proprietor is to all appearances suitable for appointment the Director cannot ordinarily refuse to appoint him. He has no means of assuring himself beforehand that the candidate will shake himself off from the influence of his predecessor and act on his own initiative and judgment in regard to the conduct of the school. If the Director makes an appointment independently of the proprietor or assumes management himself it appears possible in the present state of the law for the proprietor to give trouble by virtue of his unrestricted ownership of the school. We therefore recommend a suitable amendment to the Ordinance to meet these difficulties. If the manager perpetrates any abuse with the knowledge or connivance of the proprietor provision should be made for the proprietor to lose the right to nominate a new manager, and if the Director is satisfied that mismanagement continues under successive managers, in spite of his warnings, he should have power to stop once and for all the payment of grant to the school. It should be further provided that the Executive Committee of Education shall have power, if it confirms the Director's decision, to make a further order vesting the proprietorship of the school, i.e., the right to conduct it, to enter the premises and buildings and take over the school furniture, apparatus, &c., in the Director. Suitable compensation should be paid for the movable property within a reasonable time. The school will become a State School. Steps should also be taken, soon after the Executive Committee makes such an order, for acquiring the land for the Crown under the Land Acquisition Ordinance. The above provisions may be far-reaching, and in recommending them we are influenced by the interests of the school and the children. We believe that the very existence of such provisions will act as a deterrent to managers and proprietors who put their personal interests before those of the children who have been entrusted to them. We consider that a manager of schools should possess certain definite qualifications which will fit him for the responsibilities of the office. We lay down that the appointee should conform to the following requirements: -

(a) he is able to understand the Ordinance, the code, departmental circulars, &c., and to correspond with the Department without the assistance of a third party in one of the three languages, English, Sinhalese or Tamil,

(b) he is of good character and commands the respect and confidence of parents and teachers; (no person who has been convicted of an offence involving moral turpitude shall be appointed to the office).

(c) he, or the proprietor who recommends his appointment, is possessed of property or funds to the extent of at least Rs. 10,000 which should always be available as an outlay for conducting the school.

184. We are by no means satisfied with the present provision for the medical inspection and treatment of children attending schools. We would like to see a considerable expansion in the school medical service. As the vast majority of school going children will be from poor homes one cannot expect the parents to take an effective interest in their health. As a general rule such parents become concerned with their children's health only when they actually fall ill. Besides, an efficient school medical service, administering prophylactic treatment wherever possible, will save the nation a good deal of expense later when the children grow up and take to work. We understand that vaccination and hook-worm treatment are now carried out in most schools and a few schools have dental clinics. We recommend the systematic administration of prophylactic treatment for diseases in respect of which such treatment is compulsory by law. With regard to others in respect of which too medical opinion favors this kind of treatment the advantages of similar treatment should be brought to the notice of parents and their co-operation sought in giving the treatment. We need hardly say that the advantages of the school-medical service as a whole should be publicized. A good deal of responsibility rests on the teacher for educating the parents in this respect. The administration of the school medical service should remain as now with the Medical Department, the School Medical Officer being responsible to the Director of Medical and Sanitary Services. We,

however, think that greater co-operation between the Medical Officer and the teacher is possible. We understand that Medical Officers have not been empowered by law to enter schools and carry out examination of pupils. This position must be remedied early by a suitable amendment to the Ordinance. It is also necessary to secure compliance by Assisted schools with the Medical Officer's suggestions for the health and well-being of the pupils. This duty must be performed by the Department of Education which should be empowered to insist on the school authorities carrying out the suggestions. We also recommend that the School Medical Service should be administered free of cost to the schools or to the pupils.

185. The Code will continue to embody, as comprehensively as possible, the regulations which will form the basis of the authority for the Department of Education of the Central Government or for the local authority to control all aspects of administration in respect of which we have recommended that control is necessary. The present code is by no means lucid or precise being a survival of the departmental non-statutory rules of olden days, with a mass of piecemeal amendment's made from time to time. *If our recommendations are accepted by the State Council, we suggest that immediate steps be taken by the Executive Committee of Education to frame a new Code.* We need hardly say that the allocation of powers and duties should be definite and precise so that no party may be in doubt as to the intention of the regulations. One particular point deserves to be mentioned. We were informed that the character of the payment made from public funds as grant has been left in doubt and that certain parties seek to import in to the grant system a contractual obligation on the part of the Government. We do not agree that this could ever have been the intention of the framers of the Code. It is obvious that the purpose of grant was to supplement the efforts of voluntary agencies in providing education. The fact that grant would, under our proposal for free education, include the full salaries of the school staff should not make any difference to the nature of the payment. We recommend that the correct legal position that grant is a voluntary payment which cannot be claimed as of right should be clearly set out. It was suggested that the averment of this position would cause alarm among Assisted school authorities who might misread into it an intention on the part of the Government to stop or reduce grants arbitrarily. We need hardy point out that such fears are unfounded. The Government's constitutional obligation to provide funds for the maintenance of the social services, of which education is an essential one, is unaffected and stoppage or reduction of grant can be affected only in the event of the diminution of the Government's resources or of the conditions precedent to its payment being violated. Another piece of vague and undefined phraseology that has given rise to dispute is ''educational purposes''. We have already affirmed the principle that all moneys collected in the name of education should be devoted to education. There must be some authority to determine what are educational purposes. We have no hesitation in recommending that this function should be vested in the Director and that there should be a detailed definition of the term in the Code. It will be noticed that the Ordinance vests in the Executive Committee of Education an appellate jurisdiction over decisions taken by the Director in the exercise of his discretion. Since this provision might result in a large volume of routine administrative business being transferred from the Department to the Executive Committee, we suggest that the matters calling for the Committee's intervention be clearly defined by the Committee itself.

186. We now come to the question of the organization of the Department of Education. Proposals for strengthening the Head Office staff were made in 1927. They were considered in connection with the Estimates for 1928-29-vide Sessional Paper 33 of 1928. Some changes in the cadre and designation of posts were affected. The superior staff consisted of, besides the Director and Deputy Director, an Assistant Director (Assisted Schools), an Assistant Director (supply and training of teachers), an Additional Assistant Director (Government Schools), and a Chief Inspector of Schools. In October, 1932, the post of Additional Assistant was abolished. Then in 1935 the designation of Chief Inspector was altered to Assistant Director. Accordingly, the present organization with a Director, Deputy Director and three Assistant Directors came into force with effect from 1935. The control and supervision of Assisted schools is in charge of one Assistant whereas another attends to the administration of training schools, the third being in charge of Government schools. We do not think that any change in the grading or designation of the posts is necessary. We, however, think that the division of work leaves much to be desired. Our recommendations for classification and organization of schools necessitate corresponding changes in the division of supervisory and administrative work in the Head Office. We leave the details of these changes to be worked out by the Executive Committee. We note that the Inspectorate was recently strengthened by the addition of two additional Divisional Inspectors for the two new administrative divisions carved out of the then existing four

divisions. We however understand that the inspecting staff is still inadequate. We need hardly emphasize that unless the work of schools is constantly supervised by competent Inspectors and the teachers given all possible help and guidance any substantial improvement in the standard of education cannot be expected. *We therefore recommend that the staff needs should be carefully assessed and the necessary additional provision made without delay.* At present there are two grades of Divisional Inspectors, two grades of District Inspectors and two grades of Inspectors ordinary. We consider the sub-grades unnecessary and undesirable. If the object is to ensure that too many officers are not on high scales of pay at any one time it could be achieved by lengthening out the period of service in each main grade. In any event, we recommend the abolition of grade II (ordinary Inspector or circuit Inspector as an officer of this main grade is called) as the salary scale is too low to attract teachers of ability and experience. We also wish to make a few observations on the subject of recruitment of personnel to the Inspectorate. At present recruitment to the inspecting service from outside the public service is confined to the lower grades. Appointment to the higher grades is exclusively by promotion. A promotion system like what obtains in other Government departments is no doubt necessary to enable the Administration to reward meritorious service, to secure competent personnel to man posts in the lower grades and to induce greater effort on the part of officers in the lower grades. We do not think that it should be rigidly applied in the Department of Education. This Department should not be deprived of the wealth of educational knowledge and experience which an able and outstanding teacher can bring with him to the service of the Department. Accordingly, we are of opinion that while the promotion system is allowed to continue there should be no hard and fast rule against recruitment to the higher grades of the Inspectorate direct from the teaching profession. We are also of opinion that normally recruits should be trained or honors graduates with at least five years teaching experience and preferably some administrative experience too. Inspectors of the future must be bilingual, i.e., they should have attained a certain standard of proficiency in English and Sinhalese or English and Tamil. It is desirable that they should be trilingual too, meaning, that those whose mother tongue is Sinhalese should have a modicum of knowledge of Tamil and *vice versa*. Knowledge of the third language may, however, be acquired after joining the service. It is also essential that Inspectors should keep abreast of the latest developments in education, and to facilitate this we recommend that refresher courses should be periodically organized for them by the Department.

187. There remains the question of the functions of Inspectors. It is true that the Inspectors of the present day have been obliged to devote a disproportionate part of their time to routine duties and to inquiring into complaints against teachers and managers. The increased work in connection with inquiries is somewhat due to a rather obscure delimitation of their functions. A precise definition of powers and duties must be laid down in the Code and the responsibilities of the Inspector, manager, and teacher more clearly demarcated. But above all the Inspector should not forget that his chief function is educational work which consists of giving guidance to the teacher and offering friendly criticism of his work. We would welcome a further development in co-operative effort between the personnel of both services. As Sir Percy Meadon puts it[12], "for effective functioning it is essential that the administrative and the teaching services should have a common outlook and have the desire to work together in the best interests of the pupils. The aim of administration should be to weave related units into a harmonious system. The Inspector should be a friendly adviser, welcomed by the teachers and carrying from school to school the best ideas''. Although we have stated that curriculum and methods should be left to free development by the teachers there is no reason why the Department should not issue from time to time suggestions on these matters to the teachers. It should be the duty of the Director to Co-ordinate such problems with the help of his Assistants and in the light of the experience gained by his Inspectors and prepare suggestions that will be of common application. With a view to enable some Inspectors to devote their whole time to educational work it was suggested that the Inspectorate should be divided into two sections-administrative and educational. We do not favour this as such a division will give rise to other difficulties. The arrangements we propose will however achieve the same object, namely, of relieving the Inspectors generally of a large part of the routine work which they now do. We suggest that the collection and checking of school returns and all other work connected with the application of the checks necessary to ensure that the large sums paid out as grant are

[12] Modern trends in education of the New Education Fellowship Conference 1937-p63

accounted for should be entrusted to trained accounts clerks who may either attend to them on the annual inspection day or visit the school for the purpose independently of the Inspector. The Divisional Inspector now devotes the greater part of his time to administrative and. office work. To relieve him of office work and assist him in his administrative duties we recommend the appointment of a headquarter Assistant of the rank of District Inspector. The Divisional Inspector will then be able to devote the greater part of his time to visiting schools and inspecting their work and meeting teachers at conferences, refresher courses, &c. Whenever he is in office his headquarter Assistant should go out to do educational work. We also suggest that the circuit Inspectors should give their whole time to educational work. We consider that every school should receive at least two visits "during a year from an Inspector. Work connected with inquiries should be done by the Divisional Inspector or the District Inspectors. If necessary, the number of District Inspectors should be strengthened for this purpose.

EXAMINATIONS, EDUCATIONAL EXPERIMENTS AND RESEARCH.

188. The minimum number of examinations necessary in the new school system has already been stated in earlier chapters. Apart from the Vth standard and the VIIIth standard tests which are essentially fitness tests the important examination with which the Department is concerned is the Senior School Certificate examination which is the school leaving examination for the pupils of the senior and secondary schools. There is also the training college final examination. These examinations will be administered by the Department but for framing their schemes and for generally organizing them *we recommend the constitution of a Central Examination Board.* The Department has also been entrusted by Government with the duty of organizing several open competitive examinations for entry into the Public Service. We suggest that these examinations too should come within the jurisdiction of this Board. School examinations framed locally have suffered in the past for want of easily ascertainable standards and probably from an imperfect relation to the teaching in schools. These defects, we are of opinion, can be effectively remedied by bringing examinations under the control and supervision of a Board of this type consisting mainly of teachers. The Higher School, Certificate examination will be organized and controlled, as already stated earlier, by a Joint Board of representatives of the University and this Central Examination board. We consider that the Examination Board should have weightage in the Joint Board as domination by the University is undesirable.

189. The Central Examination Board will consist of the Director as Chairman and about ten other members. There will be one representative of the University and at least one representative of the training colleges. The remaining members will be chosen from the teaching profession and from the Department-teachers' representation being predominant. The selection of members should be so made as to ensure the presence on the Board of a specialist in each of the more important school subjects. The appointment of members will be made by the Minister for Education and be valid for a period of three years. We consider that members I should be paid a reasonable fee for attendance at meetings.

190. The Board will exercise executive authority subject to the revisionary powers of the Executive Committee. It will frame schemes for examinations, prescribe syllabuses and text-books for examinations and will draw up a panel of examiners for the various subjects. It will decide all general questions relating to standard of examinations, moderation of question papers, marking and assessment of scripts. The members of the Board will themselves be examiners. The member who is a specialist in a subject will be the chairman of the Board of Moderator§ for that subject. This will establish a link between the Board and the examiners. The Board will also have power to recommend the scale of fees to be charged for examinations. At present a considerable sum of money is annually credited to General Revenue as examination fees. We consider that all such fees should be funded separately and all expenditure connected with examinations including payment of fees to members of the Board and examiners should be met from the fund. The fund is bound to be self-supporting, and if there is a big accumulation after a period, it may be appropriated to Revenue. The main point is that there should be no stinting of expenditure on the administration of examinations. Organizing and conducting examinations is very responsible

work that has to be done under strictly confidential conditions. We should therefore also like to see that the Examination Branch of the Department is strengthened by the addition of some superior staff.

191. The future training colleges, it has already been stated, will also be centres of educational research. We are of opinion that educational experiments should also be fostered in our schools. Both individual teachers and organized bodies should be encouraged to carry out experiments. There should be some central authority to give advice and guidance to experimenters and research workers, and to co-ordinate their work. *For this purpose, we recommend the constitution of a council of Educational Research*. The Council should be annually provided with funds to assist experiments and research carried out under its direction or with its cognizance. It will remain responsible to the Minister for Education for the administration of the funds. It should also establish a bureau of information on all educational matters. It should keep in touch with the progress of educational research in other countries, collect results of researches and publish them periodically. We leave the details of the composition of the Council to be evolved and settled by a joint committee of the University Authorities and the Department.

CERTIFIED AND APPROVED SCHOOLS.

192. The Children and Young Persons Ordinance, No. 48 of 1939, provides for the establishment of certified schools for child and juvenile offenders and for sending such offenders to denominational schools duly approved. We understand that it has now been decided that these schools should be administered by the Department of Education under the general direction and control of the Executive Committee of Education. The Ordinance is shortly to be amended to give effect to this decision. The Executive Committee of Education has pointed out the necessity to incorporate a Conscience Clause to apply to the religious instruction of children sent to approved schools. We are in agreement with the view of the Executive Committee that such provision is necessary. Certified schools will be State schools conducted solely for child and juvenile offenders. We support the decision of the Executive Committee of Education that at least a few certified schools should be established before the provision relating to approved schools is enforced. There is another Ordinance passed recently which concerns the Department of Education, i.e., the Orphanages Ordinance, No. 22 of 1941. We believe that the intention is to entrust its administration to the Revenue Officers under the general direction of the Executive Committee of Home Affairs. But the Department of Education will have to carry out certain responsibilities with regard to the education of the orphans in registered orphanages. We recommend that it should be made a condition of grant to orphanages that the authorities in charge make adequate provision for the schooling of the orphans under their care.

APPOINTMENT AND DISCIPLINARY CONTROL OF TEACHERS.

193. Finally there remains the question of the appointment, dismissal and disciplinary control of teachers of Assisted schools. This is one of the most agitated questions of the day. We have accordingly given it most anxious and prolonged consideration after consulting the better organized teachers' associations. The view-point of the Assisted school managers was clearly brought out in the course of the evidence given on behalf of the denominational authorities. On the ground of their sole responsibility for the welfare of their schools they claim absolute right to determine the conditions of tenure of teachers. Many problems of teachers' tenure are peculiar to Ceylon and arise from the dual control of education under the denominational system. We do not propose to trace their historical development for fear that this chapter might be unduly long. Our attention has been drawn to the necessity to (i.) ensure an efficient and contented teaching profession, and (ii.) ensure sound discipline in the schools. We wish to emphasize that no profession has a greater importance to civilization than that of the teacher and accordingly the State has a double obligation to him-(i.) its ordinary obligation to ensure to him security of conditions of service as a worker in the body politic, and (ii.) a special obligation to keep him happy and contented so that he may devote himself whole heartedly to the great nation-building work which teaching admittedly is. It has been asked why the State should not let the teacher depend on his rights at common law just as other workers

do, or for that matter, why he should not protect himself through Trade Unionism. For one thing dismissals of teachers in Assisted school service have been very frequent; and then again, as the State foots the bill or a least the greater part, the right of the State to intervene cannot be disputed. Public funds connote public control. In any event, in these days when so much discussion is centering round social security and the Beveridge Plan, the question that has to be answered is-why should the State not intervene with some comprehensive legislation to assure security of work and tenure to all wage-earners? Why should civil servants alone enjoy the much coveted 'permanent' tenure and pensions and other privileges and not others? In fact the phenomenon of teachers becoming converts to State education merely to assure themselves of security of tenure is not uncommon. The principle we have adopted in making the following proposals is that teachers should have guarantee of security of tenure and other conditions of service in return for their giving of their best to education loyally and wholeheartedly.

194. We do not consider any change necessary in the present procedure for appointing teachers. It was suggested that the manager should be given only the right to recommend an appointment to the Director and that while so recommending he should forward the applications received far the post in question and give his reasons for preferring the candidate recommended. We do not agree that the Manager's power should be so drastically curtailed. He will remain the appointing authority subject of course to the direction of the proprietor and the regulation of the Code. The Director will, however, be allowed to retain his power of disapproving an appointment on educational and financial considerations. The Director's decision should be enforced by the threat of withholding a part or the whole of the grant. We find that teachers as a body are opposed to a written agreement defining the conditions of tenure. The chief reason appears to be their fear that managers might extort unconscionable terms from them. The most satisfactory and acceptable course appears to us to be to regulate the rights and liabilities of teachers and managers by a special law. *We recommend that an ordinance intituled "The Assisted School Teachers' Tenure Ordinance" be passed with the following main provisions-*

(i.) Appointment to be governed by conditions given in a Schedule to the Ordinance.

(ii.) Every appointment to be valid for purposes of grant to receive the prior approval of the Director, such approval not being withheld except on grounds of qualification, efficiency, or character or on financial grounds set out in the Code.

(iii.) If a teacher's discontinuance is disapproved by the Director the teacher to be either reinstated or paid sum equal to a year's salary as compensation.

(iv.) The following conditions for discontinuance to be clearly set out: -

(a) breach of the terms of appointment, (b)misconduct, (c) general inefficiency, (d) physical or mental infirmity.

We also recommend that the same law should constitute an Arbitration Board which will adjudicate on appeals from the Manager or the teacher from the decision of the Director. This Board may confirm or reverse the order of the Director without prejudice to anything already done. It may also make an order as to costs. It will not take any evidence but proceed to adjudicate on the written evidence and other material placed before it by the Director. The parties may argue their case in person or by pleader. An order for compensation or costs made by the Board should he made to operate, when filed in the District Court, as a decree in a civil suit. On points of law or where fraud is alleged an appeal to the District Court should he provided, the decision of the District Court being final and conclusive. We envisage a permanent Board and leave the details of its constitution to be worked out by the Executive Committee of Education.

195. We also give some of the essential conditions of appointment which were suggested to us by the All-Ceylon Union of Teachers and accepted by us with certain modifications. They are as follows: -

(i.) The appointment of a teacher to any school may be on probation for a period of one year.

(ii.) A teacher shall not be required to perform any duties except such as are connected with the work of teaching or other activities of the school or to abstain outside school hours from any activities which do not interfere with the due performance of his duties and well-being of the school. The extent to which managers may add to the conditions of service should be laid down by regulations.

(iii.) Transfers should be subject to the approval of the Director,

(iv.) The Director shall exact one or more of the following penalties if a manager fails to abide by a lawful ruling made by him on the subject of the conditions of service:-

(a) reduction or stoppage of grant

(b) removal of manager from office

(c) provisional assumption of management.

We recommend that the above conditions should go into the schedule to the Ordinance referred to.

CHAPTER XV.

MISCELLANEOUS.

The University of Ceylon.

196. The University of Ceylon has been established with the Faculties of Oriental Studies, Arts, Science and Medicine. It has power to establish new Faculties and special provision has been made for the creation in due course of a Teachers' Training Department. This Department will be organized to train graduates only. This development will have immediate effects upon the school system. The Executive Committee of Education has decided to discontinue the local examinations for the London Matriculation and the Cambridge Senior school Certificate after June, 1943. Exemption from the London Matriculation will thereafter be secured by those who pass the local Senior School Certificate examination subject to conditions approved by the University of London. We express the hope that schools will not allow their curricula to be guided by the requirements of the comparatively few students who will need exemption from the London Matriculation-intending medical students and the few students who propose to study for degrees in Engineering at the Ceylon Technical College. If they do, one of the great advantages of the reform, the ability of the schools to provide their students with courses which suit Ceylon conditions, will be lost-

197. The establishment of the University of Ceylon will not in itself effect a complete break with the domination of London degrees. There is nothing in the University Ordinance to prevent the conferment of London external degrees in Ceylon. On the other hand, it is not the practice of the University of London to hold its examinations in a territory except on the express request of the Government of that territory. The responsibility for abolishing or maintaining the conferment of London External degrees in Ceylon is thus visited in the Executive Committee of Education. The Executive Committee has decided to permit the continuance of London examinations until the Ceylon University is in a position to provide adequate facilities for all students capable of benefiting from University education. With the development of the Ceylon University it should be possible to bring the external system to an end at an early date. In any event, we are not in favour of courses for the London Intermediate examinations in secondary schools being subsidized by Government. But there are now a number of schools which provide such courses and which receive grant in respect of this work. The decision to pay grant for Intermediate courses in these schools was taken in 1940 by the Executive Committee of Education with the approval of the State Council as admissions to the University College had to be restricted owing to lack of accommodation. The Executive Committee then laid down that the Intermediate courses should be subsidized till 1946 only. It has refused the applications made in May, 1942, of certain schools for grant or these courses. We agree that in the

conditions then prevailing the decision of the Executive Committee was justified, but trust that payment of grant or Intermediate courses in secondary schools will be discontinued as from 1946. The question was raised whether all secondary schools should be permitted to organize courses for the Higher School Certificate and the University Entrance examination. *We recommend that only such schools as are approved by the Director having regard to their staff and equipment should be permitted to prepare students for these two examinations.*

CO-EDUCATION

198. Although we have a large number of primary schools and a lesser number of Sinhalese and Tamil post-primary schools which are co-educational, the subject of co-education has never been seriously considered and no definite policy developed. A few secondary English boys' schools have recently been admitting a few girls but they cannot be considered to be co-educational schools. What is now required to enable a boys' school to admit girl pupils is the *pro forma* registration of the school as a mixed school. Such registration is allowed subject to certain conditions. The present school system has however been organized on the basis of separate schools for boys and girls with appropriate curricular differentiation. In the case of the mixed Sinhalese and Tamil schools it does not appear that any systematic curricular provision has been planned to meet the needs of girls beyond the inclusion of subjects like needlework and housecraft. In particular, in regard to such matters as physical education and extra-curricular activities girls in mixed, schools have suffered.

199. In the West, particularly in the democratic countries, sex equality in education is accepted as an inevitable consequence of the complete emancipation or women and the conferment on them by legal and administrative processes of equal rights with men. For many, co-education is the normal development of this concept, and should therefore be increasingly adopted. The Americans believe in co-education from the kindergarten to the University. To them educational considerations furnish the strongest argument in its favour. The following excerpt from a speech by Dr. F. W. Hart, Professor of Education, University of California, clearly explains this point of view: -'' Education is a process of social adjustment and personal development, and you cannot achieve that with boys herded together in one school and girls herded together in another until they reach maturity. “We are, however, as at present advised, not prepared to recommend its universal adoption in Ceylon. We refrain from making any specific recommendation as to the stages where co-education is desirable beyond expressing the view that the vast majority of primary schools might be co-educational. Even in regard to primary schools the views of certain sections of the population, e.g., 6-T. N. A 93096 (11/49) the Muslim community, have to be taken into account. But we have no objection to the present practice of admitting boys under 9 years of age to girl’s schools. There is no reason why girls under 9 should not similarly admitted to boys' schools. With regard to post-primary schools we would leave it to the school authorities to decide whether any school should be co - educational or not. We have no doubt that they will give due consideration to the customs and views of the people of the locality and to public opinion in general. We would, however, like to see that the needs of girls-curricular and extracurricular -in co-educational schools are given proper attention. To ensure this the Department should have power to disapprove of a school being conducted on a co- educational basis unless certain essential conditions are satisfied. The Director should, before registering a school as a mixed school, see that adequate provision has been made for the education of pupils of both sexes. We also suggest that the following rules should be observed with regard to the staffing of co-educational schools: -

(i.) The head teacher of a mixed primary school shall be a man but in special cases a woman may be appointed with the permission of the Director.

(ii.) The head teacher of a mixed post-primary school shall be a man, but the chief Assistant shall be a woman.

(iii.) The number of Women teachers in a mixed post-primary school shall be proportionate to the number of girls on the roll provided there shall be at least woman teacher.

We realize that it will not always be possible to comply with rule (iii.) owing to the present dearth of women teacher's and the operation of the denominational system. In the event of such circumstances arising the rule will have to be considerably relaxed; but the point we want to emphasize is that in a mixed school girls will not feel quite at home unless there are a sufficient number of teachers of their sex to whom they can bring their troubles

and explain their needs and who alone can understand their peculiar difficulties. The above rules are in accord with a recent decision of the Executive Committee of Education on the subject of the staffing of boys', girls' and mixed schools. The Executive Committee has also decided that the staff of the post-primary department of a boys' school and of a boys' school which has post-primary classes alone shall normally consist of men teachers; similarly, the staff of a girls' school shall normally consist of women teachers; the head teacher of a post-primary boys' school shall be a man and similarly that of girls' school a woman. We concur in these decisions.

ADULT EDUCATION.

200. That education does not end at school is one of the platitudes that have constantly to be repeated. School education merely provides the foundation upon which further education can be based. Such further education can be provided on a full-time basis only for a few; and if it is to be made generally accessible to the people it must be provided on a part-time basis. We do not suggest that the full-scale training of a University or a technical college can be provided by means of evening lectures; nevertheless, a vast amount of extremely valuable and indeed essential work can be done by means of adult education. It is particularly necessary in Ceylon because the spread of education among all sections of the population is such a recent development. The majority of the older generation is quite illiterate, and even of the younger generation a high proportion has had no education at all and another section failed to complete the education which the schools provide. Nor should the education be wholly of the technological type. Nearly every country provides facilities for acquiring technical knowledge in evening classes; but general education of the type provided by the Workers' Educational Association in England and the extension classes of the Universities in Great be of a more elementary type and begin with teaching to read and write the languages of the people. For those who have these accomplishments already the teaching of English should be particularly valuable.

201. Except for a few experiments by voluntary bodies and by the Department of Education there is hardly any adult education provided in Ceylon. We do not propose to recommend a detailed scheme. It appears to us that the requirements lie in three planes. First, there is the elementary education of the kind given in primary schools, the very elementary Schooling which is required for the illiterate and the semi-illiterate. This must clearly be given in Sinhalese and Tamil, and it must mainly be provided by the Department of Education. We also hope that the Sangha or other religious bodies may be encouraged to take part in the movement for adult education in their respective areas. Adult education in the second plane consists of the provision of technical training of the character given in the agricultural and trade schools. In the towns it can be provided in the technical schools, but it is equally necessary, if not more necessary, in the villages, and we presume that travelling teachers, working from convenient centres, must be employed. Finally, there is the higher plane on which adult education similar to that given by the University extension system elsewhere can be given. It is found elsewhere that politics, economics, literature, art and music are most in demand; but this experience would not necessarily be repeated in Ceylon. The teaching of the elements of politics and economics is extremely valuable in developing an educated democracy. It has, however, obvious political dangers, and must clearly be dissociated from even a semblance of propaganda. It would be a catastrophe if it could be alleged that it was being used for the advantage of a particular party or group. Accordingly, it should be in the hands of the University or of some body in which the representation of the University is substantial. The teaching should not be wholly, or even in large measure, in English. Nor should it take the form of the occasional lecture from a distinguished speaker. Such lectures are valuable, both in stimulating interest in the locality and in giving the lecturers a knowledge of their own country. Nevertheless, it is the general experience (fortified, for instance, by the latest report of the Extension Department of the University of British Columbia) that courses of lectures are far more valuable educationally than the casual lecture, no matter how eminent the lecturer.

VOLUNTARY CONTRIBUTIONS BY ASSISTED SCHOOL TEACHERS.

202. Among the abuses that have largely discredited the school system in Ceylon is the practice of the so-called ''voluntary contributions'' from school teachers-when the contribution is in fact a forced levy. This vexed

question was remitted to us by the Executive Committee of Education and we have been asked to suggest suitable remedial measures. This peculiar terminology-voluntary contribution-would perhaps convey nothing sinister to the ordinary reader; for do not many people contribute to church, temple, charity, carnival and the war? Contributions of this description are often genuinely voluntary and spring from beneficence of philanthropy-those estimable facets of human nature on which the permanence of many social institutions depends. But most teachers and managers understand only too well what voluntary contribution from teachers means. For the sake of brevity, we do not propose to trace the historical development of this practice. Even before the teachers' salaries came into force teachers made small contributions to Church and Mission funds. The salaries' scheme effected a considerable improvement in the scale of remuneration of teachers, particularly, teachers of the Sinhalese and Tamil schools. About this period denominational rivalry in education also became more pronounced as indigenous organizations put forth greater efforts in the field of education. Their work was very often handicapped for lack of adequate funds for financing existing schools and establishing new schools. They had therefore to depend on the charity of the local public and teachers being employees of the Managers were found to be the easiest victims. Often, when one Manager appealed to his teachers for financial help to maintain an existing school or put up a new one it was impossible for another manager not to do the same as otherwise his schools would have to face unfair competition. We are satisfied that this unconscionable practice of mulcting the poor teacher of a part of his salary which he can ill afford to give away is rather widespread. Although the evil prevails mostly in the schools under individual proprietorship there are offenders among managers of Society-controlled schools too.

203. It is interesting to examine the purposes for which contributions are exacted from school teachers. They are: -

(a) for the manager 's own private use,
(b) for putting up extensions to school buildings or new school buildings,
(c) for defraying the cost of maintenance of school buildings and cost of equipment,
(d) for the expenses of extra-curricular activities,
(e) for meeting the salary of excess teachers-those in respect of whom no grant is paid,
(f) for the church or temple or other charitable institution.

The exaction of a contribution for purpose (a) is the most reprehensible. Wherever such a practice is prevalent the school is considered as a profitable concern yielding the manager an unearned income. The manager or the proprietor finds appeasement of conscience in the fact that he has to recoup the initial expenditure he incurred on the school. Purposes (b)-(d) are educational purposes and are not altogether undesirable if a teacher can afford to support them. There is no reason why teachers as members of the general public should not give their mite to the school. But we are satisfied that it is not a mite that is asked of them but that month after month many teachers are called upon to pay a fixed percentage of their salaries and that they can do so only at great sacrifice to themselves and their families. If they show any unwillingness to contribute, or to continue a contribution which they willingly undertook to pay at the commencement of employment, they are faced with the threat of discontinuance. The supporters of this contribution system often cite the practice of celibate teachers belonging to Holy Orders giving back the greater part of their salaries to their Mission or their school. Such contributions do not cause hardship to these clerical teachers and there is little doubt as to their being genuinely voluntary. It is perhaps true that schools receiving such benefits can ''undercut'' their rivals. We do not think that this question of competition between schools for more attendance is relevant to the issue before us, namely whether Government should not step in to prevent the victimization of teachers. If appointments, dismissals and disciplinary control of teachers in Assisted schools were absolutely in the hands of Government the question of victimization would not arise. We have therefore to devise other measures of protection for the teacher. We must not fail to mention the other side of the also, i.e., the victimization of managers by teachers. But this is much less prevalent than the victimization of teachers by managers. It is not altogether uncommon for a teacher dismissed for good reasons to allege falsely that the cause of dismissal was failure on his part to propitiate the manager with a contribution.

204. The evil of voluntary contributions is widespread in the present-day free schools. As all schools will be made free in the future in accordance with our recommendation in Chapter XIII. It is necessary that proper safeguards should be devised to protect the teachers from this evil. There are cases where the contribution is obviously compulsory and there are also cases where it is not so. In regard to obviously compulsory contributions we recommend that the Department should strictly enforce the following rule: - "No forced or compulsory contribution from teachers' salaries shall be demanded or received by the proprietor, manager or head master of a school either directly or indirectly for the benefit of the school or for any purpose whatsoever''. The sanction for the breach of this rule will be the assumption of management by the Department. It should be applied as soon as the Department becomes aware of, and is satisfied, on investigation, that the rule has been contravened. If assumption of management is found to be impossible owing to obstruction by the manager or the proprietor action should be taken to obtain control of the school for the Government on the lines suggested by us in paragraph 183 of Chapter XIV. In regard to contributions which are of a lesser degree of culpability we suggest a different procedure. We consider that certain responsibilities in this connection should be vested on the Teachers' Associations. The teachers of the present-day English schools are fairly well organized and we are of opinion that the teachers of the present-day free schools, who really form the majority, should be helped to organize themselves in the same manner. When teachers as a whole have organized themselves in to a strong body, they should be entrusted with the duty of determining what an undesirable contribution is and should be empowered to protect their fellows from being victimized. We suggest compulsory membership of Teachers' Associations which of course will have to recognized by the Director. No person who is not a member of a recognized association will be registered as a teacher-teachers belonging to celibate religious orders being exempted at their option. When a teacher desires to make a contribution to his school or for any other purpose he will report the fact to his association and his manager will simultaneously make a report to the Director. The Association will inform the Director promptly whether they consider the contribution a desirable or undesirable one. If the Association sees no objection to the contribution no further action will be taken. If, however, it decides that the contribution is an undesirable one. If the Association sees no objection to the contribution no further action will be taken. If, however, it decides that the contribution is an undesirable one it will direct the teacher to stop it and request the manager not to receive it. A teacher disobeying such a direction will be liable to be removed from the register of teachers and to have his certificate suspended or cancelled. The Association will conduct the case of a victimized teacher before the Arbitration Board. If a teacher desires to stop a contribution he has been making regularly he will do so after giving notice to the manager and inform the Association of the fact. If the manager demands that the contribution shall be continued the teacher shall notify the Association which will take up the matter with the manager. Teachers belonging to celibate religious orders may keep out of the scheme of compulsory membership of Teachers' Associations, but if they come in, the same procedure will apply to contributions made by them from their salaries. We concede that all this procedure is a little involved, and do not pretend that it provides a teacher with absolute protection from the manager's harassment. So long as the relationship between the manager and the teacher is that of employer and employee absolute protection for the teacher is impossible. But with the assistance of the Department it should be possible to make the influence of Teachers' Associations left. Only actual working will show up the deficiencies of the remedy we have suggested. In course of time Teachers' Associations are bound to acquire respect in the eyes of managers and the public and a system of "black-listing" peccant managers might be evolved.

THE CONTENT OF EDUCATION.

CHAPITER XVI.

THE SUBJECTS OF STUDY.

Section 1. - Personal and Public Health.

205. The schools are necessarily concerned with the health of their pupils because the academic education which they provide will be largely ineffective unless the pupils are physically capable of receiving it. Their obligation is, however, much wider than that. They are engaged in training the mothers and the fathers of the next generation, the citizens of tomorrow; and unless they give their assistance towards producing a healthy generation and, moreover, a generation capable of rearing its successor in healthy surroundings and according to the principles of public health the quality of the nation will not improve and may in fact deteriorate.

206. Without the help of the schools the work of the Department of Medical and Sanitary Services cannot be fully effective. The control of the environment and the prevention of the spread of communicable disease are no doubt essential functions of the State. The elimination of nuisances, the sanitary disposal of human excreta, the construction of drains, the protection of water supplies, and the destruction of insects and their breeding places have made the world a cleaner, a safer and a happier place in which to live. Similarly, the control of the major communicable diseases like small-pox, plague and cholera, and of the other communicable diseases like typhoid fever, dysentery, measles, chicken-pox and mumps, has enormously reduced their incidence. Nevertheless, modern public health work would be incomplete if it were concerned with these functions only.

207. The significance of personal hygiene is best illustrated by maternity and child welfare work. The control of the environment and the suppression of communicable diseases would have an indirect bearing on the health of the expectant mother and the unborn child. If this work is to be effective, however, the individual mother must receive close and persistent attention. Above all, the mother herself and those attendant on her must know what to do and what not to do. Accordingly, it is essential that every prospective mother should have a training in the elements of public health. Ante-natal care can be given, and is given, by means of clinics and by trained nurses and midwives; but there are parts of the Island where full use is not made of these facilities and, even where full use is made, the personal attention of the mother to her own health is essential. Equally important is the first year of the child's life, the period of greatest danger when the strictest observance of the rules of public health is required. The period that follows infancy and before the school age is in the physical sense not quite so important. The physical development of the body during that period is not so great, nor is the danger to life so considerable, as in infancy. Nevertheless, it is the period during which the mental faculties are developing most rapidly, and the inculcation of good habits must in particular be aimed at during this period. By force of circumstances the pre-school age has become the neglected age. In many households the mother has little time to devote to the toddler who may be left in large measure to his own devices because of the demands of an infant on the one hand and of school children on the other. It is therefore very necessary that the mother and the older children should be aware of their responsibilities, and should know the dangers of an unhealthy environment and the consequences of the inculcation of bad habits.

208. These considerations supply convincing reasons for the training of the girls in our schools in the elements of mother craft. Nevertheless, the care of the children actually at school is fundamentally important, and they should be taught in large measure to care for themselves. The medical examination of school children has revealed many remediable defects whose early correction would be one of the surest ways of guaranteeing a healthy adult life. In spite of the efforts of the Medical and Education Departments the interest shown by parents in getting the defects remedied is often disappointing. The explanation no doubt lies in the inadequate health education of preceding generations, and it is an essential function of the schools to make sure that the next generation is better informed. Much can be done with the present generation of parents, however, if teachers realize that, failing other assistance, the effort of persuasion must fall upon them. Possibly, also, the parents still consider that the sole function of the schools is to teach reading, writing and arithmetic. If that is so, one of the tasks of the teachers must be to correct this impression. Health education is fundamental. It is necessary for the mental training of the individual child; it is necessary for the training of the child as a citizen; and it is necessary if he is to be a success in his career. It is, indeed, the fundamental part of the school curriculum.

209. A large part of health training will be concerned with personal habits. A daily inspection will establish a standard of cleanliness; insistence upon the use of handkerchiefs and of individual drinking cups will gradually establish healthy behavior; the correction of faults and the marking of health habit training books will enable the child to understand what is expected of him; frequent weighing and measuring will teach him to study his own

physical development. This is a part of health training only, because the child must also be taught to pay attention to his environment. It would be hypocrisy to try to teach the child principles which the poverty of his parents makes it impossible for him to obey. Much malnutrition and many diseases arise from poverty alone, and nothing that the schools con do by instruction in hygiene can remove them. Nevertheless, not all malnutrition arises from poverty. There is a great deal of it even in countries where the standard of living is high and even in comparatively wealthy families. The school must adapt its teaching to its environment and to the circumstances of its pupils, but within those limits it can teach the principles of a balanced dietary. Also, though poverty may be the fundamental cause of the spread of some of the commoner diseases, they would be less dangerous and less virulent if thought were taken by the people. Some of the cleanest homes are to be found m the slums, and generally the cleanliness of the environment depends more on the character of the individual than upon his wealth. Along these lines much can be done even in the poorest quarters of the towns and in the most poverty-stricken villages. The teacher should not be appalled by the formidable nature of his task in such an environment. The greater the difficulty, the greater is the need.

210. The success of the schools in these directions during the past decade is evident. It has, however, varied according to the keenness of the teachers and the extent to which they have identified themselves with the lives of the people around them. In many of the rural schools they have succeeded almost in transforming the villages, because the villagers themselves are anxious to help once they understand why and how. It is unnecessary for us to indicate the methods to be adopted. A comprehensive programme of work has been drawn up in collaboration with the Department of Medical and Sanitary Services and is being used in many of the schools. We need do no more than commend it to those schools which have not yet adopted it.

Section 2. - Manual Training.

211. Neither "manual training" nor "handwork" is a very satisfactory expression. Both give the impression that the training of the hand is the ultimate aim of introducing the subject into the curriculum. The training of the hand is, however, merely the means to an end, the general mental development of the child. Throughout life, mind and body react upon each other, and a training that concentrates exclusively on "academic" subjects produces partial and one-sided development. Both terms tend also to give the impression of menial and derogatory tasks. Even if the assumption that manual labor is degrading were correct, it would be sufficient to point out that some of the highest forms of civilized activity, such as painting, sculpture and architecture, demand the acquisition of a high standard of technical skill. Indeed, there is much to be said for the view that manual training should not be designated as a separate subject, but should be regarded essentially as a process in education through the acquisition of techniques required for other "subjects" like art, natural science, and agriculture.

212. The advantages of manual training are twofold. First, it enables the student to obtain an all-round development, in which hand, eye, and brain are coordinated to make a human instrument as perfect as human skill, can make it. Secondly, it is a means of self-expression and therefore of self-development. It is no disadvantage that in the process the child will obtain an accomplishment which may, and probably will, be useful to him throughout his life, whether as employee or householder, and whether as artist or manual worker. In a country where public opinion tends to assume that manual skill should be left to those of the lowest social status and the smallest incomes, however, it needs to be emphasized that this is an incidental advantage, and that every child should receive training in handwork whatever be the future that is planned for him. It is necessary to make him an educated citizen. It will make him in many ways more alert, more observant, more responsive, and generally more retentive.

213. This being the general purpose, it is obvious that the nature of the medium to be employed is at very important. The aim should be to secure the broadest possible development and to stimulate the widest possible interest. With this object as many media as possible should be used. Variety gives scope for more students to

discover an interest, enables techniques of many kinds to be developed, and permits each pupil to find the medium in which he can express himself most easily. For girls needlework is not merely a necessary accomplishment but also an accomplishment whose importance will be impressed upon them by their environment and which they can develop for themselves in the company of their female relatives. It will be found, however, that many of them will discover an interest in other forms of handwork, involving the use of such media as paper, cardboard, raffia, cadjan, clay, coir, and the rest. The cottage industries of the Island provide forms of handwork which are often carried out by women and which provide very suitable means of self-expression. Moreover, it is possible to impress on them that perhaps the highest form of art consists in the making of ordinary domestic articles which are things not merely of utility but also of beauty. If this is done, the suggestion that such tasks are menial will soon disappear, particularly when it is realized that in other countries sculpture, for instance, is an art which specially appeals to women and in which women generally excel. Many of these media are also suitable for boys, especially the younger boys who have not yet reached the stage where they become eager to use complicated tools and for find out how mechanical instruments work. For older boys, however, wood and metal will be the most convenient media. A school which has not a workshop, or a compound in which handwork of various kinds can be undertaken, is only partially equipped, and a boy who has not tried to make things for himself and to bake apart things made by others has not only missed a large part of his normal development but also has lost the pleasure of the hobbies which boys in many parts of the world find so attractive.

214. When the boy begins work in wood and metal the girl should begin the study-if that is the right word-of domestic or home science. Cooking and mother craft are the most important branches, and they should be introduced in close connection with the study of hygiene. Like all forms of handwork, the process required is not one of formal instruction but of demonstration and practice. In most well-equipped schools in other countries, kitchens and model creches are part of the normal equipment. There is a considerable difference between being told how to cook and actually cooking, and between being told how to look after babies and actually practicing on dolls.

215. Nor should it be forgotten that the national industry provides excellent means of instruction in handwork. Several of the larger schools are already providing themselves with farms, and there is no reason why girls' schools should not follow suit by providing themselves with model dairies and poultry farms. Here the handwork is closely connected with branches of natural science, and especially with the composite subject which is usually described as rural science. The experiments conducted in this field in Ceylon during the past few years have been among the most encouraging aspects of educational development. It needs to be emphasized, as indeed many schools already recognize, that the development of an interest in agriculture should not be limited to the practical schools. In fact, the need arises not so much because agriculture is the national industry and more educated persons ought to take to it, but because it is an excellent means of general education adapted to the environment of the country.

216. The essential problem is that of equipment. In the primary schools and the lower classes of the other schools the need is primarily for material. Much of it can, however, be obtained locally. There is a tendency to follow too closely the English models and to use the materials which are suitable for English conditions. Actually, the coconut and the palmyra provide most of the material that is required for handwork in schools, and the model should be not the handicrafts of eighteenth-century England but the cottage industries of twentieth century Ceylon. What is needed is that the technique of instruction in the forms of handwork appropriate to the products of the Island should be developed.

217. In the upper classes of the practical, senior and secondary schools, however, more extensive equipment is required. There should be no stint in providing it. So, long as our girls' schools have no kitchens, creches and perhaps, spinning and weaving equipment, and so long as our boys' schools have no workshops, they cannot be said to be properly equipped. It may be that central manual training centres may have to be provided in the towns. This is the practice in England, where several boys' schools make use of a common manual training Centre. In deed the great development in manual instruction which began after 1902 would not have been possible if it had been necessary to provide each school with its own workshop and its own manual training instructor. The difficulty of persuading the various types of schools to collaborate, wherever it exists, may be overcome by the State providing the manual training centres.

218. Manual training will not be successful unless it is carried out by properly trained teachers. They should be teachers trained in crafts, though it is sometimes possible (as it was in England after 1902) to train craftsmen to teach. Training in handicrafts should be a normal part of training, but the more advanced instruction can effectively be given only by a specialist. By this is meant not that he should have given specialized study to one kind of craft but that he should have studied several crafts and be almost equally expert at them all. The wider his experience the better teacher he will be.

219. The distribution of handicrafts among the schools will of course depend essentially on the environment. It would be impossible for us to suggest suitable crafts for each type of school. It is obvious, however, that more emphasis should be placed upon rural crafts in the rural schools and upon the more mechanical crafts in the towns. The different types of school, too, will have a different emphasis. Crafts connected with agriculture will play the most important part in the practical schools, and crafts connected with industry in the senior schools. Nevertheless, the importance of handwork needs to be stressed in the secondary schools as much as in the others; nor can we express anything but approval of the decision of some of the larger secondary schools to establish their own farms.

Section 3.-Music and Art.

220. The development of music, both vocal and instrumental, is an essential need for Ceylon. For the development of vocal music there is ample scope. For the western-educated there is a vast store of songs which they can attempt to interpret. No genuine Ceylon vocal music can arise, however, until there are attempts at creation, and at present there are few signs of creative activity among the English-educated. The tale is different among the rest. Though only a beginning has been made towards the revival of eastern music, there has already appeared some creative activity, and a bright future may be expected.

221. The scope for training in instrumental music is limited by considerations of space and equipment and by the highly individual nature of the training required. The school should aim rather to supplement the instruction given in the home than to supersede it, though it should also be prepared to give facilities for the use of the school instruments and the school teachers where they were desired. If this were done, the disadvantage under which many children labor, that there are neither instruments nor accommodation at home, can be removed. Also, the parent would be sure of obtaining a competent teacher. Supplementing the teaching in the home would require teaching in musical theory, which could in large measure be associated with singing and dancing. Also, the school should have as many orchestras, Eastern and western, as it can muster. In any event, the schools should not encourage the debasing of music by cramming for examinations. Music more than any other "subject" has been debased by the examination mania, and the long list of examination "successes" which appears at intervals in the newspapers is one of the most distressing features of our system of education. The mechanical drumming of set pieces which must go on in many Ceylon homes is a menace to all standard of musical appreciation. It bears little relation to music and is more like the process of mass production. There is little difference between stamping ''music'' out of a piano and stamping rail out of a steel plate, save that the latter operation is more exact.

222. Musical appreciation can be learned by other methods. The gramophone enables the finest music played by the finest executants to be brought to the school, and much can be done by the use of the radio. Lessons on musical appreciation can be made a joy if they are appropriately illustrated. They must, however, be given by teachers who themselves have a high standard of taste.

223. The field for education in art is much wider, though here too equipment is necessary if the teaching is to be successful. It is, for instance, undesirable that schools should limit drawing to the medium of pencil crayon, which is the least successful of the media capable of being used. Pastel, watercolor, pencil, pen and-ink and pencil crayon should all be employed. Nor should art be limited to drawing. Modelling in clay and handwork of other kinds should be possible. The cottage industries of Ceylon require work of high artistic merit in many media from cadjan to clay. The artistic tradition of past generations in local products has not been entirely superseded by mass-produced crockery. Much of the local pottery, copperware and silverware bears evidence of a high standard of taste which should be stimulated in various media at school.

224. Art education has so many advantages that great emphasis should be placed on it. It trains the hand, the eye and the mind in certain specific directions. It makes one see more in the everyday things of life. It gives practice in imagining beautiful designs and pictures, both of which have been sadly neglected in the rush for Matriculation certificates. It gives an absorbing field for concentration. This is evident to everyone who has seen a class, listless and inattentive, completely absorbed in creative work. Adolescents in particular tend to lose themselves in day-dreams when they are expected only to be receptive, whereas artistic work enables them to sublimate their emotion. This characteristic is of profound-importance in enabling young men and women to adapt themselves to social conventions which appear to them to cramp their personalities. The fact that the student is required to do something and not merely to know something is also of profound social significance. Mere knowledge is of no great value to the world; its value lies in the ability to make use of it. The Sinhalese and the Tamils have artistic traditions of a high order, and we look to the development of education in art as a means for redressing the unbalanced system produced by the blind imitation of English education which has obtained in Ceylon for much of the past century.

225. Its success depends, however, on the production of the necessary teachers. It is unfortunately inevitable that the weaknesses of an educational system are visited upon the next generation through the medium of the teachers. The achievement of the objects mentioned above has been hindered by poverty, poor material and equipment, unqualified teachers, teachers without vision or powers of appreciation, managers and parents who have little understanding of the true meaning of education, and even the examination fever-for much of the development which has occurred, is due to the establishment of art as an examination subject, the surest way to kill creative ability and to stifle imagination.

226. Much of this cannot be reformed without a change in the general social environment. It is the old problem of the hen and the egg. Until there is a lively artistic opinion, whether it be wholly oriental or mainly occidental or, as is more likely a fusion of east and west, parents and schools will demand good teachers and good teachers will be forthcoming. Meanwhile, the initial impulse could be given by the establishment of more, and more representative, art galleries and the creation of schools of art. Art societies already established should be given very encouragement.

227. The development of artistic appreciation in the schools is not solely a matter of teaching art as a subject. Every effort should be made to give the child a pleasing and refined atmosphere. Poverty is the only excuse for giving our schools the severity of a monastery, and poverty is not everywhere a justification. There is no excuse at all for the crude daubs which stand for decoration in many schools; they give the impression that the children are regarded as primitive barbarians to whom only splashes of startling and incongruous colours appeal. If money can be put on decorations it must be spent tastefully. Pictures should be carefully chosen-good reproductions can in normal times be obtained very cheaply. There is no reason why a class room should be dull and depressing.

228. Various forms of art can be brought in aid of the teaching of other subjects. Drawing is one of the methods of teaching natural science, history and geography. Plays should be acted, or at least read with parts assigned. Parts of history can be dramatized. A cultured teacher can find scores of ways of making learning interesting and a means of general education. One of us has vivid recollections of a highly cultured headmaster who discussed with the combined sixth forms once a week any subject in which he happened to be interested-Why so many of the best singers came from Italy, why the Dutch had produced so many great painters. whether a portrait should be "just like'' the sitter as the world saw him, why the art of staining glass had not survived, whether Tennyson was a poet or Lundseer an artist, why a second-rate novel became a best-seller, which was the finer Cathedral, Durham or Gloucester, why the Puritans disliked the drama, what difference there was in the technique of de Maupassant and O'Henry and scores of similar subjects. As with most true English education there was no examination; but hundreds of schoolboys in this way were encouraged to read and to see with critical eyes what otherwise they would have passed by blindly.

Section 4. - Language and Literature.

229. Teaching of the primary language raises issues rather different from those raised by the teaching of a second modern language or of a classical language. The primary language is the foundation of all academic learning. It is, too, the normal means of expressing both Ideas and emotions. In a sense, all teaching of literary subjects is an education in the language of instruction. We must not forget that the condition precedent to the development of Sinhalese and Tamil is not their use as a media of instruction, but the training of teachers who are competent to use them as such. This is one of the cases where the “filtering down'' process is more important than ''filtering up''.

230. However, we are concerned less with the use of the primary language as a medium of instruction than with its teaching as a ''subject''. Here English tends to share with Sinhalese and Tamil the disadvantage that anybody who speaks the language is presumed to be capable of teaching it. The system sometimes employed is, we understand, to divide the so-called specialist subjects among the specialists and to allot the task of teaching the primary language to those who, under this division, have the least work to do. No fallacy can be more serious than to assume that, because a teacher speaks a language, he is *ipso facto* capable of teaching it. The teacher must not only speak the language, he must understand it as a language. He must have studied its peculiarities, he able to explain its roots, and above all have a feeling for its literature. The last needs to be specially emphasized. The study of a language requires a study of grammar and the writing of ''compositions''; but if these dull tasks are undertaken formally, they deaden any interest that there may be in the language itself. In the study of English there may also be over-emphasis upon pronunciation and spelling. A language is a means of expression, a vehicle for expressing ideas and emotions. It has been used in the past by great masters; it is being used currently by write and orators who are adapting it to the modern environment. Grammar, style, spelling, even pronunciation, can be learned by reading (both silently and aloud) the literature in which the language is used, under the guidance of teachers who themselves understand what is good and what is not, and who have a genuine enthusiasm for it. Above all, the peril of set books in, annotated editions must be avoided.

231. In these respects the three primary languages set rather different problems. The problem of Sinhalese is particularly difficult. Between the literary language, with its literature in many branches of learning and culture, and the language of the people, is a wide gap, due non to dialectal differences but to the stagnation of the literary language for three hundred years and the segregation of the few who studied and wrote the language from the many who spoke it. The primary task is to fill the gap. Literary study at the University and elsewhere will help; but a language is a living entity, made by the people who speak it and not by the people who study it. Attempts to revive archaic forms of expressions, to purge it of neologisms, to impose a rigid antiquarian grammar on a living language, will not only fail, they will widen the gap and drive Sinhalese further into the position of inferiority into which it was until recently, rapidly degenerating. If Sinhalese means the language of the Buddhists of centuries ago, it will become a dead language.

232. The first essential for the teaching of Sinhalese as for all other languages is books, modem books, well-written, attractively produced, readable books. By books we do not mean text-books. The market is glutted with text-books. Sinhalese wants a modem literature, not a set of aids to passing examinations. Young children must necessarily be given “readers” full of material carefully graded to suit the immaturity of their minds. But the extracts must be interesting stories and poems that appeal to the young, capable of giving a practical demonstration that reading is a joy and Sinhalese a language in which the imagination of youth can be expressed. The more closely they relate to the environment of the child the better: the modern is to be preferred to the ancient. Yet classical texts are not to be ignored so long as they are treated as literature to be read and understood, not pegs for annotations. Here as elsewhere the examination mania has almost succeeded in destroying education. The text--books consist of chunks of matter, interesting and valuable in themselves, but desiccated and desecrated by masses of notes and explanations. Language is best learned from literature, and literature should be read and enjoyed as well as studied.

233. This defect is not limited to Sinhalese. In one of the reports on a language syllabus for the University there is a significant passage: ''Certain books will be prescribed, chosen as far as possible from works of which there are no annotated editions”. It is, however, particularly acute in relation to Sinhalese owing to the absence of good but cheap dictionaries and books of reference. One of the steps necessary for the development of the language is the provision of these aids to study. Even so, teachers should encourage students to understand rather than to paraphrase. It should not be said of teachers of Sinhalese as it has been said of others that they are ''cheap

teachers frittering away golden hours of youthful energy upon compound words and grammatical discriminations, teaching boys to loath the sight of their own heritage of literature by chewing petty morsels of it into a sour chyme, binding down childish dreams and aspirations in the bear-garden of a classroom “. In particular, verse should be treated as verse to be recited and not as prose placed in metre by some foolish whim of a skittish author.

234. In a sentence, what is required is that Sinhalese shall be regarded as a living language, adapted to express the ideas and aspirations of a people, and not a grammarian's toy or an examiner's puzzle. The only Sinhalese which is worth teaching at schools is the language of the people, with its comparatively simple grammar and its flexible vocabulary. The complications of linguistic history form a good “subject” for University students: what the schoolboy and the schoolgirl need is a language by which ideas can pass, not a “subject”. There is, alas, no Tagore; but others can write good Sinhalese: and, until original work of permanent value is produced, the temporary solution is to provide good translations of suitable books written in other languages. Above all, the students should be taught to speak and write. The examination mania has produced the formal “composition'' and the set ''essay''. The purpose of any essay is quite simple: it is to enable the child to express his own thoughts in his own language. To ask him to produce the ideas of another in the language of another is both absurd and a waste of time. He should be taught that there is no such thing as a ''model'' essay.

235. The problem of teaching Tamil also is primarily a problem of providing books. Those at present used in the schools are obtained from South India. Written to suit Indian students, they are not altogether suitable for Ceylon students. Though the literary language is the same in India and in Ceylon, the colloquial languages of the two countries differ widely. owing to the insularity of the country, the Tamil language of Ceylon has remained comparatively free from the influences of other languages, and struck out on a line different from the Tamil language of India. Through the influence of Indo-Aryan languages and of Arabic and Persian, the spoken Tamil of India contains many non-Tamil words and phrases which are unintelligible in Ceylon. There is, too, a tendency in India to barrow Sanskrit words and phrases without changing them into the Tamil phonetic system. In Ceylon, the change is made. Moreover, the Indian text-books use Sanskrit characters for reproducing foreign words with non-Tamil sounds, a practice which has never obtained in Ceylon. If Ceylon Tamil is to be maintained in its purity, therefore, the selection of Indian books to be used in our schools must be carefully made.

236. The considerable differences between written and spoken Tamil require that considerable attention be paid to grammar. Even so, the literary language should be studied not as formal subjects of any value for its own sake, but as a key to a great literature. This is particularly necessary in “English” schools, where there is a temptation, fostered no doubt by English examinations to regard Tamil as a subject for translation into English. Colloquial Tamil is a living language, and written Tamil is the way of approach to a living literature.

237. On the teaching of English as a primary language little need be said. The number of whom it is the mother-tongue is comparatively small and they should use the methods which have proved successful, after much experimentation, in the teaching of the young of English-speaking nations. There are numerous and good “readers'', and a vast and ever-growing literature. The written language, as exhibited by modem literature, does not differ from the language of ordinary speech, and there is no great temptation to lay much stress on the grammar of a language which has been alleged, with conscious extravagance, to have none.

238. Much more important is the problem of teaching English as a second language to those whose home language is not English. These constitute at present about 86 per cent of the school-going population. As primary schools will in future be conducted in the mother tongue of the pupils the time left for English is bound to be small. The Ceylonese pupil of eight, whose English vocabulary will be behind that of an English child by about 3,600 words, will also be further handicapped by lack of time. Since not more than about 300 words can be leant in a year, the selection of a suitable vocabulary becomes a matter of the greatest importance. Scientific selection of vocabularies for non-English speaking people has now reached a high stage of development. Among the vocabularies proposed, that called Basic English, which contains only 850 words, has been found by experiment in Ceylon itself to be the most promising method of teaching Unlimited English. Basic English should be in Ceylon a step towards Unlimited English and not in any sense a competitor. Nothing need be taught as Basic English which is not correct English and which has to be unlearnt afterwards.

239. English must be taught as a second language according to the principles of the Direct Method, now adopted generally for the teaching of foreign languages. The characteristics of this method are as follows: Speech with due attention to *pronunciation* should be taught before reading and writing and it should be about real

situations. In the early stages real objects should be brought into class whenever possible. The maxim should be: things before words; explanations may be given through the home language but there should be no translation exercises. Formal grammar should be postponed to the later stages.

240. The reading in the early stages must be, however, in the language that is spoken, the limpid, simple and nervous English of ordinary speech. The examination distinction between “English Language'' and “English Literature'' and the use of English examinations has tended to give “Ceylonese English'' a literary flavor which “English English" does not possess. The language of Burke and Macaulay is not the language of speech; it is not even the language of oratory; it is the language of the study according to a literary fashion that died long ago. Burke and Macaulay too, emptied the House of Commons in days when Pitt, Fox and Peel could fill it. Even Pitt's English would be too Latinate for the modem ear. Peel first brought into politics the simple language that persuades in place of the torrent of polysyllables which, for a short time, delights the ear. The Ceylonese student who proceeds to a fairly advanced study of English literature must, like the English student read Elizabethan and Johnsonian English but these are the end, not the beginning of his English studies. Literature, as ''Literature'', should be left alone at an early stage. Certainly, the so-called standard-literature should be avoided until the student begins to understand the environment in which it was written. It is depressing to find Scott's "Talisman'' set for the Junior School Leaving Certificates admittedly in an abridged edition. No ordinary English child appreciates Scott, and very few appreciate Dickens. It is far better that the student should read the local newspapers or, say, a good modem short story or novel. What he needs is to learn English "Literature" Should mean good modern literature, and the "classics" can be left for higher study.

241. French, German, and perhaps Italian should be taught in secondary schools and senior schools. The study of these languages is in itself valuable. Each leads to a beautiful literature whose beauty is lost through translation. They are, therefore, excellent media for the acquisition of general culture. Most people, however, will study them with utilitarian aims because knowledge of them is necessary for any effective study of the natural and social sciences. Of the Eastern languages, Hindustani may be taught for its utility value as it bids fair to become in course of time the common language of the sub-continent of India.

242. The essential methods of teaching modern languages are the same as those to be used for the teaching of English as a second language. It is, however, even more necessary to emphasize that they must be taught as spoken languages by teachers who speak them fluently and idiomatically. “Examination French” is as little useful as “Examination English”, and there is even greater danger of it in Ceylon. Similarly, the senior schools should avoid “Commercial German” until the students have a reasonable facility in colloquial German.

243. The reasons for teaching the five classical languages, Pali, Sanskrit, Arabic, Latin, and Greek, will vary somewhat. Pali will frequently be chosen by Buddhists. It is very closely inter-woven with Buddhist civilization. Its literature is largely religious and is smaller in range, but it is easier to learn than Sanskrit and can be made an instrument for training in expression. Sanskrit covers a vast field of culture and is linguistically more valuable. Those who wish to proceed to higher studies in Tamil would wish to learn it, but it is a valuable subject of study for anybody, and a small minority should be encouraged to learn both Indo-Aryan languages. Arabic will be the natural choice of many Muslims, but it should not be entirely neglected by students from other communities.

244. For Ceylonese students, Sanskrit, Pali and Arabic are of more immediate interest than Latin and Greek. Yet the influence of Mediterranean culture on the thought of the world has been so profound that it must not be neglected in Ceylon. Of the two languages, Greek is the preferable, not only because it gives access to a wider and a more interesting literature, but also because Greek civilization has more affinity with the Indo-Aryan and the Dravidian than the Roman. Latin has received more attention in Ceylon, partly because Ceylonese students have to take English examinations, and partly because it has been thought necessary for the study of law and medicine. The former reason will cease to be a reason, and the latter is, to say the least, doubtful. Medical students must continue to have knowledge of Latin so long as the General Medical Council insists, though it may be doubted if it is a necessary preliminary to medical study. The assumption that law students must study Gaius and Justinian in the original is no longer accepted unanimously in England. This is a matter for the Council of Legal Education, but we suggest that neither the English tradition nor the present requirements of the medical and legal professions should prevent our students from choosing Greek as the first of their classical languages if they so desire.

245. It is not very useful for any student to study a classical language unless he will ultimately attain such a knowledge of it that he will be able to read the literature with pleasure and profit. Most of the time devoted to

Latin in the schools is wasted, partly because it is studied by students who have no aptitude for it, partly because of bad teaching, and partly because the teaching stops before it produces its best results. Intellectual discipline may be expected from the study of a highly grammatical language, but the main purpose is defeated if the study of language does not lead to study of the literature. Latin, for instance, should be studied not as a dead language, but in order to learn about the actions, thoughts and feelings of a great people as they are recorded by good and sometimes great writers. The method of teaching a dead language therefore does not differ very substantially from that used in teaching a modern language. The student of Latin must be brought into touch with the living expressions of Roman life as soon as possible. Grammar, composition, and even translation must be used as a means towards the understanding of the living language. Plainly a schoolboy, however able, cannot cope outright with a text, however simple, written for adults by an adult Roman; not only will the words be strange, their meanings will be drawn from a life very different from his own. For his first two years, his Latin text must be "readers" specially composed for beginners. From the first, rules of grammar should be presented as derived from texts and not from authority. Pupils should be encouraged to make their own phrase-books and their own grammar. Composition should lag behind reading: words should be seen in Latin contexts before they are used in composition-hence Latin-English dictionaries should be encouraged and English-Latin dictionaries despised. Oral work is essential in Poll languages, and as much in Latin and Greek as in others. All the poetry of the Greeks and Romans and such of their prose was addressed to the ear and not to the eye. Throughout the course pupils must be accustomed to hearing and speaking the language. Gramophone records and books are available to teach pronunciation. Also, the language can be made living by the use of visual aids. In respect of Latin and Greek there are particular difficulties owing to the absence of classical antiquities and the very different way of life of the people of the Island: but pictures are available, and some features of ancient life can be readily imagined by students who see for themselves a primitive plough, a potter's wheel or the workshop of a Kandyan coppersmith. Historical novels also can supply something of the "atmosphere'' in which classical writers lived.

246. The essential condition is that classical languages should not be taught to students who have not the aptitude for them. It may be assumed that pupils transferred from senior and practical schools at the eighth standard are more likely to be interested in natural science and other modern subjects than in classical languages. No harm would therefore be done in introducing the first classical language in the second year of the lower department of the secondary school. Those who show no aptitude should be diverted to other subjects in the higher department. At that stage, the second classical language (if any) may be introduced. Here progress will be much faster because classes will be smaller, and the students will have been picked as specially suitable for classical studies. The number studying these subjects in either group, eastern or western, will be few. They should, nevertheless, realize that they are important. Culture of a special type may often appear to be the possession of a few, but it percolates into the culture of the many through their teachers and their literature. The consequences of the classical studies of a favored minority in England for centuries are visible in the life and thoughts of the ordinary Englishman to whom Latin and Greek are mysteries. A narrow materialism, an over emphasis on apparently more utilitarian subjects, the inevitable pressure exerted by the scramble for employment, should not cause the schools or the University to neglect classical studies. In-deed, it will be denied as every candidate for the British Civil Service is aware, that culture is not utilitarian. Ceylon has the power, if it chooses to exercise it, of drawing inspiration from two, if not three, of the great cultural sources. It should make the most of its opportunity.

Section 5. - Mathematics.

247. Mathematics, like every other subject, is taught both because of its utility and because of its cultural value. Elementary mathematics must be used by every-body in daily life. Technicians need higher mathematics as a general tool of their trades. As an instrument of education, it helps to develop a rigid accuracy and a logical precision. The fact that to many children it is a ''difficult'' subject does not rob it of its value. It is a subject in which careless, slipshod, clumsy, illogical, unnecessary and unmethodical work will not pass muster.

248. It should be emphasized that the subject is one. Though it is convenient for teaching purposes to distinguish arithmetic, algebra, geometry, trigonometry &c., as separate subjects, there is no real or rigid separation. The child who has met the expression 2 x 3 = 6 has also met the elements of algebra. The teacher who

has taught the theorem of Pythagoras and ratio and proportion has also laid the foundations of mensuration and trigonometry. Teachers and text-book writers very often fail to recognize this interdependence of the different branches and treat them more or less in isolation. The result is that the pupils tend to regard them as watertight compartments without interrelations, and so fail to benefit fully from their study of the subject. It is essential, therefore, that the curricula of the schools should be so planned as to make the interrelations clear. This difficulty will be in large measure avoided if the student is taught that mathematics is merely a method of solving several of the ordinary problems of daily life. Mathematics should be taught not as a collection of subjects dealt with in separate text- books, and on the basis of purely hypothetical problems, but as a single subject providing several methods of solving the same problem. At the same time, the problems should be as practical as the teacher can make them. Many text books retain topics and problems which are of no interest save to the professional mathematician. While it is true that problems cannot always be selected from ordinary life far-fetched problems should as far as possible be avoided.

249. Our remarks on the division of the work must deal with the subject under the two headings of the primary school and the post-primary school.

250. *The Primary school: Infant Department.* -The essence of the modern trend in the teaching of Arithmetic to children between the ages of 5 and 7 is summed up in the phrase “Number Work “. While the importance of gaining at this stage direct experience of numbers of concrete objects is widely recognized to-day, the need for drill work is being underrated and even despised with the result that pupils find subsequent work heavy, dull and distasteful. Speed and accuracy in number work should be regarded as a necessary complement to concrete work through such activities as counting and number games. The practice of introducing number symbols and written work too soon is another error that has to be avoided. Frequent oral work should be freely employed at first, and then written work may follow when the necessity for it is felt. There is no reason why the teaching of this subject should not be enriched and made attractive even at this stage by the introduction of (i.) shopping games which involve the use of money, and (ii.) simple measurements with the yard, foot and inch, and also by familiarizing the children with regular solids, such as the cube, cylinder, pyramid, cone and sphere, and figures like the square, rectangle, triangle and circle indirectly through counting and games.

251. *Standards II.-IV.* - The emphasis placed on the acquisition of number concepts and arithmetical facts concretely is no longer necessary. Written symbolic Arithmetic should gradually grow in importance not as a substitute for unaided mental or oral work but as a step forward designed to extend the range of Arithmetical computation. Accuracy and speed in the four fundamental operations should be a special feature that ought not to be lost sight of. If at this stage, that is, between the ages of 7 and 11, children do not acquire the necessary arithmetical speed and accuracy, it would be extremely difficult to make good the deficiency at any stage in the child's subsequent career, and the consequences will evidently be disastrous. Systematic drill is the only successful method by which this pitfall can be avoided.

252. *Oral and Written Work*. -Arithmetic is usually divided into oral and written work, and the latter, more often than not, receives undue emphasis at the expense of the former. The aid of symbols and written work has no place until the mind is unable to do the work unaided. Thus, it would follow that oral work should always precede written work, and that written work should not be resorted to when the operations involved in the exercise or problem can be performed with out the aid of written work. If these important principles always kept in mind by the teacher, the pernicious and far too common tendency to fill margins in class exercise books and examination answer scripts with unnecessary hotchpotch of ''rough work'' which betrays a pathetic dependence on pen and paper will disappear.

If the utilitarian aim were the only aim of Mathematics teaching, it would be sufficient if the pupil is taught to arrive expeditiously at the correct result anyhow. But the cultural aim also should be kept in view. It is the teacher's function to train the pupil in clear and concise expression of his logical reasoning in working problems and exercises.

253. *Short Methods.* -The recognition of speed as a very important factor and written work only as an aid to the mind when it is unable to cope with the work unaided, emphatically points to the need for teaching short methods. For instance, 144 x 25 will be beyond the capacity of mental computation of most pupils unless they use the short method dependent on the arithmetical fact that 25 is one-fourth of 100.

254. *The Post-primary School.* -The entry of pupils into the three types of post-primary schools will be determined by the differentiating Vth. standard test. As the differentiation at this stage is liable to errors in

estimating the capacity of some of the pupils, transfer from one type of school to another is provided for at the conclusion of the first three years, that is, at the end of Standard VIII. This scheme evidently demands that the syllabuses and teaching in all the three types of schools during these three years should not be so dissimilar as to handicap the pupils of the practical and senior schools. On the other hand, the obvious differences in their function and objectives cannot be ignored and uniformity of content and methods established. The right course is, therefore, to maintain as much common ground as possible while the subsequent career of the pupils is steadily kept in view all the time. At the end of the first three years, the senior and secondary schools will continue to cater more specifically to the subsequent careers of their own pupils while the practical school will terminate its course.

255. The unwholesome tendency to subdivide Mathematics into branches or subjects, and the unfortunate practice of paying far more attention to the abstract aspects of Mathematics than to its utility in life have already been mentioned under ''The Primary School'', but they are both still more evident and pernicious at the post primary stage that a repetition of them here is not to be regarded as a lapse of redundancy. For instance, the “tangent of an angle” a very useful concept in life, is postponed to a late stage or not taught at all on the ground that it pertains to Trigonometry.

Section 6. - Nature Study and Natural Science.

256. Nature study and natural science, like anything else, can become mere text-book subjects. Properly taught, however, they lend themselves to a broad education in which roost of the capacities of the student are brought out. There must be, as in all subjects a certain amount of memorization, but the capacity for logical thought is required also. Indeed, it is probably through nature study and natural science that the student can first be made fully aware of the principle of which he has already acquired some experience, the relation between cause and effect. He is dealing, or ought to be dealing, with familiar objects, with plants, birds, insects and animals as well as inanimate objects, which he has known from his earliest days. Nature study and natural science, in fact, are the subjects most easily used for the application of the first principle of education, the principle that the child should, learn to know the things that he thinks he knows. There is, however, wider training than this implies. The subjects require close and accurate observations. They require also a degree of manipulative skill. There are, of course, many who have not the several kinds of skill which are required for even moderately advanced study, but in the early stages considerable emphasis should be placed upon nature study in order that what capacities there are can be developed and the existence of talent which might remain undetected in a purely bookish system may be discovered.

257. If these qualities are to be brought out, nature study and natural science must not be formal subjects learned exclusively from text-books. They must be brought into close relationship with the life which goes on around the school. They must, indeed, be learned not merely in the school but also outside. We would, however, urge the need for school accessories which help to bring the school into contact with the life outside. Gardening, manual training, the keeping of pets, and the rest, are useful for other reasons; but they are useful also as instruments for teaching the principles of mathematics and natural science. The school compound should not be merely a yard for play. It should be a means of instruction. This is perhaps more necessary in the town school than in the village school. What the village child learns from life in the village must, in the town, be taught at school It is essential that the teaching of natural science should be based on observation and demonstration, and the schools must provide the means.

258. Pupils in primary schools are not as capable of abstract thought as older children. Accordingly, their training in natural science should consist primarily of observation of their surroundings and the acquisition of the ability to record their observations in writing and m drawings. In the first three years of school life, attention should be directed to the immediate environment, especially to the plant and animal life around them and the effect of changes m the seasons upon it. In the fourth and fifth years they should make a fuller and more sustained study of their environment: for instance, they should be required to make daily observations and records of the germination, growth, flowering and fruiting of common plants, and similar observations and records of the life histories of the common insects. At this stage, too, the work should be extended beyond the immediate environment by means of rambles and excursions to the seashore, ponds and lagoons, patches of jungle, &c. Further extensions of work should be carried on by observation of the movements of the sun and the phases of the moon. By the sixth year, pupils should be able to realize the inter-dependence of plants and animals and the effect

of soil, water and air conditions on diverse forms of life, for instance, adaptations to life in a pond, on a sandy seashore, &c. At this stage, too, study should be made of such constellations as the Great Bear, the Southern Cross, the Scorpion, and Orion. The work in nature study, also, should be related to the practical health work which has already been recommended in this chapter.

259. At this stage will come the differentiating test and the consequent allocation of students to the three types of post-primary schools. In all types, however, natural science must be regarded as an important subject. There is no intention that there should be any fundamental divergence of syllabus up to the age of fourteen. In the case of natural science, certainly, there is no need for such divergence. What is wanted, rather, is a difference of emphasis, and it is above General Science, spread over the first three years of the post-primary course, but it must be adapted to the particular type of school. In the practical school its emphasis should be essentially practical, and should assume that at the end of it the student will proceed either to employment where his knowledge will be immediately useful, or to an agricultural or trade school where it will be the foundation of his technical training. In other words, the aim of the course should be to provide boys and girls with a scientific basis for the maintenance of health, the cultivation and use of foodstuffs (above all in rural schools), and the application to everyday life of the common scientific principles. In the senior school there should be no less emphasis on the practical application of scientific principles. The theory, on which these schools will work, however, is that a substantial section of the pupils will proceed at the age of sixteen to technical or commercial employment or to further technical training. There should, therefore, be a greater emphasis on mechanics without limiting the general scope of the curriculum. The difference will appear rather in an insistence upon the theoretical basis of mechanics and elementary physics and upon the development of practical skill in relation to those subjects. Finally, the pupils of the secondary school may be presumed to have greater ability on the theoretical side and less ability on the practical side. This should not imply any diminution of the practical work, but it should enable the teacher to explain more fully the scientific principles involved. All these aims can be achieved if the schools of all types spend the same proportion of time on the theoretical and the practical sides, because (if the differentiating test is successful) the pupil of the practical school should be able to do more practical work in less time than the pupil of the secondary school, while the pupil of the secondary school should be able to proceed further in his theoretical studies than the pupil of the practical school.

260. At the age of fourteen the pupils of the practical schools will enter employment or agricultural or trade schools and we are therefore concerned only with the pupils of senior schools and secondary schools. Up to the age of sixteen there should be a common course in General Science in both kinds of schools, though there will be a difference of emphasis, and the subject should be compulsory in the senior schools and optional in the secondary schools. It should include physics, chemistry, botany, zoology and possibly some astronomy and geology. The inter-relation of these subjects should be kept in mind, and in particular botany and zoology should be taught as a single subject. The emphasis in the senior school will be rather on workshop practice, while in the secondary school the work will be more academic, particularly through a mathematical emphasis. Nevertheless, practical work must not be neglected in secondary schools, and it should include workshop practice as well as laboratory work. It is also desirable that students should see the practical application of the subjects which they are studying by paying visits to factories, foundries, workshops, farms, and research laboratories. Nor should it be forgotten that scientific subjects can be studied in the field as well as in the laboratory. The flora and fauna of Ceylon give opportunity for practical study which is not so easily available to students in other countries. Attention to the practical problems of chemistry, botany and zoology in their application to agriculture will be amply repaid not only in a better understanding of the problems of the Island, but also in a greater interest and a more intensive knowledge of the basic problems of these sciences. The present concentration on text-books and examinations neglects educational opportunities of an unusual and most valuable character.

261. The work in the higher forms of the secondary schools will be determined primarily by the needs of the University. The syllabuses for the London degree in natural science have been reasonably well composed for some years, and less change will be necessary than in other branches of knowledge. There is, accordingly, little that we need say on this subject, and we understand that detailed syllabuses have been worked out for the University Entrance examination. We need mention only that the absence of equipment and other facilities in schools has hitherto tended to give an emphasis to mathematics which its importance as a subject does not warrant, and that

education in natural science should be more generally spread among the branches of natural science. In particular, the equipment of girls' schools is often inadequate. Frequently girls do not take so easily to mathematics as many boys do, and it is particularly desirable that teaching in botany, which is an attractive subject for girls, should be more widely spread.

Section 7. - History and Geography.

252. History and geography are particularly valuable subjects because they enable the student to understand his own environment and his own people and, in the process, to understand something of the world in general and of the people who inhabit it. They are the essential means to the study of that most “proper” subject for mankind-man himself. They are dangerous subjects, particularly history which designing propagandists will not hesitate to twist so as to give an interpretation calculated to indoctrinate the rising generation with their religious, social and political theories. In fact, a good deal of the present international distrust and disharmony can be attributed to faulty and unbalanced teaching of history in schools. These two subjects are also difficult to handle in the sense that, in the hands of unskilled teachers and examiners, they can become mere collections of facts, learned by the aid of memory and reproduced without understanding in examination papers. The latter danger has, however, been appreciated for a long time and it is much less than it was twenty years ago. The former must be specially guarded against all educators.

263. The aims of teaching history may be briefly stated as follows: -

(a) to help the pupil to understand the present by examining how the present has developed from the past;

(b) to cultivate the spirit of true citizenship by understanding how the present institutions of Ceylon, of the British Commonwealth of Nations and of the world in general have arisen out of the past; and

(c) to enable the student to appreciate the problems of today by studying how they arose, and to check his conclusions about their solutions by studying what solutions have been attempted in the past.

The student of every subject is, in a sense, a historian, and the study of every subject requires a study of its history. Yet the study of history as a separate subject is an essential part of a student's education. Events are the product of countless causes which do not run in the defined channels of the separate ''subjects”. The historian tries to see life as a whole, to study the interaction of innumerable forces and to produce a synthesis which gives a balanced picture. In other words, the historian takes the whole of knowledge for his province and proves to the student that life does not run in watertight compartments.

264. Geography is slightly more restricted in its scope, though the development of its several branches - physical, human, economic and historical-has in recent years similarly tended to emphasize the idea of the unity of knowledge. Its stress on the many factors in the environment which affect every branch of learning and every aspect of life makes it an essential subject of study from an early age. Until these environmental factors are understood, no problem of government is capable of solution. A knowledge of geography is thus as essential to citizenship as a knowledge of history. Unless “civics” is merely a collection of facts about institutions, it must be an amalgam of history and geography. Certainly, up to the age of fourteen, the three should be regarded as a single subject even if it proves convenient to teach history and geography separately. “Citizenship'' as a separate subject should be left for study in the higher departments of secondary schools. It will thus be studied only by a very few of those who will in due course become citizens. For the great majority, the knowledge which is essential to citizenship should come through the study of history and geography.

265. In respect of both subjects Ceylon itself should be the point of departure. We do not imply that there should be any concentration on Ceylon history as a separate subject. It is not a separate subject. Historically, Ceylon is part of India-using “India” in a geographical, not a political, sense. But the stuff of history is to be found in the peoples, the villages and the cities of Ceylon of which the student already has some knowledge. Events elsewhere have their influence upon the daily lives of ordinary citizens; most, if not all, of the great cultures have left their impress on the Island. The technique, is therefore, to proceed from Ceylon outwards and from the

present to the past. Similarly, the main principles of geography can be seen in Ceylon in their practical application. Ceylonese students are accustomed to hearing about them at home, though they may not realize that they are ''geography''. Even when the people whose environment is remote are being considered, comparisons or contrasts may be drawn with Ceylon. If this is done, the student proceeds from the subjects which he knows of casually to the subjects of which he knows nothing. The technique does not imply any narrow or nationalist exclusiveness in the teaching. On the contrary, other peoples, whether in the present or the past, cease to be text-book dummies and become real people of flesh and blood. A genuine inter-nationalism is created as a back-ground to a genuine interest in the student's own country. A person who is a better citizen of his own country is not a worse citizen of the world, and a person who knows more about his own country will not know less about the world.

266. This technique is of course not applicable with complete success so long as Ceylon education is dominated by London degrees and London examinations. London is concerned primarily with English students, for whom the principle of working from England outwards has been accepted for a century. Nor, indeed, does London dominate English education in its natural home with any of the strength with which it dominates “English education” in Ceylon. The county schools of the West Riding of Yorkshire, unlike the secondary schools of Ceylon, pay no attention whatever to the policies of the University of London, though they do pay some attention to the policies of the Universities of Leeds and Sheffield. Also, the Universities of Leeds and Sheffield pay attention to the policies of the West Riding County Council (which subsidies both), while the University of London pays no attention to the policies of the Ceylon Department of Education. Yorkshire education begins in Yorkshire; Ceylon education, particularly in history and geography, is trying to balance on the top of the Great Pyramid, roughly half way between Colombo and; London.

267. Education that begins from Ceylon can use the environment itself as an illustration. Education does not consist only, or even primarily, of formal teaching in classes. Teaching is an aid to study. It is true that in social sciences like history and geography formal instruction must play a large part. Its main purpose should be, however, to guide the students to read and to observe. Even in the teaching of history, inevitably one of the most “bookish” of subjects, observation of pictures, museum exhibits, models, etc., is possible. Visits should be made to places of historical importance. Lantern slides and cinema to graph films should be shown wherever possible. Plays, songs, dances, tableaux, exhibitions, and the rest can be used for history as for other subjects. Charts, models, designs; &c., should be made. Atlases and other geographical material must be used in the teaching of history as in the teaching of geography.

268. The utility of these methods is even more obvious in the teaching of geography than in the teaching of history. Ceylon is a small island with a wide variety of geographical features-geological, climatic, botanical, economic and merely ''human”. If the student knows his own country well, he will know a great deal about the rest of the world. Even the road from Colombo to Kandy is an exhibit of many geographical principles, and he who can explain the differences between Nuwara Eliya and Bandarawela can explain many things. Field work in the immediate neighborhood of the school is an essential part of geographical teaching. Surveys of the locality, of its geology, vegetation, population and land utilization, should be made by every class. Wherever possible these surveys should be extended to other parts of the Island. If they cannot be made personally, they can at least be studied from maps. Students should so far as possible make maps for themselves; but in any event there should be a complete collection of the published maps of Ceylon, and the unpublished maps-such as the soil surveys of the Department of Agriculture-should be made available to the schools by publications. 0f other methods there is a great variety- pictures, lantern slides, films, and museum exhibits above all.

269. The schools of other countries use methods which have not been adopt cl at all widely in Ceylon. “Pen friends” abroad are a valuable means of acquiring knowledge of the ways of other peoples. Very often such correspondence is associated with stamp-collecting, itself an excellent means of acquiring some geographical and even historical knowledge if it is taken at all seriously. The “adoption'' of ships by English schools had become a general practice before the war and often taught the pupils more about the trade routes of the world and the distribution of commodities than they would ever learn from their books. Some schools even had “fraternal” arrangements with schools abroad, under which correspondence, school magazines, and even pupils were exchanged. These methods require a little imagination and a little organization. They are not only valuable aids to study in themselves, they also make geography more interesting and give an air of reality to text-book information. In times of peace they can easily be developed in Ceylon, because the scenes which are to Ceylon students part of everyday life are to students elsewhere exotic, romantic and glamorous. To a schoolboy from Vancouver, for

whom a forest of Douglas fir or a lumber mill, or even the effigy of “Soapy Sam” at Skagway or the “trials of 98” to the Klondyke is “pretty ordinary”, a tea plantation or an elephant or even a coconut palm is widely exciting.

270. Of the use of text-books we say something later in this chapter. In history and geography there is grave danger of the accumulation of facts being mistaken for the acquisition of knowledge. Old-fashioned ''learning'' consisted in large measure of the learning off of lists of dates, towns, rivers, mountains, cities, and the rest. What is important in both subjects is the chain of causation. While it is true that causation properly speaking is so complicated that the student must be introduced to it gradually, elementary relationships can be suggested rather than formally taught. The date, by itself, is of no importance, though the time sequence is: accordingly, date charts must be used, though they need not be learned. Similarly, independent lists of mountains, rivers and cities are of no value, though the relations between physical features and human settlement are. Above all, students should realize that history and geography do consist not only of material to be learned but also of material to be used. Political movements, for instance, must be explained in terms of historical and geographical factors. History and geography, to take the obvious example, help to explain the causes of the present war. The student should be induced to apply his knowledge above all to the items which appear in his newspaper.

Section B. - Citizenship.

271. Citizenship is not only a subject of study but also an attitude of mind, and an attitude of mind which a school can create. If in this section it is considered only as a subject of study, we do not wish in any way to detract from what we have stated in Chapter III. Citizenship training is mainly acquired outside school and school education can at most serve as a foundation on which to build. The best text-books on citizenship are newspapers, administration reports, sessional papers, State Council debates, weekly and monthly journals, and books on social, political and economic problems. Many of these will be found in homes where the parents are themselves interested in the things which are happening in the world around them, and they help their sons and daughters to attain the same wide interests. The schools can assist by providing adequate libraries. We emphasize this need at this point because it is in connection with the study of citizenship that a good general library is most useful.

272.There is no general agreement about the content of the subject which is commonly called "citizenship ". Probably the schools of the United States have been most successful in developing it. A student leaving an American High School may be assumed to have a general knowledge of the way in which his city or county, his State, and the United States as a whole are governed. He also has some idea about international relations. The general idea of a course in citizenship is reasonably clear. It is that the student should have been encouraged to think about the social and economic problems that face his own country, of the manner in which the governmental system of his country works, and of the problems that face the world as a whole. The execution of the course, however, is a matter of considerable difficulty. It can be said without fear of contradiction that there is in Great Britain no good book on the subject: there are several good books on the British Constitution, and a few useful books on international affairs have recently been published. Such books are, however, of a type somewhat more advanced than is required for school work. They are more suitable for first-year students in Universities. Similarly, the good American books are intended primarily for the early years of the College course. These facts are significant they suggest that there are difficulties attendant upon making citizenship a normal part of the school curriculum.

273. The difficulties are of several kinds:-

(1) The subject inevitably impinges upon controversy. Social and economic problems are the gist of political debate. Controversy can be avoided only by making the subject a collection of facts and so making it of no educational value, or by stating opinions so fairly and objectively that they become facts in themselves, learned by students as such.

(2) The content of the subject is constantly changing, and those who keep abreast of the changes are University teachers who find it difficult enough to keep up-to-date in their lectures and research publications, without attempting the thankless and often derogatory task of supplying schools with text-books. The comparative success of the American schools is largely due to the fact that

the American Universities pay great attention to politics, economics and sociology, and that all, or almost all, school teachers are University graduates who have studied the subjects under competent direction and have learned University methods of keeping in touch with current events.

(3) The subject itself is difficult in its content. It is quite clear that no economic theory can be adequately taught or should be taught at school. It is becoming a most difficult subject even for first-year University students. It is no exaggeration to say that no British University has during the last twenty years received a student direct from school with enough knowledge of economics to make it worthwhile to assume that he knows any. The subject requires a mature mind, and the experience of British Universities is that, other things being equal, the young man of twenty-five does best at it. Political theory is at least equally difficult, and no British University provides teaching in it before the second year of University work. Practical politics, in the form of a study of the British Constitution, can be begun earlier; but the teaching even of this subject tends to become the explanation of a sort of constitutional blue-print which has not been and could not be converted into a frame-work of government. Government is a matter of delicate shades, of complicated personal relationships, and of nice balances. As such it is an admirable educational subject: but, desiccated and withered in a text-book, it is the dullest and most useless subject imaginable.

274. The difficulties in Ceylon are even greater. Political controversy is more acute than it is in Great Britain and the United States, and it wears a much more personal aspect. The economist or political scientist in Great Britain has only to be reasonably fair to both of the great political parties, and criticism of a party policy is not taken to be personal criticism of the leaders of that party. Moreover, political issues in Ceylon are confused by elements about which people feel strongly, such as the relations of the various sections of the population and the religious beliefs they profess. Educational policy itself is a subject of political controversy. Instead of the single debate on the Education Estimates and an occasional debate on an Education Bill, as is the practice in Great Britain, educational questions are frequently before the State Council. In consequence greater publicity is given, greater weight attached, and therefore greater criticism produced when public pronouncements are made by education authorities. In so far as this represents a genuine public interest in education as such, and a determination to make it better, it is a healthy sign. The atmosphere so produced is not, however, conducive to effective teaching of economics and politics. It is not surprising, therefore, that there has been very little teaching of these subjects in Ceylon. What teaching there has been directed primarily to British conditions. An emphasis on those conditions is inevitable, partly because the Parliament at Westminster is the mother of Parliament, and partly because the Industrial Revolution began in Great Britain; but it is possible to teach the ele-mentary principles of democracy and of economics in a Ceylon background. It has not been done partly because the teaching has been hitherto tor English examinations, and partly because of the controversial nature of the application of these principles to Ceylon.

275. Another difficulty, of a purely technical character, is that the necessary research has not been done and has hardly been attempted. Indeed, much of the elementary information on which advanced research must be based is not available chiefly owing to the inadequacy of official statistics. It should be emphasized that what is wanted is research, not text-books. Writers of text-books rely entirely upon second-hand material. If one of them has original material, he should not boil it down into a text-book, but should make it available in a full account first. A text-book is, at its best, an intelligent summary of knowledge. It is therefore necessary to get the knowledge first. Until the research foundations have been made available, the summary in text-books is certain to be inadequate and misleading. A good text-book on citizenship is not possible until there are good books of administration. Very little of this research has been done; nor is there any incentive for it so long as all the teaching is directed to conditions in Great Britain.

276. These special difficulties confronting the teaching of citizenship in Ceylon added to the inevitable difficulties of teaching it anywhere, reach formidable pro-portions. Nevertheless, the need for the teaching of citizenship is great, and we should be failing in our duty if we did not make recommendations for meeting it. We

consider in the first place that the subject cannot yet be made suitable for any but the highest forms of secondary schools. It is suitable for the University Entrance examination but, until the subject has b come established, it should not be· introduced into the syllabus for the Senior School Certificate examination. This conclusion does not imply that there will be no teaching of practical citizenship in the lower forms at school. If our suggestion that the teaching of history and geography should be given a Ceylon bias is accepted, the student even in the lowest classes will learn a good deal about the social, political and economic conditions of the Island. They are implicit in its historical development and geographical position. Also, we have already emphasized that training for citizenship is primarily a training of character and that this training is an essential part of the schools function. If these recommendations are carried out, all schools will in fact do more for the training of citizens than they do now.

277. Nor should government be studied in the higher forms only by those who intend to proceed to the University. In Ceylon as elsewhere, there will be a category of school-leavers at 18+ who will proceed to administrative and commercial posts of the middle rank. For them as tor students proceeding to the University government may be an optional subject.

278. A syllabus in government has been tentatively adopted for the Entrance examination of the University of Ceylon. It is not suggested that the syllabus should determine the content of the teaching of citizenship at school. It omits international relations, though as much teaching as may be practical should be given in that subject. It is important that in giving a ''Ceylon bias'' to education, the schools should not induce in the student a parochial state of mind. In any event Ceylon is closely affected by world conditions, and students cannot be said to be fully educated if they do not understand the import of foreign relations upon their own country. This import is, however, the result of a vast interplay of social, political and economic forces.

279. The primary aim of the syllabus is to enable the student to understand the social and political problems of the Island. These problems are not peculiar to Ceylon. They are not peculiar to any country. Taken separately, each problem has its parallel elsewhere. Only the combination is peculiar. There are racial, religious and communal problems in many countries; the difficulties of a wide franchise do not occur only in Ceylon: administrative technique is common. Nor should the reaction to "English education" prevent the Ceylon student from realizing that his comparison must, in the main, be drawn with Great Britain. The debt which all democratic constitutions owe to the British Constitution is obvious at a glance. The Constitution of Ceylon was framed by people accustomed to British institutions. Ceylonese Ministers, representatives and officials have had an English education in a double sense. At the same time, the experiments of the Dominions and the experience of India should not be ignored. In some respects, the Dominions have met and resolved problems which are acute in Ceylon. Moreover, so long as there is discussion about the extension of Dominion status to Ceylon it is desirable that students should know what dominion status means.

280. In the main, however, the syllabus is concerned with the constitutional structure of Ceylon and its practical working. Emphasis should be placed upon practice and problem, not on the legal framework. Constitutional law denuded of its practical application and divorced from its theoretical background (which is far too difficult to be studied effectively at school) is a desiccated subject. It also lends itself to cramming. The University of Ceylon will, we hope, make certain that the student who can recite the Order in Council of 1931, out does not understand what it means in terms of practical government is not admitted to the University.

281. It is undesirable to minimize the difficulty of teaching the subject. The fact that there are no text-books is perhaps an advantage, but the absence of books on social and economic conditions in Ceylon and on the working of the Constitution is a serious disadvantage in that it prevents all but a few teachers from informing themselves properly on the subject. The absence of books of this kind will render more acute the difficulty that many of the topics dealt with will be highly controversial in the absence of works of scholarship, some reliance must be placed upon polemical literature and speeches. In the result the teacher's own bias will be over-emphasized. The teacher should not hesitate to allow students to have access to periodicals, pamphlets and speeches. Nor need he hesitate to express his own opinion of those who disagree with him, and generally set an example of toleration and cool scientific appraisement. The great educational advantage of the study of citizenship is that it should teach students that prejudice is not the substitute for reason, that differences of opinion are not necessarily due to personal enmity or to dishonest or corrupt motives, and that controversy can be conducted without heat or

invective. If this aim is to be fulfilled, however, it is necessary that the teacher should be tolerant and dispassionate.

282. Citizenship as much as any subject lends itself to teaching by demonstration. Many of the problems of Ceylon are visible in its towns, villages, estates and jungles. A keen teacher can, by organized trips and other means, encourage students to study the life around them. The lack of knowledge of Ceylon of the ordinary student is due primarily not to English education but to his stay-at-home mentality and his failure to develop his powers of observation. These are certainly not characteristic of English education. Nor should the institutions of local and central government be neglected, though educational value is obtained only if the nature of the procedure followed by local authorities and the State Council is explained and justified. Debating, too, is a valuable exercise. It needs to be emphasized in Ceylon, however, that rounded periods and flowing cadences are of little value unless something of imparlance is being said. Government is a matter of practical statesmanship, not of high-flown and impassioned oratory. What the world wants is not people who can say nothing at great length, but people who can make a point concisely and persuasively.

CHA PTER XVII.

METHODS 0F LEARNING AND TEACHING

Section I. - Abilities and Attitudes.

283. The immediate aim of teaching may be said to be the production of abilities and formation of attitudes. In the past, teachers as a class had concerned themselves only with abilities. It is only in very recent times that they have begun tb realize that they have another direct responsibility, the formation of character through the implanting of right attitudes. Though it is of course true that many teachers had always realized the importance of character, few have ever taken an active part in its fashioning. Possibly it was left to another agent of education, perhaps the priest, but it is not possible to get rid of the teacher's responsibility in this way. Abilities cannot be given to the pupil without affecting his attitudes.

284. Reserving for later consideration the implanting of attitudes, we may consider the formation of abilities. In the earliest kind of teaching before there were schools, the aim of the learner and of whatever teacher there was, was the formation of abilities to *apply knowledge*. The child, for instance, learned not only how to use but also actually to use the bow and the arrow and such other implements as existed in those days. Only after the establishment of schools was a wrong aim begun to be substituted for the right one. Instead of the ability to apply knowledge, the *reproduction* of knowledge began to be the aim of both learner and teacher. Public examinations have had much to do with the growth of this tendency since it is much easier to examine in a mass way the reproduction of knowledge than its application. Hence it has come about that much is taught in our schools today which ends in the reproduction of knowledge. What should have been only a means to an end has become an end in itself. It is this that has given rise to the phrase "the menace of text-books". Text-books have come to be blamed for this wrong use by teachers. It is obvious that if application of knowledge is the real aim of the teacher, the mere memorizing of the contents of a text-book cannot possibly be his aim. The real menace is the wrong ideals of the teacher and the learner.

285. If we now ask how application of knowledge is to be taught, the answer is that the pupil should desire to apply knowledge. In the language of the teacher he must be ''interested'' in the subject. Methods of implanting desires will be dealt with later; but it may be at once started that a teacher who has no interest in his subject, better still who is not enthusiastic in regard to his subject, should not undertake to teach it, since it is very unlikely that he would succeed in implanting a genuine interest in the pupil. It is much more probable that he will produce in the pupil a lasting dislike for the subject. Failure to teach a subject cannot be excused on the ground that the pupil is not interested in it. It is the teacher's duty to arouse interest. Granted that the teacher has a genuine interest in his subject and is *able to apply his knowledge*, he is now in a position to set about his work in a systematic manner.

286. Before the learner can apply knowledge, he must acquire it and fix it. Logically these three phases are essential but they need not take place in any set order, nor need the learner be conscious of them as such. To be able to use even the bow and arrow he must know how to use it and then fix that knowledge in his mind, however sub-consciously. In fact, much the greater portion of our abilities is acquired in a sub-conscious manner. A striking example is learning the mother tongue. What a great accomplishment that is, can be realized only by those who have attempted to learn a second language in a conscious manner.

287. Only recently have teachers begun to realize that the pupil has acquired a great deal in a sub-conscious manner long before he comes to school. Together with this knowledge has gone the realization that sub-conscious methods may be and should be used by teachers as a supplement to conscious methods. In the field of language learning Palmer has expressly recognized this and made provision in his system for the sub-conscious acquiring of abilities. Functional Grammar acquired in a sub-conscious manner has taken the place of Formal Grammar in the Primary School. The younger the child is, and the less his knowledge, the greater the scope for sub-conscious methods. It would be altogether wrong to go to the opposite extreme of present-day practice and to give up conscious methods. They too have a place, but not the exclusive place they occupy at present.

288. The acquisition of knowledge is best done by one's own efforts. What we have striven to acquire abides with us much more permanently. If intelligently learnt, we know its limitations and possibilities provided our aim was right, namely, that knowledge must end in application. Hence the present-day emphasis on self-activity and self-expression. Self-activity unaided is often wasteful of time and, since life is short, we cannot always adopt what has been said to have been Agassi's' method. To a learner who came to him, he gave a fish to study with no help of any kind. It is said that this compelled the learner, merely to escape boredom, to make a careful investigation of the fish and thereby acquire a wonderful amount of lasting knowledge.

289. To economize time the pupil must be allowed and helped to make use of books. As is well known it is this feature that characterizes one of the most recent methods, the Dalton Plan. But even the use of books may be done badly. Hence a third method is needed by the teacher, explanation and illustration. The danger attached to this method is that of giving too much help to the pupil and thus wrongly reducing his self-activity. The teacher who explains too much, whose work ends at "lecturing", is just as much a menace as the text-book which is wrongly used.

290. Since there are fellow-learners in a class there is still another method that may be used with advantage. This method is discussion. It has striking advantages. The subject can be inspected from many points of view. The pupils can speak freely to each other. It incidentally teaches good manners and tolerance. Its eat disadvantage is the danger of discussion being diverted into useless channels, a danger which corresponds to mind-wandering.

291. After knowledge has been acquired by one or more of these methods, it has still to be fixed. This may be done either in a mechanical or in an intelligent manner. The data may be repeated mechanically or be understood intelligently. A few cases call for one or the other of these methods but most cases call for a judicious combination of the two. The names of the months may be memorized in a mechanical way but the multiplication table should be understood before it is memorized. Merely to understand the multiplication table and leave it at that would be a waste of time. Similarly, in Geography facts have not only to be understood but also memorized. At present there seems to be a tendency to belittle the importance of repetition. It is a fatal mistake for a teacher to make.

292. Fixation is however only a step towards application. The ultimate application must be a real application related to the life and environment of the pupil. Naturally knowledge acquired by him must be applied to the things that are of importance to him since those are the only applications that would be real to him. Instead of looking for real applications like these, teachers have been content to use formal applications which have the semblance of real applications, put are not true applications as they do not touch the real life of the pupil or his interest in the application of knowledge in relation to his environment. These remarks must not be understood as meaning that formal applications have no place in school. They are invaluable as preparation for real applications. It is very helpful for the pupils to do many "paper and pencil" exercise in the use of money, provided he does not stop at that. Doing formal problems in Geography may be a very useful way of preparing the pupil for tackling real problems in Geography.

293. It is useful to distinguish between teaching and testing. So far, we have spoken only of the teaching of abilities. But with teaching must go testing. Both are essential. Tests once a term or once a year are totally inadequate· When a unit of work has been done, there must be a test, not less often. It is only recently that scientific methods of testing have been discovered. The tradition has been to test knowledge rather than application. 0f course, provided these are tests of application there is no objection to tests of knowledge. Test of knowledge, however, must be capable of being marked more or less objectively. Sole reliance on the essay type of question makes objective marking altogether impossible, since that method gives too much play to prejudice and bias. A large number of short questions has been found to give much more reliable results than the traditional essay type tests.

294. A word must be said about marks. The statistical handling of marks is almost unknown to most teachers. Two lists of marks, say in History and Geography in which the same units cannot be used, cannot be combined or compared unless they have the same Mean and the same Standard Deviation. This elementary truth is hardly known to a dozen teachers and this gross error is committed almost in every school and in every examination. Marks must be standardized, that is converted to a scale which has a fixed Mean and a fixed Standard Deviation, before they can be added or compared. It is the duty of every teacher and of every one in charge of public examinations to learn how to deal with marks scientifically.

295. We now turn to the second aim of the teacher, the formation of attitudes. This, as we have already indicated, has been approached scientifically within recent times only. The fundamental attitudes or desires of the human being, so far as form goes, seem to be all present by the time the child goes to school. It is already able to fear, love, hate and to feel numerous shades of these, so that the problem of the teacher becomes that of changing or adding to the stimula that are capable of arousing these attitudes, rather than of implanting really new attitudes.

296. In this connection these is a world-famous experiment. It was carried out by the Russian Physiologist and Psychologist Pavlov. Knowing that salivation results when meat is brought near a hungry dog, Pavlov succeeded in adding a new stimulus to salivation by ringing a bell at the same time as the meat was shown. After a time, when the bell alone was rung, salivation took place. These facts have been interpreted in two ways. It was assumed by the one school that the conscious mind of the dog took no part in the process. The mechanical presentation of the new stimulus with the old stimulus was all that this kind of learning required. So, according to the school the acquiring of new attitudes. (that is, attitudes to new objects) was altogether sub-conscious. The theory of the second school was that the dog knew that the bell was a sign of the production of meat. In support they point to the fact that the new learning fades out after a time if the ringing of the bell is not accompanied by the production of meat. Most likely both theories are correct and there are two methods of learning attitudes as in the case of abilities. Attitudes as well as abilities may be acquired either consciously or sub-consciously.

297. Before the child comes to school, he has already acquired blindly numerous attitudes, and these in the moral sphere are called conscience. They are naturally adopted from those prevalent in his social environment but as they were not acquired intelligently, they have the force of blind compulsions. They thus become a fruitful source of conflicts. The rational dealing with conflicts is the sphere where the school can be most helpful. The pupil must be constantly encouraged to face his conflicts intelligently, realizing the compulsive and intolerant nature of many of his attitudes. He should learn how to solve them intelligently rather than repress them blindly in a shame-faced manner, thus developing “complexes”.

298. Attitudes concern not only the moral life of the pupil but his whole life. They include his likes and dislike for persons, subjects of study like music, literature, art, and work. In all these spheres both methods are available. The sub-conscious method, usually called teaching by example or by suggestion, is extensively employed. The learner catches blindly by this method the enthusiasms of his teacher and of his friends and those whom he admires and respects. It is essential that a good teacher should possess this quality which enables him to arouse enthusiasm blindly, but a good teacher cannot stop at that. The pupil must be led to find for himself sufficient rational grounds for his enthusiasms so that when he leaves his teacher, he has an undying enthusiasm which is his own. This the teacher can accomplish only by the use of intelligent or conscious methods. He must appeal to the intelligence of the child. It is said that a boy who did not want to learn Latin acquired a strong desire for it when it

was pointed out to him that he could not become a doctor without Latin. This is an example of an indirect interest but it would have been much better if the knowledge of Latin itself aroused in him an interest in the subject.

299. Indirect methods of arousing interest have constantly to be used by the teacher. Marks, honour boards, prizes have all been used for this purpose. They, like formal application exercises, have their place and use, but a school which never succeeds in arousing a genuine interest in the work of the school is like a school where abilities are acquired which are never really used.

300. Teaching in the field of attitudes is at present thoroughly haphazard, but there is a promise of good tests in the future as shown by the following test devised by Hartshorne and May. Briefly they set a paper to a class of pupils, got the answers copied and then giving back the original answer papers asked the pupils to mark the papers according to a scheme provided by the authors, without altering the originals. The number of changes made was discovered and counted by comparison with the copies. This was taken as a measure of the pupils tendency to cheat. Of course, it is not known at present whether the tendency to cheat is a perfectly general tendency, a broad tendency or a very narrow tendency, for example, in this case limited to school work. It is clear from this example that he whole question of attitudes is in great need of investigation. ·

301. A final word has to be said in regard to the correction of faults. The compulsions of blind conscience rather than the use of intelligence govern many teachers in this matter. The primitive desire to take vengeance should be realized as deriving from infancy when attitudes were acquired blindly. The essential aim of the treatment of faults should be to help the pupil not to commit such faults again. Reproving him only arouses opposition.

Section 2. - The Home and the School.

302. The essential quality of study, as has already been indicated, is that it is the acquisition of knowledge by the student, not the imparting of knowledge by the teacher. Stated in that way it is obvious, but the fact that so much of the knowledge is acquired at school tends to create the impression that the emphasis is upon the teacher and not upon the student. Nobody denies, and certainly we do not deny, the importance of the function of the teacher: what we emphasize is that teaching is one only of the methods of study, and that others are equally important. The teacher's function is to guide the student, not to push knowledge into his mind. The extent of the guidance necessarily varies according to the maturity of the student. The hand of the student may have to be guided in his first writing lesson, whereas the University lecture may consist only of personal observations by the teacher on matters which have never been dealt with in books.

303. Where this principle is understood, many consequences follow which are rarely appreciated by parents. One is that the first and, in some ways, the most important instruction is given in the home. In this we include not only the formal instruction that the young child obtains on his mother's knee, but the general atmosphere of the home, the behavior that the child observes, the games that he plays, he conversations to which he listens even when he understands little, the baby-talk that is addressed to him, the pets that walk in and out, the animals in the compound, the birds in the air and the plants in the garden. From these he cannot fail to obtain instruction; but the parent must not believe that he has no responsibility for making certain that the child sees what he ought to see and hears what he, ought to hear. This is, we think, even more important than preventing the child from seeing what he ought not to see or hearing what he ought not to hear. What is wanted is not seclusion and protection only, but positive assistance towards the development of the relatively instructed mind that the child ought to have before he goes to school and continued help throughout his school career and so long as he remains a member of the family in the home. The good parent is he and especially the good mother is she who, without interfering with the child's private play, helps him with advice and assistance and provides him with the tools of learning. It is possible to intervene too much and too often.

304. Education comes by experiment and through the private games in which adults cannot take part. We do not suggest that the child should learn by experience that fire is dangerous and the rice pot not suitable for play; but provided that adequate protection and instruction are given, the child should be encouraged to act and above all think for himself, and especially to learn that elementary but most important principle that every consequence

has a cause. Formal instruction there must be: the child must be taught the elements of personal hygiene, must learn to speak, to appreciate nursery rhymes and chants, to look at pictures, and, if the parent thinks it desirable, to understand the elements of religion. For the test, what he needs most (apart from protection and food clothing and shelter) is the equipment for play, on a scale suitable to the parent's purse, from the rudest and most primitive toys to libraries of books, radios, gramophones and musical instruments.

305. This process is fundamentally important in the early, formative years. It is, however, almost as important throughout the child's school career. The parent 's responsibility does not end where the teacher's begins. It is generally found that certain families produce outstanding men and women in each generation not because of any hereditary genius, but because the home environment is such as to encourage the development of native talent. Nor, indeed, is this talent found to be exhibited in any particular direction. The father may be a great surgeon, the son an accomplished musician, and the grandson a famous artist. The native talent is there, but it is brought out to play its full part through the eager curiosity, the tradition of inquiry, the mental activity that go on in the home and which cannot fail to influence the young student. To take a simple case; it is found by experience that the habit of reading is acquired easily where the parents have a large library and are accustomed to reading; it is not easily developed at school if it is not the normal habit of the home.

306. It follows, too, that work in school should be closely connected with the play in the home. The transition from home to school is not really a transition because the home remains important. Study in school is an addition to study in the home and we use "study" in a wide sense, as meaning any activity which assists mental development. Accordingly, it should in the early years be of much the same kind as study in the home. A nursery school or nursery class is not a school or class where children are nursed; it is a school or class in which the atmosphere of the nursery is adapted and deliberately diverted to the end of mental development. As in the nursery, the aim should be to let the child develop through his own activities and to follow out his own interests. Only slowly is he brought to the study of the things that he must learn though he finds them dull-things, for instance, like the multiplication table and the principles of perspective.

307. From this angle it is essential that there should be collaboration between the school and the home. There is, however, another angle. The child is a person, an entity, a peculiar person in the strict sense. His qualities and peculiarities are best known, or ought to be known best, to his parents. The task of the teacher is to adopt his instruction to those qualities and peculiarities. In the ideal system therefore, the teacher should have a dossier on each child, compiled not merely from his own observation but also from the more frequent and much longer period of observation of the parent. Particularly is this necessary where, for some apparently unaccountable reason, the child is difficult or backward or wayward. The cause can be ascertained, but in all probability, it can be ascertained only in the home. It should be the task of the teacher to find out what it is that makes the child's behavior peculiar, and the task of the parent to give the teacher all the assistance in his power. Teachers who have been evacuated with their charges in England have discovered how much simpler their task becomes, how much better the education they can give, through the opportunities furnished by evacuation for observing the child's behavior out of school. We do not recommend this heroic remedy, but parents should understand that, the more the teacher learns about the child, the more effective will his school education become.

308. It follows from the same principle, too, that education in school should be adapted to the child's environment. Education should proceed from the known to the unknown, from the village to the great wide world, from the common plants, animals and insects to the flora and fauna of strange countries, from the economy of the village and the household to the economics of the world. The old, familiar things provide the first lessons because some of them have already been learned and others the child will learn as his experience widens even if no teacher assists him. Nor should this attitude, of beginning from the known and proceeding to the unknown, be limited to the first stages of education. Certainly, the main task of the primary school should be to fit knowledge already acquired into wider categories whose scope can be understood by immature students; but at every stage, including the University stage, the process of generalization should work outwards from the conditions of Ceylon. Failure to appreciate this elementary principle is part of the explanation of the dissatisfaction with London and Cambridge examinations. It is absurd that Ceylon students should pass examinations on London syllabuses before they have passed examinations on Ceylon syllabuses. In Ceylon they should study the world from Ceylon; in

London, if they ever have the advantage of going there, they should study it from London. This is, however, a minor application of the principle: what we emphasize is that every subject should look outwards from local conditions and local problems until in the final stages of academic education, Ceylon recedes far into the background, and becomes merely a Laboratory in which the problems of the world as a whole are investigated. It is not merely that Ceylon education should have a Ceylon orientation; it is also that education in the village should be based on experience of life in the village. From these beginnings the student can, if he is sufficiently able, proceed to the most rarified heights of knowledge. Education is not parochial merely because it begins in the parish.

Section 3. - The Teacher.

309. We suspect that in Ceylon the relation between study and teaching is seldom understood. Indeed, the prevalence of coaching for examinations shows that it is not understood. Coaching is the negation of education. It is an attempt to exploit the weaknesses of the examination system in order to confer upon the student a mark of attainment to which he is not entitled. It ignores what the student ought to know and concentrates on what the coach thinks that the examiner may want him to answer. Questions are "spotted" and facts are selected not with a view to their relevance but with a view to their assimilation and reduction. Accuracy is subordinated to simplicity for purposes of memorization. Ideas cease to be ideas and become facts. The student is not taught to think, but to learn off by heart just enough to delude the examiner into believing that be understands.

310. That so many people are deluded is due partly to the fact that many parents are themselves not truly educated, and partly to the fact that the examiners are often far-off strangers who do not know the atmosphere in which the scripts have been answered. Many an examinee flaunts his certificate from a famous University when he ought to produce a statement that his mind has been warped and his mental faculties dulled by such-and-such a coaching establishment. The concentration on examinations and text-books appears to have infected all part of the educational system, with the result that teachers often consider their function to be to push their students through examinations. Writers of text book make the same assumption, and the quality of a text-book is assumed to be determined not by its suitability for use by a teacher as a text-book, but its suitability for use by a student as cram book.

311. This is truly a menace to the educational system of the Island, and it can be removed only by a full understanding by teachers of the nature of their calling, and by a ruthless refusal to meet the demands of parents for easy certificates. The system is not only bad for the welfare of the Island; it is bad also for the individual student; and if parents can once be shown that this is so there will be less pressure on teachers for examination ''successes''. The certificate may help the young man to obtain a job, but if the method of obtaining it has been coaching and cramming, there is no reason whatever why he should keep the job. Once a new spirit prevails, the young man with a worthless certificate will find himself ousted by the young man with a certificate which states its facts truly. Examinations as such we have dealt with already. The subject is relevant in this Chapter only because the text-book is commonly regarded as the means of passing an examination, and the teacher as a mere hack, a person whose function it is to push unpalatable information down reluctant throats. That is not the purpose of the text-book or the function of the teacher. It is essential that he should regard himself not merely as a public servant but as a servant of the public, a privileged person whose task is to secure the highest mental development in those committed to his charge. If in this transitional period the parents want certificates, he should explain that certificates are numerous and educated men and women few, and that it is the educated men and women who not only learn to live a full life but also (if that is important) carry off the prizes.

312. This involves a change of attitude in many teachers, but not in all. Once the principle has been established, the teacher will find the method that suits his personality and his technique. For this reason, it as an essential corollary that he should be allowed freedom to use his own methods and should be at liberty to experiment provided that he remembers that he is experimenting with the youth of the nation. We emphasize in Chapter XVIII, the need for elasticity in the curricula. It follows logically from the principles enunciated in this Chapter. The curriculum is a guide; its purpose is to indicate the kind of line on which the teacher should proceed in order to secure the all-round development of the student. It is not intended to bind his hands or to interfere too

substantially with his discretion. He must not, of course, go off on a frolic of his own. The individual teacher plays only a small part in the development of the student. The school as a whole must accept the responsibility and the staff must therefore work as a team in order that it may turn out the finished product to the best design available. This means that the experimentation in curricula must be rather by the school than by the teacher, and that the teacher's freedom is within the limits of the curriculum laid down for him by the school. The school, in turn, will pay attention to the general needs of the Island and the particular needs of the class of students who seek learning within its doors. The needs of the Island, as we see them, are indicated in this Report, and from time to time they are indicated in the model curricula of the Department of Education. It is possible to have both a broad similarity and considerable individual variation. Neither infinite diversity nor detailed uniformity is desirable.

Section 4. - A Note on Text Books.

313. Though much is learned by observation and experiment, much more can be learned only from books. It is here more than in any other form of activity that the student needs guidance. At a late stage, no doubt he knows where to look. In most Universities students are taught to use the library, learn how to seek out bibliographies and to compile their own, and study the mysteries of learned periodicals. But this is a very late stage, and at school and even more in the home the books come to the student, not the student to the books. The first requirements, therefore, is that the books should be accessible. The proof of the existence of a literate population is to be found in the presence of a small library even in the poorest home, and even if they be the "Penguins" and the "Pelicans" of Great Britain or the yellow-backs of pre-war France. We are far from that stage in Ceylon; and, indeed, there is a scarcity of cheap books in the only languages that the great mass of the people can understand. It should be the task of the educational system, from the University of Ceylon downwards, to make these books accessible and therefore cheap. Much can be done, however, by good school libraries; and here the great majority of the schools of Ceylon are notably deficient. A school without a library is not a school: it is at best a learning factory and at worst a coaching establishment. For purposes of recognition and grant it cannot be regarded as efficient. Fortunately, there are schools where there are not only books, but rooms set apart for their use. Every modern school - certainly every modern secondary school - in a western country has its library room in which there are books of all kinds, magazines and newspapers, and, above all, that quiet and comfortable atmosphere that makes browsing attractive and encourages students to take them away for study (if that is the right word) at leisure. The provision of similar facilities is one of the most essential requirements of the Ceylon educational system.

314. In referring to books we are not of course referring to text-books. There must be such books, but they should not be the sole reading-matter of the student. Indeed, our impression is that there are too many text-books and too few book: - The text-books are not infrequently of an inferior kind, mere cram-books, aids to passing examinations, desiccated chunks of stuff and nonsense, inaccurate and indigestible summaries of bigger and better books. In discussing the branches of knowledge suitable for study at school we have already remarked on the part which text-books should play. They must in large measure be crammed with facts. Thus, the student tends to get the impression that learning means memorizing. It is for that reason, in part, that modern education emphasizes practical subjects and practical methods. Plays should, wherever possible be acted or at least read, and not ''studied''. Poetry should be read aloud and explained, not over loaded with annotations. Language should be taught as language, and not entirely as grammar and composition. Natural science should be based essentially on demonstration and experiment. Mathematics should be shown to be a logical process and not a series of propositions. There is great scope for field work in geography and botany. In history there is ample opportunity for dramatization by means of plays and debates. Besides all these are the essentially practical subjects like gardening, handicrafts and domestic science. Even so, these methods are more often adjuncts to study from books, though the books should generally be readers, plays, speeches, documents, historical novels, books on hobbies, and so on.

315. It must be remembered, too, that text-books are generally out-of-date. For the most part, they are written by authors who follow modern research, if at all, only from a distance. Frequently, they are written by persons whose only anxiety is to cash in on someone else's ideas. Original work is rarely to be found in text-books; there is some reason for saying that it should not be found there; for text-books are at best summaries, and

originality should be justified in full. The first step in the production of books for schools is the production of books for Universities. The defect of many books on Ceylon conditions is that they have been written before adequate knowledge has become available.

316. With all their defects, text-books must be used. It must be emphasized, however, that they are not suitable for use alone. For the private student they are guides to larger and better books. If he can pass an examination wit-h text-book knowledge alone, there must be something wrong with the examination or the examiner. In school, as in the University, the text-book provides the basis of fact, reasonably accurate if the book is reasonably good, which avoids overloading teaching with masses of information. The task of the teacher is not to drive facts into the student's head, but to make him think. Every subject, however, has its basis of hard fact, its substance of which knowledge is necessary before the student can understand the problems to which it gives rise. The text-book is intended to give the knowledge, but the teacher is expected to assist the student to obtain understanding.

CHAPTER XVIII.

THE DIFFERENTIATION OF CURRICULA.

Section 1. - The Need for Variety.

317. It is not possible for this Committee or any other body to determine in detail what is the most suitable curriculum for the schools of Ceylon. There is no standard curriculum which would be equally suitable everywhere, for town and country, for girls and boys. Nor is uniformity desirable. Education is a continuous experiment, and a uniform standard will probably be a low standard. It is essential that teachers should be encouraged to experiment, that successful experiments should be copied wherever conditions are similar, and that unsuccessful experiments should not be repeated. The fundamental principle is that the school should adapt itself to its environment, because it is concerned with the education of its own pupils, and the education already given and yet to be given in the home will necessarily be related to its pupils' environment. The best teacher is the keen teacher, and the keen teacher necessarily has ideas of his own which are at least worth a trial in practice. Accordingly, the teacher, like the pupil, should be given free scope.

318. The existence of the denominational schools and undenominational assisted schools will necessarily imply a substantial variety in curricula and teaching methods. Whatever be the defects of the denominational system in other directions, this at least is an advantage. Nevertheless, we do not assume that all State schools in the same category will be operated to a common standard. If at some time the municipalities and the urban councils are associated with educational administration, there will necessarily be as great a local variation as there is in Great Britain. It should nevertheless be made plain that even schools controlled by the same administrative body, whether the Department of Education, a local authority, or an educational trust, should exhibit a considerable variety. Apart from the need for adapting education to the environment of the child and of giving the teacher freedom to experiment, the rivalry between schools, if it proceeds on the right lines, can do nothing but good to the cause of education. The system of inspection is not intended to mould the schools to the same pattern. Its purpose is to make certain that they are efficient and to bring the latest idea of education to the notice of school principals.

319. Our proposals for reforming the examination system will assist in achieving the aim of a wide variety of educational development. It is unfortunately true that a large part of Ceylon education is determined at present by the "subjects" of examinations. The proposals made in Chapter XI. by cutting down public examinations to a minimum, will prevent the continuation of this system. The child should be taught what it is good for him to be taught, not what it is expected that he will write in examinations. Under the scheme proposed, no child will be submitted to a formal examination for testing attainment unless and until he reaches the age of sixteen. We insist that, even in the secondary schools where examinations must necessarily play a larger part, the scheme of the examination next to come shall not determine too strictly the curriculum which the student follows. The notion

that subjects in which there will be no examination are irrelevant or "a waste of time" must be combated. The parent must learn that his son or daughter has to be educated, not pushed through an examination.

320. 0ur purpose is to help the teacher to find the right balance, not to impose a balance on him. It appears to be unnecessary for us to indicate how far the environment should influence the curriculum. It is clear that a practical school in a village must differ considerably from a practical school in a town, and equally clear that the curriculum of a school in Jaffna must differ from the curriculum of a school in Colombo. We must, however. leave the school principal to work out these differences for himself. We need discuss only two special classes of students, girls and backward children.

Section 2. - The Education of Girls.

321. In the sphere of education, far too much emphasis is laid upon the physical differences between boys and girls and upon the differences in the careers which they will be called upon to follow. The aim of education in both cases is mental development, and there is no evidence that the mind of a girl differs radically from that of a boy. What is different is the range of interests and the atmosphere in which they have been brought up. Since education should consist in large measure of inducing the child to educate himself through the subjects in which he is interested, the range of interests is necessarily important. One does not expect a boy to take any particular interest in the dressing of dolls; nor does one expect a girl to get especially excited about boxing. The home environment, too, is often different. The boy is encouraged to educate himself, is given a wider 7-J.N.A 93095 (11/49) liberty and is permitted to take a wider interest in the affairs of his father. The girl, in many Ceylon homes, is thought of primarily as a future mother whose education will be at most of doubtful value, and whose concern should be with the domestic arrangements and not with the life and thought of the world outside. Whether this attitude is right or wrong is, for our present purposes, immaterial; its importance lies in the fact that the girl often has a much narrower range of interests than the boy, and that she usually gets much less of an education at home. Since the education at school must be based upon the education in the home, it follows that the methods employed in the early years of school education must in some respects be different.

322. Nevertheless, there need be very little differentiation in the primary school whether the girls are taught in co-educational schools or in separate schools. Where social conventions permit of it, co-educational schools should be encouraged. They are particularly valuable for girls, in spite of the risk of their becoming "roughnecks", because the wider interests of the boys derived from their more varied home life, necessarily reacts upon the mental development of the girls. With normal boys, too, the presence of girls is an advantage. It is part of the usual process of development that the boy should be rough and uncouth and, if the school is to convert him into a social being, in the Aristotelian sense, the rough edges must be smoothed and the elements of social behavior instilled. In co- educational primary schools the only differentiation required is in the manual training; needlework should take the place of carpentry or other forms of comparatively heavy manual labor. We would stress also that physical training and health education should be regarded more from the angle of the girl than it has been in the past.

Section 3. - Defective and Backward Children.

323. For purposes of administration, defective and backward children must be divided into several classes. Except where there is some definite physical defect, as in the cases of blind, deaf and epileptic children, however, no clear lines can be drawn. Each class shades into the next, and there is a variation in mental ability from the "imbeciles'' who are totally incapable of education to those bright students who, with proper training, are obviously capable of education to any standard whatsoever. The practice should be not to place a child in a class deemed to be of low level of intelligence if there is any possibility of regarding him as belonging to a higher class. In other words, the presumption should always be in favour of normalcy. A child capable of even the sketchiest education should be regarded as mentally deficient and not imbecile, and a child capable of following normal instruction, however slowly, should be regarded as dull and not as mentally deficient. It is necessary to make this

point rather emphatically because mistakes may easily be made and, even if they are subsequently rectified, a stigma will attach to the child for the rest of his life.

324. Blind and deaf children are in a special category. They are fully capable of education, and the only problem is to give them the special training which will enable their physical defect to be overcome. With proper teaching, the normal child in either category can proceed to the most advanced degree of education and pass the same examinations as the normal child; who possesses all his sensory faculties. Blind children must be taught to read in braille, and greater reliance must be placed upon oral instruction. Deaf children must be taught lip-reading, though most of the instruction must be through printed material. It is particularly important that deaf children should be taught to speak. Children who are both blind and deaf create a more difficult problem but with care and attention even they can be taught something by the development of their sense of touch.

325. English education authorities have imposed upon themselves the duty of providing education in special schools certified by the Board of Education for all deaf and blind children for whose education provision is not otherwise made. In the case of deaf children, the obligation begins when the child reaches the age of seven years and continues until the child is sixteen. This time lag is necessary because of the almost complete absence of education at home and the probable in ability of the child to speak. We think that the Department of Education should undertake a similar obligation.

326. Imbeciles can receive no education at all and we merely emphasize again that a child who is capable of a little elementary education should be classed as mentally deficient and not as an imbecile. Defective children are defined in England as ''children, not being imbecile and not being merely dull or backward who, by reason of mental or physical defect are incapable of receiving proper benefit from the instruction in the ordinary public elementary schools, but are not incapable of receiving proper benefit from instruction in such special classes or schools as may be provided for the purpose". English education authorities have imposed upon themselves the duty of providing such instruction in special classes or special schools, though in the case of epileptic children the obligation does not arise until the age of seven years. A special school must be provided where there are not less than forty-five defective children within the area of the authority for whom provision cannot be made in some other way. Every child must be examined from time to time to ascertain whether he is fit for education in a public elementary school, and must be so examined if the parent requests. In any case, only the medical authorities, in consultation with the headmaster, can certify a child to be mentally defective.

327. The education of mentally defective children is an expensive and difficult task, but it has been found by experience that it can be undertaken by specially trained teachers. The emphasis must necessarily be upon practical work not requiring a large power of concentration; and, though the child can rarely be taught to maintain himself, he can normally acquire a limited mental life which gives some satisfaction to himself and to his parents. Moreover, mental defect is not necessarily permanent, and it is often found that mental defectives who have had special training can subsequently be classed as merely dull. We are not competent to deal with this problem as it applies to Ceylon. We only suggest that the Executive Committees of Education and Health should appoint a special committee to investigate the scope of the problem and the means by which it can be met.

328. The distinction between the mentally deficient and the dull is not easily drawn, though in practice it will be drawn by the medical authorities. If we judged from statistics alone, we should think the problem of dull children a very serious one in Ceylon. It is probable, however that the backwardness of so many children, especially in the villages, is due not to innate mental incapacity, but simply to disease, under-nourishment and inadequate education in the home as well as at school. So far as it is due to disease and under-nourishment, the problem is one for the medical authorities and those responsible for the development of the economic resources of the Island. Much can be done in the schools by education and free meals, not so much for the improvement of the physique of the present generation of students as for developing gradually the physical fitness of the whole population through a rise in the physical standard of each generation of parents. At the same time, dullness is not necessarily due only to physical conditions, it is due also to the absence of effective education in the home. It is not possible to convert an almost wholly illiterate population into an almost literate population in the course of a single generation. The children of illiterate parents are almost certain to be more backward than the children of literate parents. Compulsory education up to the age of fourteen years is still a law rather than a fact, and this

element of fiction in the situation helps to perpetuate the difference between normal and backward children, and it is bound to continue, irrespective of the even more important elements of disease and malnutrition, until nearly every child can be brought up to the ordinary fourteen-plus standard. The tasks of the educational system in this connection are, therefore, -

(a) to achieve a high standard of physical education;
(b) to make certain that every child attends school regularly during the whole period of compulsory school attendance; and
(c) to take special pains with dull and backward children in the belief that there will be less likelihood of their producing dull and backward children when they become parents.

We are at present concerned with the third of these tasks.

329. Differentiation of classes is the obvious solution. The speed of the class is the speed of its slowest member unless, indeed, he is simply ignored and treated as a "passenger". The present practice of keeping numerous over-age pupils in the fifth standard is absurd. The anxiety hitherto displayed by parents for children who could never pass the J. S. C. to stay at school in the hope that the examiners will become tired of their hand writing and pass them in sheer desperation is not to be commended. Inevitably there is difficulty with the ordinary dull or backward pupil in a small school; but in the large schools there is no difficulty whatever in splitting the classes. This is in fact the common practice in many parts of the world, where each standard is divided into A, B and C groups according to the anticipated speed of learning. These classes will not necessarily have the same curricula. Many who progress extremely slowly in academic subjects can be persuaded to move much more quickly if they have more congenial studies, perhaps including a larger element of practical work. In the primary schools this system is, in fact, the corollary of the scheme of differentiation of post primary schools. The ordinary teacher will have a fairly good idea of the result which the fifth standard test will produce. Since the test will not be in any substantial degree an attainment test, no harm will follow if the teacher is mistaken. A student in class-of the fifth standard can pass into a secondary school, if he has the kind of ability required, just as easily as the student in A class. Only the presumption is the other way.

330. Nor must it be assumed that pupils move equally quickly in all subjects. The system of promoting a student according to a sort of average spread all over the curriculum ignores the fact that, though his average may be low, his capacity in a particular group of subjects may be high. To meet this difficulty, it is necessary to adopt the "set" system, by which some pupils in the fifth standard, say, will be learning arithmetic with some pupils from the fourth standard. These methods will ease the difficulties caused by the presence of backward children, particularly where the backwardness is due to inadequate early training. Many pupils in Ceylon begin attending school at the age of seven or eight, or even later. They can proceed much more quickly, because of their physical maturity, if special attention is paid to them, so that by the eight standard they should have almost caught up with those who started their school careers at the age of five.

331. We do not suggest that these methods will convert dull children into bright children. Physical and nutritional difficulties cannot be overcome in this way. We only suggest that a rigid system of standards is not the way to tackle the problem, and that there must be differentiation of classes as well as differentiation of curricula. In any event, special attention must be paid to backward and dull children, not only for their own sakes, but also for the sake of the children of whom they will be the parents.

CHAPTER XIX.

THE SCHOOL AS A COMMUNITY.

332. We have probably given sufficient emphasis to our view that education does not consist only in the acquisition of the elements of "academic" and "practical" knowledge. The child is not being trained only to secure employment, and still less to pass an examination. The purpose of the school is to teach him to live a full life as a man and as a citizen. He has to be formed, by the joint action of the home and the school, into a social being.

Accordingly, study and instruction in bookish and even in practical knowledge are part only of the process. His knowledge will be useless to himself and perhaps dangerous to the world unless he can fit himself into the nation, become one with his fellow-men, and undertake the social obligations of a citizen. It is thus an extremely important part of the work of the school, as it is of the home, to develop "character".

333. By "character we mean all those indescribable but easily recognized qualities which produce the good citizen, ranging from common politeness and ordinary tact to public spirit and leadership. As a nation becomes more closely integrated economically the importance of these qualities becomes more evident. The study independence, or self-dependence, of the peasant is not enough for the complicated social structure created by the increasing division of labor, and the corollary of the western economic system into which Ceylon has been drawn is as the theorists have long ago pointed out, social solidarity. Somewhere, and as early as possible, the boy and the girl must be taught that they belong not merely to a family but to a nation and, indeed, to a community of nations.

334. Ceylon has developed family solidarity to a high degree, and this forms a solid basis for the development of wider social obligations. On the foundation of this family solidarity should be developed a wider sense of obligation to the whole community. This imposes on the schools a special obligation to develop the personal qualities which go to make up citizenship.

335 The task is admittedly not one for the schools alone. The elements of civic morality ought to be taught, and in some measure, they are taught, in the home. Moral principles, too, are closely connected with, even where they do not form part of, the principles of religion. We have already decided that religion should be taught even in the State schools. This does not mean that the State is taking over an obligation which rests primarily on the parents and the religious bodies; it means only that the State desires to assist in the religious education of its. children where the parents do not consider (as some do) that religion should be studied only by adults. Also, the problem is more difficult in Ceylon than in many other countries because of the diversity of religious opinions. We wish to emphasize that, in discussing the purely secular methods by which social solidarity may be developed, we do not ignore the others.

336. If a school is to develop loyalty to itself, it must in some way be distinctive. If it is only one among thousands, as like as grains of rice, there is no particular reason why a child should feel pleasure in belonging to it. He must regard it as a privilege to belong to X School and be able to boast about its qualities. It must therefore have a personality, a spirit of its own. In some degree this can be attained by the development of a peculiar physical environment. The student is more affected by architecture and design than he realizes. The school is associated in his mind with the buildings. The stones become hallowed by their associations, but part of the process consists in having stones which can be hallowed. Bare barrack-like structures made all to a pattern are better than no schools at all, put cheap schools need not be nasty. Also, it is possible for teachers who take a pride in their school to beautify the most drab. For other reasons which we have emphasized in Chapter XVI. there is the need for creating an attractive and cheerful environment. It is not difficult in Ceylon where flowers grow luxuriantly. A few seeds cost nothing, and flowering trees and shrubs can hide the worst features of bad buildings and improve the attractions of the best.

337. It is nevertheless true that the atmosphere of a school depends primarily on the qualities of those who teach in it. A principal who regards his school as something more than a means of earning a livelihood, and a staff whose members are keen on their profession, will soon find means to develop the term spirit. Those means exist partly in the approach to the ordinary school work. "Mr. Chips" and his like are endeared to the memory of thousands of old boys not because of their "extra-curricular activities", a term to which Mr. Chips would certainly have taken exception, but because of the personality which they expressed in their ordinary teaching. The ways of brilliant teachers are varied, and we are unable to write a prescription, but they depend on genuine enthusiasm for education, and education not in the abstract but education meaning the teaching of little Johnny to think for himself, to take a pride in being little Johnny, to realize that after all little Johnny is quite an estimable person. Teachers who take to teaching for love of the work are but few and those who take to teaching merely because the job happened to be vacant, or there was nothing else to do, are many. It is nevertheless equally true that any task in which there is not genuine enthusiasm is at best a bore, and he enjoys life best who undertakes his work

with enthusiasm. Teachers, too, have the great advantage of craftsmen, that they see the products of their labor shaping themselves in their hands.

338. The extra-curricular activities are probably even more important. We share Mr. Chips' dislike of the term. Such activities are extra -curricular only in the sense of the Education Department. That is, they are not prescribed in the "Scheme of Studies". For our purposes they are as much part of the curriculum as arithmetic and grammar. If they are voluntary, so much the better, provided the everybody volunteers. In truth all education is voluntary. A boy

can be taken to the text-book, but he cannot be made to swallow. These activities are an essential part of the school work, and should be regarded as such by parents. Even if the whole purpose of a school were to enable its pupils to pass examinations, they would be valuable. It is quite untrue that the best examination results are always obtained by those who devote themselves keenly to their books. It is the experience of examiners the world over that the bright boy or girl with wide interests is the one who carries off the prizes. The higher the student goes in the educational system the more true this statement becomes. The young men and women who find themselves at the top of the first-class list may not be great athletes, but they are usually students with very wide interests. In fact, however, the passing of an examination is only the jumping of one hurdle, even when the process is regarded from the purely selfish angle of the fond parent. At some stage there comes the test of "character'', whether it is an interview by a prospective employer or the *viva voce* test in the Civil Service examination. Here the forced product shows himself to be forced, to be weak in the stem and lacking in roots. Finally, his subsequent career does not depend upon his examination successes. Within a few years they are forgotten, and his future progress depends upon his character-his breadth of vision, his general intelligence, his adaptability, his honesty, his energy, and every other quality which the word implies.

339. In this process of development games may play a substantial part, though they are of course only one means of producing character. The fact that the school itself has good teams is of some importance because their success helps to create that loyalty among the mass of the pupils that we emphasise as essential. Nevertheless, too much emphasis should not be given to the comparatively few who play games well enough to be chosen for representative matches. It is still more important that a large part of the school should play games themselves and to learn the lessons of team-spirit, leadership, and determination which any game, eastern or western, should teach. To strive hard to win is in itself an education; to win with becoming modesty is an education; to lose valiantly is an education. To suggest, as some parents apparently do, that games "waste time" is absurd, they no more waste time than the "subjects" of the Matriculation examination waste time. Nor is it necessary to have a vast array of cups and certificates. In most Ceylon schools they are far more numerous than they are elsewhere, with the result that the cost of education is put up unnecessarily. What is important is not that the individual is successful, still less that he should have a cup to place on his table or a certificate to hang on the wall, but that he should strive hard to make the team successful.

340. It is neither possible nor desirable to organize many different games in a school. They require too much space, too much equipment, and too much energy. It is certainly desirable that every school should have a substantial playing-field, but it is quite unnecessary to have a pitch for every game in the Book of Sports. Also, if there are too many games the cost of equipment will go up and there will be a temptation, which must be firmly resisted, to regard games as an "extra" to be paid only by parents able and willing to pay for them. Nor do we wish to see the time and energy of teachers taken up with a multiplicity of games. On the other hand, the games selected should be as varied as possible so as to suit different types of ability. The games most suited to Ceylon boys are hockey, cricket, association football and eastern games. In the case of the vast majority of schools the selection should be from eastern games of which there is a large variety. Rugby football is a good game for older boys, though we do not suggest that the smaller schools should provide for the playing of both games. Tennis is a particularly good game for girls as for boys, because it is the one game that they ought to be able to continue playing after they leave school. Swimming is desirable both for boys and for girls, not only because it provides very healthy exercise and can be enjoyed by a large section of the population the whole year round, but also because it is an elementary precaution to teach a child to swim. Other games suitable for girls are netball, captain ball, rounders, stool ball and hockey. The essential requirement is that as large a number as possible should be induced

to play and that attention should not be concentrated on the school teams. “Sports day” is and should be a great occasion, even if the standard of athletics is low, because it provides an occasion for the school to show itself publicly as a n entity, and thus assist in the development of loyalty to the school.

341. The activities of scouts and guides, cubs and brownies, are of great educational value. They create self-reliance and initiative and at the same time a capacity for leadership and a sense of discipline. For older boys, the same qualities may be developed by service in the Ceylon Cadet Battalion.

Other activities, such as those of societies and clubs, are for the most part associated with the different branches of learning. We have already emphasized the importance of informal teaching; and societies and clubs are extremely useful for this purpose because they make learning interesting and dissociate it from the atmosphere of the task and the text-book. The association of students with the running of societies instructs them in the methods of business. Also, they add to the spirit of community by establishing a less formal relation between teachers and their pupils. We would stress particularly the value of societies which make trips to places of interest, whether the purpose be to study the geography and natural resources of Ceylon, the history enshrined in its monuments and buried cities, or the agriculture and industries of its people. Clubs engaged in social service help to teach social obligations directly, and should be encouraged. It should not be difficult, too, to organize thrift clubs, tuck shops and book depots on co-operative lines; by these means business habits and a sense of mutual dependence can be inculcated. A good monitorial or prefectural system, too, is useful in developing self -discipline and capacity for leadership.

342. On all these points we really have nothing new to say. These methods have been tried and found successful in the past. There is nothing in our remarks which is not perfectly well known to the ordinary teacher. It is part of our task, however, to repeat the well-worn phrases and to encourage the well-established practices, in the hope that we may assist in restricting the unhealthy concentration on text-books and examinations which has been so dominant a characteristic of Ceylon education. We hope that the teachers will realize that it is part of their duty to undertake the misnamed extra-curricular activities, and that parents will realize that these activities are an essential part of education.

CHAPTER XX.

SUMMARY OF PRINCIPAL CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS. [13]

Aim.

343. We have taken our task to be to recommend an educational system suitable for a democracy. Such a system should, on the one hand, enable the pupil to achieve the highest degree of physical, mental and moral development of which he is capable irrespective of his wealth or social status; on the other hand, it should enable the pupil as a result of his education to use his abilities for the good of the nation in the fullest possible measure and exercise intelligently the franchise that the State has conferred on him. We also consider that our fundamental need in Ceylon is to weld the heterogonous elements of its population into a nation. This bas to be accomplished through the democratic principle of tolerance, which should permeate our entire educational system. We would, therefore, impose no limitations on educational developments that are consistent with the democratic way of life. We also emphasize two fundamental aims, namely, training of character and education for citizenship.

Present Defects.

344. Our summary of the history of education in Ceylon within recent times has made clear to us the following defects: -

[13] The figures at the end of each recommendation indicate the relevant paragraph in the body of the Report.

(a) The first major defect is the existence of two types of education according to the medium of instruction used. The great majority of our pupils are taught in “Vernacular'' schools where Sinhalese or Tamil is the medium of instruction. With a few exceptions, the rest are taught in "English" schools where English is the medium of instruction.

The objections to this system are-

(1) English has become a badge of social superiority, thus dividing the population into two more or less watertight social compartments, the English-educated and the Vernacular-educated.

(2) Sinhalese or Tamil, the "natural" medium for Sinhalese or Tamil people respectively, and the best medium through which they can effectively contribute to the world of literature and art, has not been developed.

(b) The second major defect is the excessive uniformity of our educational system, which is almost purely academic in character and bears little relation to the practical aspects of life.

Though we do not agree that education should be conditioned by the prospects of employment, and do accept the View that every child should receive the type and degree of education for which he is best fitted, it does not follow that all post-primary education should be of one type and should be almost completely divorced from the needs of the pupils after they leave school.

(c)The third major defect is the absence of equality of opportunity, the development of our educational system having resulted in two types of schools-one attended mainly by those who can afford to pay fees, and the other attended by those whose means do not permit them to do so.

(d) The fourth major defect is that "compulsory" education is in substantial measure not compulsory.

Control of Education.

345. Who should have control of education is still a burning question in Ceylon. We have therefore given much consideration to the advantages and suitability to this country of (a) a State system of public education, and (b) the voluntary system commonly known at the present day as the denominational system.

We recommend that the system of direct State control and the system of denominational control should be permitted to exist side by side. (63.)

To prevent undue multiplication of schools we recommend that the following conditions should be laid down in regard to the recognition of denominational schools established after the date of these reforms and in regard to assisting such schools from public funds: (65.)

(a) to be recognized, a denominational school shall have at least 30 pupils of s school-going age of the same denomination as the controlling body who reside with their parents within a radius from the school of two miles for boys and one mile for girls and children under 8 years of age;

(b) having been recognized and registered for grant, such a school shall have at least 30 pupils of school-going age of the same denomination as the controlling body if it is to continue to receive assistance from public funds;

(c) if it is within 2 miles of an already existing State school, children of a '' unlike '' denomination shall not be taken into account for assessing grant.

(d) if it is within 2 miles of a State school established later, children of an unlike grant denomination shall continue to be reckoned for assessing grant.

346. We also recommend that religious instruction shall be provided in all State schools subject to the condition that any parent may withdraw his child from such instruction by request addressed to the Head Teacher. Religious instruction means instruction in the religion of the parents. (66.)

347. We recommend that training colleges conducted and controlled by denominational bodies should continue to be assisted from public funds, but to be, entitled to such assistance they should be organized as educational centres in accordance with the requirements set out in Chapter XII. The existing Assisted training schools should not be aided after a period of three years unless they are recognized to conform to the requirements above referred to within this period. (67.)

348. One of the pressing problems of to-day relating to the control and management of schools is the difficulty of ensuring that schools are properly conducted and the funds collected in their name are properly used. We recommend, firstly, that no school established in the future and controlled by individual proprietor shall be assisted from public funds. Secondly, a condition of State aid to all new schools shall be that proprietorship, as defined in the Education Ordinance; shall be vested in a religious or educational society incorporated by law, or an educational society duly registered under any vvritten law, provided that in the latter case the society possesses a minimum capital of Rs. 10,000. It is necessary that one of the fundamental aims of the body that seeks to conduct a school shall be the promotion of education. (69.)

349. We also recommend the enactment of a law declaring schools receiving aid from public funds as perpetual educational trusts and providing for the registration of school preprints. (69.)

350. Private or Unaided schools.

We recommend that no undue restriction be placed on unaided schools but that power be taken to inspect them to ensure that they maintain a minimum standard in regard to accommodation including playground, equipment, staff and efficiency of instruction given. Unaided school, except private tutories, should have the right to enter candidates for school examinations held by the Department. (68.)

351. Technical schools, agricultural and trade schools should for the most part be conducted by the state. There is however no objection to private effort on this direction, but in the grant-in-aid principle should not apply. (70.)

GRADING, CLASSIFICATION AND ORGANIZATION OF SCHOOLS.

352. We recommend that school education be divided into two clear-cut stages, primary and post-primary, the dividing line being at the end of the fifth standard. The main arguments for this division are the following: -

(a) that the dividing line coincides with the onset of certain physiological changes that mark the end of childhood and the beginning of adolescence,

(b) that in the generality of cases, according to present psychological research, the dividing line marks the peak of the development of ''general ability'' and that by this age differences in the interests abilities of children begin to become apparent. (77.)

353. *The Primary School*. - We recommend for the primary stage a single type of school and it should be organized in six stages or classes. (77.)

The primary school shall be separately organized under a separate staff and headmaster and conducted in separate buildings but may be conducted alongside a post-primary school in the same premises. (77.)

354. Post-Primary Schools. - We recommend three types of post-primary schools to which all children of primary schools should be normally assigned after a suitable selective examination at the end of the fifth standard. A pupil may enter twice for his test in two consecutive years. (80.)

The three types are: -

(a) Secondary schools leading to the university and Professional Colleges,

(b) Senior schools leading to Polytechnics and Technical Schools, and

(c) Practical schools leading to the Agricultural and Trade schools.

Each of these post-primary schools should have a lower and a higher department. The work in the lower departments, extending over three years, should be practically the same in all three types. The complete course in the secondary school should be one of 7 years and in the senior school 5 years. The practical school, which will

normally have a three year course, may have a higher practical course of two years for those pupils who are capable of benefiting from such education. (79.)

The classification of pupils at the end of the fifth standard is not final since they may be reclassified at the end of the eighth standard or earlier. (81.)

355. *Age Limits.* - We recommend the following age limits: -

(a) No pupil who is 14 at the beginning of the school year, in the case of Muslims 15, shall be admitted to or retained in the primary school,

(b) No pupil shall be retained in the fifth standard for more than two years,

(c) No pupil who is 17 at the beginning of the year shall be retained in the practical school except in the higher practical department,

(d) No pupil who is 18, in the case of Muslims 19, at the beginning of the year shall be retained in the senior school,

(e) No pupil who is 20, in the case of Muslims 21, at the beginning of the year shall be retained in the secondary school. (88.)

Medium of Instruction.

356. (a) We recommend that the medium of instruction in the primary school shall be mother-tongue.

To cover doubtful and difficult cases, we have evolved the following definition of mother-tongue: -

(1) Where both parents are Sinhalese or Tamil, then Sinhalese or Tamil, as the case may be, shall be the mother-tongue.

(2) Where the parents belong to different communities, the home-language, i.e., the language commonly spoken by the parents and the children, shall be deemed to be the mother-tongue.

(3) In the case of all other persons, anyone of the following languages English, Sinhalese, Tamil or Malay- whichever the parents choose to adopt shall be deemed to be the mother-tongue. (90.)

(b) English should be introduced as a language subject in all primary schools where it is not the medium. Similarly, in primary schools where English is the medium Sinhalese or Tamil shall be a language subject. In primary schools where there are a sufficient number of Muslim children Arabic should also be taught as a language subject. (95.)

(c) In the lower department of the post-primary schools the medium of instruction shall be the mother tongue or bilingual (one of the languages being English). If the medium is not English or bilingual English shall be a compulsory second Language. If the medium is English, Sinhalese or Tamil shall be a compulsory second language. (93.)

(d) In the higher department of the secondary or senior schools the medium of instruction shall be English, Sinhalese, Tamil or bilingual. If the medium is not English or bilingual English shall be a compulsory second language. If the medium is English, Sinhalese or Tamil shall be a compulsory second language. (95.)

(e) The higher practical course shall be given through the mother tongue or bilingual medium.

Technical and Vocational Education.

357. We recommend that after the conclusion of the course in the practical School, the pupil who desires to continue his education may go into an agricultural school run by the Agricultural Department or into a trade school run by the Department of Commerce and Industries. (124, 125.)

358. At the conclusion of the higher department course of the senior school the pupil may go into a polytechnic or technical school. (123.)

359. At the conclusion of the higher department course of the secondary school the pupil may go into the University or a professional college.

360. Pupils of senior and secondary schools who have the necessary bent may he encouraged to pursue an agricultural or trade school course. (130.)

361. State Technical schools should be administered by the Department of Education. (129.)

Examinations.

362. We divide examination into two classes, "fitness" tests and "attainment" tests. A fitness test looks to the future; it seeks to determine whether the candidate is fit to proceed to a certain course of study. An attainment test looks to the past; it seeks to determine whether the candidate has attained a set standard in the courses of study which he has pursued. (131.)

363. We recommend a fitness test at the conclusion of the Vth standard. The pupils will be tested in Intelligence, the mother tongue, Arithmetic and the compulsory second language. (80.)

364. We also recommend a further fitness test at the conclusion of the VIIIth standard. The pupils will be tested for General Ability and in the following subjects: -Elementary Mathematics, mother tongue and the compulsory second language. (81, 150.)

365. We recommend the following attainment tests: -.

(1) A Senior School Certificate examination for pupils who complete the senior school course and for pupils who complete the secondary school course (with the exception of the Higher School Certificate course). (146.)

(2) A Practical School Certificate examination for pupils who complete the higher practical course in the practical schools. (144.)

(3) A Higher School Certificate examination for secondary school pupils who have passed the Senior School Certificate examination. (The next attainment test for senior school pupils after the Senior School Certificate will be the Diploma examination of the Technical schools and for the Practical School Certificate holders the Diploma examination of the agricultural or trade schools). (149.)

(4) Diploma examinations for pupils who complete the respective courses of the technical schools, agricultural schools, and trade schools.

Supply of Teachers.

366. We suggest the following classification for the future recruitment of teachers: -

(a) Trained Graduates-
Graduate with technical qualifications (technically trained graduate)
Untrained Graduate (probationer),
(b) Technically Trained Specialist,
(c)Trained Teacher,
(d) Approved Specialist,
(e) Probationer (maximum period of probation three years). (155.)

367. The training of graduates should be undertaken by the University. We recommend that the University be provided with the necessary funds at an early date to enable a Training Department to be organized. (155.)

368. For the training of non-graduate teachers we recommend a single type of training College. It should be conducted in conjunction with an educational Centre. An educational Centre should consist of a Training College and schools in which the art of teaching can be practiced. The Principal of the College shall be the controller of these schools. There should be attached to every Training College a primary school, a practical school, and a senior school or a secondary school. The Centre should have playing fields, a gymnasium, a workshop, suitable

laboratories and agricultural gardens in close proximity for the use of the component institutions. The residential system which has been in operation for many years should be continued. (158, 159.)

369. The technically Trained Specialist should possess a Diploma of a Technical or Agricultural College, or a College of Music, Art or Physical Training. (157.)

370. *Probationers*. -We recommend the creation of a grade of probationary teacher for the primary and practical schools.

The recruitment of probationers will be made on the results of a selective examination, the minimum qualification for entry to which will for the present be the Senior School Certificate or equivalent examination. (163.)

The period of probation shall not exceed three years. At the end of this period the probationer should either join a Training College or give up teaching if he is found unfit for the profession.

371. We consider that the higher department of the secondary school should be staffed by trained graduates, graduates and approved specialists for certain special subjects. Similarly, the higher department of the senior school should be staffed by trained graduates, graduates with technical qualifications, graduates and approved specialists. Probationary teachers may be employed in the lower departments provided they possess additional qualifications. (164.)

Educational Finance.

372. We recommend that education should be free from the kindergarten to the University. (171.)

373. We recommend that provision should be made to afford free board and lodging to poor students, where necessary, whatever be the type of education they receive. (170.)

374. We recommend that teachers' salaries in accordance with an agreed incremental scale should remain the basis of computation of grant to Assisted schools including training colleges and that the grant should cover the full salaries of an "eligible" staff (172.)

375. We recommend that the eligible staff, i.e., the staff for which grant will be paid, should be determined on the basis of the following quota of pupils per teacher: - (173.)

Primary, practical and senior schools: 27 units of average attendance.
Secondary school: 22 units of average attendance.

376. We recommend that, besides the salary grant, an equipment grant should be paid annually at the following rates: -. (174.)

Primary school: Not exceeding Re. 1.50 per unit of average attendance.
Practical school: Not exceeding Rs. 2.50 per unit of average attendance.
Senior and secondary school: Not exceeding Rs. 5 per unit of average attendance.
Training colleges: Not exceeding Rs. 20 per unit of average attendance.

377. We recommend that the secondary and senior schools be authorized to levy an equipment fee if they choose to do so. In that case they will not receive any equipment grant. The rate of equipment fee shall be as follows: - (174.)

Senior school: Not exceeding Rs. 2 per pupil per mensem.
Secondary school: Not exceeding Rs. 3 per pupil per mensem.

378. We recommend a salaries scheme for teachers based on the principle of family allowances. The scheme is given in Appendix 7. (176.)

Educational Administration.

379. We suggest that a school survey should be undertaken at the earliest opportunity. The results of the survey should be published and the co-operation of denominational authorities sought to give effect to an accepted plan for the establishment of new schools, amalgamation of existing schools, &c. (178.)

380. We consider that Municipal Councils and the more well-to-do Urban Councils should be called upon to hear a share of the responsibility for education. We recommend that they might begin by assuming sole charge of primary education. The Central Government should contribute a share of the cost, the other share being found from rates. (180.)

381. If a new school is put up in a locality where it is not necessary, the Director of Education should warn the promoters of the school at the earliest opportunity that assistance from public funds should not be expected. (181.)

382: We recommend that provision be made for compulsory education to begin at 5 years of age. (182.)

383. The Director's powers for controlling managers should be increased. We would lay down that a manager should conform to the following requirements: (183.)

(a) He should be able to understand the Ordinance, the Code, departmental circulars, &c., and should be able to conduct correspondence without the assistance of a third party in one of the three languages, English, Sinhalese or Tamil,

(b) He should be of good character and be able to command the respect and confidence of parents and teachers, and

(c) He, or the proprietor, who recommends his appointment, is possessed of property or funds to the extent of Rs. 10,000 which should be available as an outlay for conducting the school.

384. We recommend that adequate provision should be made for the medical inspection of pupils. (184.)

385. In regard to the recruitment of personnel to the higher posts in the Inspectorate, we consider that while the promotion system may continue, there should be no hard and fast rule against recruitment from the teaching profession. (186.)

386. We recommend that the Inspectorate should be strengthened so that Inspectors may devote the greater part of their time to educational work. (187.)

387 We recommend the abolition of Grade II. (Ordinary) of the Inspectorate. We do not favour the division of the grades of Divisional, District and Circuit Inspectors into sub-grades in the case of future recruitment. (186.)

388. We recommend the constitution of a Central Examination Board to be in charge of all examinations. The Board will exercise executive authority. (188.)

389. We also recommend that constitution of a Council of Educational Research co-ordinate experiments and research in education (1.94.)

390. We have given much consideration to the question of the appointment, dismissal and disciplinary control of teachers of Assisted schools.

We recommend that an Ordinance entitled ''The Assisted Schools Teachers' Tenure Ordinance'' be passed with the following main provisions: - (194.)

(a) Appointment to be governed by conditions given in a schedule to the Ordinance.

(b) Every appointment to be valid for purposes of grant to receive the prior approval of the Director, such approval not being withheld except on grounds of qualifications, efficiency, or character or the financial position of the school or on any other grounds set out in the Code.

(c) If a teacher's discontinuance is disapproved by the Director, the teacher to be either reinstated or paid a sum equal to a year's salary as compensation.

(d) The following conditions for discontinuance to be clearly set out:-breach of the terms of appointment, misconduct, general inefficiency, physical or mental infirmity.

391. We also recommend that the same law should constitute an Arbitration Board which will adjudicate on appeals from the manager or the teacher from the decision of the Director. (194.)

CHAPTER XXI.

TRANSITIONAL PROVISIONS.

392. We presume that after the publication of this Report, our proposals will be brought up before the State Council through the Executive Committee of Education. If the proposals are approved it may be necessary to amend the Education Ordinance, No. 31 of 1939, in certain respects. Subsequently a new and revised Code will have to be made and submitted to Council. The amending Ordinance and the new Code should be brought into operation together on the 1st January next following. This date we refer to as the ''appointed day''. Most of our recommendations can be brought into operation as from that day or given effect to by administrative action. In respect, however, of the grading, classification and organization of schools, the medium of instruction, examinations and finance, transitional arrangements will be required thereafter. These arrangements are set out in this chapter.

Section I.-Grading, &c., of Schools.

393. In accordance with the recommendation in paragraph 353 of chapter XX. a primary school must be separately organized under a separate headmaster and conducted in separate buildings, though it may be established within the same curtilage as a post-primary school. The separate organization should be brought into being on the appointed day. Since, however, it would not be possible to provide separate buildings immediately, we recommend that this requirement should be suspended until three years after the appointed day, or three years after the termination of hostilities, whichever is the later date.

394. The existing post-primary schools and the existing schools with post primary classes must be re-classified as secondary schools, senior schools and practical schools, as the case may be. When that step has been taken it will be necessary to allocate or re-allocate pupils so that they are assigned to schools in accordance with their abilities. We recommend that the classification shall be carried out according to the following principles: -

(i.) No existing secondary school may be recognized as a secondary school under the new scheme unless it has at least 120 pupils on roll with a minimum of 40 pupils in the higher department. This requirement may be re1axed in respect of schools intended mainly for Muslim and Burgher children.

(ii.) Schools now registered as secondary schools which do not conform to the above requirement may become senior schools or practical schools at their option.

(iii.) The existing central schools may be classified as senior schools, practical schools or multilateral schools.

(iv.) All other schools will become practical schools.

(v.) In special circumstances a secondary school and a senior school may, with the permission of the Director, be conducted in the same buildings but under separate organizations for a period of three years from the appointed day or such longer period as the continuance of hostilities may, in the opinion of the Director, render necessary.

(vi.) The Vth Standard and VIIIth Standard tests should be put into operation as soon as this Report has been considered and approved by the State Council. As from the appointed day no pupil who has been allocated to a particular type of school on the result of either test shall be admitted to another type of school (except an unaided school) unless the Director certifies that a school of the former type is not available within reasonable access. When a pupil is above the VIIIth Standard at the time this Report is approved, he may either, (a) continue in the school which he already attends and receive any type of education the school can provide (even if under the new classification the school would not otherwise be permitted to provide that type), or (b) be admitted to another school at his option.

(vii.) Additional schools, especially senior schools, must be provided as the need arises.

The Director will continue to be vested with the power to decide in his discretion all questions relating to the, classification of schools which either receive or expect to receive assistance from public funds. The classification made in accordance with the above principles will operate as a transitional measure only and the Director shall have the right to make subsequent changes in accordance with the recommendations in this Report. We should also make it clear that the conditions set out above are not exhaustive for determining the classification of a school. They are necessary but not sufficient. The general principle by which the Director will be guided is that a school which desires to be placed in a particular category should have adequate staff, equipment, &c., to enable it to be carried on efficiently as a school of that category.

Section 2.-Medium of Instruction.

395. We do not think that there will be any difficulty in adopting the mother tongue as the medium of instruction for the first three years of the primary school course, i.e., the infant class, 1st standard and the 2nd standard, immediately after the appointed day. It will not be possible, however, for every primary school to provide instruction through the medium of each of the four languages which may be mother tongues under the definition in paragraph 356 of Chapter XX. Accordingly, each primary school should, as soon as this Report is approved by Council, ascertain what are the mother tongues of its pupils under the definition. A school need not provide instruction through a particular medium unless at least 20 per cent of the pupils on the roll have that language as mother tongue. The Director should, however, have power to compel the provision of instruction through a particular language if there is otherwise a substantial number of persons in the area who could not be educated through the medium of the mother tongue.

396. All pupils whose instruction is through the mother tongue in accordance with the above paragraph will continue to be taught through the mother tongue up to the end of the primary school course. Consequently, all instruction in the primary schools will be given through the mother tongue at the end of three years from the appointed day. Thereafter these pupils will be taught in the practical schools through the medium of the mother tongue, and in the lower departments of the secondary and senior schools either through the medium of the mother tongue or through a bilingual medium, one of the languages of which is English. Accordingly, all lower departments of the secondary and senior schools must adopt the mother tongue or a bilingual medium in the lowest form after three years from the appointed day. Thereafter the medium will change in the "English" schools where English is not the mother tongue as the pupils progress through the lower department.

397. In accordance with the recommendation in paragraph 356 (b) of Chapter XX. all schools using Sinhalese or Tamil or Malay as the medium of instruction must, as from the appointed day, provide for the teaching of English as a subject from the IIIrd standard onwards. Similarly, all schools using English as the medium must provide for the teaching of either Sinhalese or Tamil as a subject from the IIIrd standard onwards. Where there is a sufficient number of Muslim children in a school Arabic should be taught as a subject. The vast majority of primary schools will use either Sinhalese or Tamil as the medium of instruction. It may be found difficult to arrange for the teaching of English to be carried out by the existing staff in a number of schools. In such cases financial provision should be made to enable additional teachers to be appointed. A similar difficulty will arise in schools which now teach through the medium of English. The present teachers may not always successfully adapt themselves to the new medium which in most cases will be either Sinhalese or Tamil. The situation can be met by exchange of teachers. Teachers of the present Sinhalese and Tamil schools may be transferred to primary schools which now use English as the medium and the teachers who will thereby become superfluous in these schools can be drafted to Sinhalese or Tamil primary schools. The exchanges should of course be made without any alteration in the emoluments of the teachers involved. The Director should have power to decide all questions relating to such exchanges and transfers even in respect of Assisted schools. We may still find a number of teachers in capable of adapting themselves to the new situation. We recommend that such teachers should be allowed to retire, if they so desire, and should be entitled to pension in accordance with the rules in the Government pension minute governing retirement on abolition of office.

Section 3.-Examinations.

398. We have already stated that the Vth and VIIIth standard tests should be brought into operation as soon as this Report is approved. The Junior School Certificate examination should thereupon be abolished. The present Senior School Certificate examination should be made suitable for senior schools as soon as possible after the appointed day. In the meantime, pupils who remain in schools classified as senior schools in accordance with paragraph 394 may enter for the ordinary Senior School Certificate examination. Also, students in the present Sinhalese and Tamil schools which may become practical schools, who have embarked on a course for the Senior School Certificate (Sinhalese or Tamil) examination, may complete the course and enter for this examination.

Section 4. - Financial Provisions.

399. In existing schools the new quotas for determining the number of eligible teachers will be brought into operation only as vacancies occur. Apart from the question of quotas two important questions arise: (a) should our recommendations for free education be given effect to as from the appointed day? (b) should the salary scheme suggested by us, if approved, be given effect to in respect of teachers now in service? On the latter question we can only say that the salary scales of teachers now in service should not be disturbed. The question whether these teachers should be placed on the new scales, if they happen to be more favorable, needs detailed consideration. The financial implications must be carefully worked out. We would leave it to the Executive Committee to come to a decision on his question in consultation with the Treasury. With regard to the introduction of free education in schools which are now levying fees it was suggested that the pupils who are now paying fees should continue to do so. We do not favour this suggestion. The problem arises only in the present-day English schools. We consider than our recommendation should be given effect as from the appointed day. This would of course mean that Government must make additional grants to some schools to enable them to maintain the present salary scales.

CONCLUSION.

400. We are much indebted to the Sub-Committee on the content of education of which Dr. Jennings was Chairman, for its excellent contribution on ''content and methods''. This is comprised in Chapters XVI. to XIX.

401. We have now reached the end of our labors. Three and a half years have elapsed since we commenced our investigations. We have no doubt taken longer time to complete this Report than we expected, but this could not have been avoided under the prevailing conditions. We held in all 90 meetings. Many questions, particularly those that gave rise to controversy, had to be carefully considered and then reconsidered. We must confess that many of the reforms we have recommended have been long overdue and we consider that, in spite of the war, urgent action is necessary to institute them. We now submit this Report in the belief that its consideration by the appropriate constitutional authorities will not be unduly delayed. We recommend that it be published with the least possible delay. In conclusion, we wish to express our appreciation of the valuable assistance given to us by teachers, teachers' associations, managers, other associations and public men who either forwarded their views in memoranda form or gave oral evidence before us.

402. We also desire to place on record our sense of obligation to our Secretary, Mr. K. Alvapillai, C.C.S., who at the time of his appointment was also Secretary to the Minister for Education, and attended to the work connected with our investigations with unflagging industry and devotion. On his appointment on February 23, 1942, as Deputy Director of Food Supply, he vacated the office of Secretary to the Minister for Education but continued to officiate as our Secretary with the same conscientious zeal. The arduous task of preparing material and memoranda for our consideration and of drafting the Report entailed a heavy demand on his time and energy and occupied many hours of his scanty leisure which the performance of his duties as Deputy Director of Food Supply left him.

Mention must also be made of the valuable services rendered by Mr. K. A. Ratnapala, Chief Clerk, Ministry of Education, who, in addition to his own duties, bore the responsibilities of the Secretary to the Minister during the last year of the compilation of this Report, and of Mr. K. F. de Silva, Stenographer to the Ministry, on whom fell the laborious burden of recording the evidence of members of the public who appeared before us and of typing numerous minutes, memoranda, &c., and the final Report.

C. W. W. KANNANGARA, *

Chairman.
P.DE. S. KULARATNE. *
H. S. PERERA.
J. C. AMARASINGHAM.*
S. NATESAN. *
M. J. LEGOC, O.M.I.*
S. SHIVAPADASUNDARAM. *
G. A. H. WILLE. *
T. B. JAYAH. *
G.P. MALALASEKERA.
G. K. W. PERERA.
N. NADARAJAH.
R. S. DE SARAM. *
E. L. BRADBY. *
A. R. A. RAZIK. *
A. RATNAYAKE.
E. A. NUGAWELA.
A.P. DE SOYZA

K. ALVAPPILLAI, C. C. S.,
Secretary.
Colombo, September 9, 1943.

Note.-Dr.W. Ivor Jennings has not signed the Report but has appended a dissent.
*Subject to rider and /or dissent.

RIDERS AND DISSENTS.

RIDER AND DISSENTBY MR. G. A. H. WILLE.

I do not wish to lengthen this Report (which considering the subject naturally bristles with controversial matters and is on many points the result of majority decisions) by entering detailed dissents. I will only call attention to certain fundamental matters and to a few definite recommendations.

2. I cannot assent to the view that our educational system has been more haphazard than has been the case in other more advanced countries, even though they have not had our difficulties of differences of race, language and religion. Nor do I agree that there has been an undiscriminating assimilation of our educational system to that of England. What has taken place has been almost inevitably the result of historical circumstances. To put it briefly, vernacular education has been kept very much alive so that it can be further built on-and unlike English it has been free-while English education has been given to the people both because they wanted it, whether for utilitarian reasons or otherwise, and because it was in England's eyes the best boon she could offer to the people. The English language and literature being what they are, whatever the merits of the indigenous literature, Ceylon has benefited greatly by the English education of the last century and more. Our present leaders, and what they are now able to do for the people, are an eloquent testimony to this.

3. In this connection it is well to remember the tributes that Indian nationalists like Tagore, Radhakrishnan and Nehru have paid to English education. A narrow application of the "ethos of the nation" theory may well result in the evolution of our educational system along lines too restricted, and leading to comparative intellectual poverty.

4. Dealing with particular recommendations, I do not agree that denominational schools established hereafter should, for the purpose of grant, be in any way restricted with reference to the denomination of the pupils entering them. In many cases a parent may for good reason choose a school of an “unlike” denomination.

5. The requirement that pupils of such schools should reside with their parents is also an undesirable restriction. It will prevent parents who reside in outstations from sending their children to a school of their choice, even if they belong to the denomination conducting the school.

6. I dissent from the recommendation that religious instruction shall be provided in all State schools. The necessary religious atmosphere will be wanting and there will also be great practical difficulties in providing the instruction.

7. It is also too much to expect denominational schools even as an optional measure to supply instruction in religion to children belonging to other religions or “unlike” denominations who may choose to attend them.

8. As regards denominational Training Schools the ''principles'' laid down in Chapter XII may be found to be too exacting.

9. Throughout the report inadequate consideration is given to the position of small schools. An important point is as regards their ability to supply the necessary number of teachers on the quota of units of attendance prescribed. Small schools have their due place in an efficient system of education; and moreover, so long as the denominational system is recognized, to expect that smaller schools should amalgamate, is to ignore the *raison d'etre* of denominational schools. *It is to be hoped that the ''some consideration" which it is recommended be shown in fixing quotas in respect of existing smaller schools, will be Sufficient to meet the difficulty in each case.*

10. The equipment grant needs to be enhanced and made more liberal in its terms.

11. The organization of separate types of schools with separate buildings may be beyond the means of many existing educational establishments for some time longer than the transitional provisions allow; and some flexibility will be necessary in the application of the requirements laid down in that regard.

12. I do not agree that the grant to schools is a voluntary payment which cannot be claimed as a right. It is admitted in the Report that stoppage or reduction of grant can be affected only in the event of the diminution of the Government resources or of the conditions precedent to its payment being violated. The only result of laying down that grant is a voluntary payment is therefore to prejudice the merits of a case, when there is a difference of opinion as to the fulfilment of conditions, by pleading the voluntary nature of the grant as a superseding issue.

13. In the same connection it is recommended that "educational purposes" be determined by the Director, there being a detailed definition of the term in the Code. Such definition will have to be liberal unless school managements are to be hampered in providing necessary amenities out of funds at their disposal.

14. Apart from the recommendations as to free education, the most crucial recommendation (following largely the Hadow and Spens reports) is for the classification of post-primary schools according to type (practical, senior and secondary) and the assignment of pupils to particular types after the application of a test, repeated a second time if necessary. The satisfaction this will give to parents will depend not only on the general acceptance of parity of status of the different types of schools, a point of view which the public will take some time to adapt itself to, but on the efficiency of the test so that no injustice is felt to result-the test being one to be applied to that delicate and complicated machine, the juvenile mind, for ascertaining its fitness for further studies of a particular kind with reference to a future career.

GEO A. WILLE.

RIDER BY MESSRS. T. B. JAYAH, S. NATESAN AND P. DE S. KULARATNE.

We have signed the report of the Special Committee on Education as we are in agreement with the recommendations of the Committee subject to the following observations: -

1. We approve the principle underlying the proposed salary scales for teachers and hope that it will be applied when the salary scales of the other public services are dealt with after the war.

Provision should be made to enable teachers with special qualifications to be employed on a higher salary than the minimum of the scale.

We do not consider that the salaries provided for teachers are adequate or as good as salaries given to members of other Government services with similar educational qualifications. We feel that the salaries of the teaching servict1 should be brought into line with those of the other public services. We accept the salary scales recommended in these proposals as they are capable of readjustment and improvement from time to time.

2. We see no reason why schools which prepare students for the London University Intermediate in Arts and Science examinations should not be subsidized by the State. The London University syllabuses in a good many subject cannot and do not differ from the courses of study followed by students preparing for the H.S.C. and the University entrance examinations.

In this connection we go further and say that in science, engineering, economics and commerce, the Technical college should provide facilities for higher studies to students who, for various reasons, will not be able to go into residence at the University of Ceylon.

3. The historical sketch is the result of compromise and as such has failed to bring out salient points which have an important bearing on the educational development of the country, e.g., no reference is made to the Pansala schools and the cause of their disappearance or to the Hindu educational movement.

4. In connection with the recommendation that students should be classified on the results of an ability test, (school records and parents' wishes being given every consideration.) at the end of the primary school stage, and that such a classification be revised by a further ability test at the end of three years study in a post-primary school, we are now inclined to agree with the proposals in the new educational reforms about to be introduced in England, which provide for such a test at the end of the first two years in the post-primary schools. Three years may be too late for correcting errors in the original classification. During the first two years of the post-primary schools the courses of study in the main subjects such as languages (Sinhalese, Tamil and English) and mathematics can cover more or less the same ground in the different types of such schools, thus enabling easy readjustment at the end of or within these two years.

5. With regard to the Inspectorate, we feel that the teaching service and the Inspectorate should form an educational service so that it will be possible for the State to recruit into its service at any stage the most efficient teachers as Inspectors and Educational Officers. At present this is only done at one stage namely in the recruiting of Inspectors to Grades I and 2 of the Inspeci1orate. Grade 2 of the Inspectorate should cease to exist as early as possible or should be a grade from which promotions are not made to the Higher Inspectorate. If these proposals are accepted there will be a well-organized educational ladder not only for pupils but also for teachers.

T. B. JAYAH.

P. DE S. KULARATNE.

S. NATESAN.

August 5, 1943

DISSENT BY THE REV. R. S. DE SARAM.

I sign the Report of the Special Committee on Education subject to the following qualifications: -

1. *Free education:* - I dissent from the proposal embodied in Chapter XIII. that all education up to and including education at the University shall be free for the following reasons: -

I feel that it has been adopted by the Committee wit out due consideration. It was first put forward as a concrete proposal at a meeting held on July 29th to which members had been summoned for the final signing of the Report. It may have been an aspiration before that. It was no more. The Committee therefore appears to me to have reached its decision without weighing its full implications.

I would myself favor free education at all stages if I felt the country could afford it while maintaining a proper standard of equipment and an adequate salary scale. There has been little attempt on the part of the Committee to consider this question. On the contrary, many proposals previously made on other matters had been rejected as beyond the financial resources of the country until the meeting on July 29, 1943. Since then the Committee moved

rapidly to its decision tb recommend free education at all stages. Financial considerations no longer seemed to weigh. I have found it difficult no adjust my ideas to this remarkable and rapid change.

My fear is that we may commit ourselves to universal free education and then find we cannot afford it while maintaining a good standard of equipment and an adequate salary scale. A step like that once taken cannot be retraced and we may find ourselves only able to maintain it by lowering salary scales and standards of equipment. It has been the unfortunate experience in the past of those engaged in education to find standards of salary, &c., once established later begrudged and whittled away, on the ground of financial stringency. That may well happen again. I urge therefore that the proposal be more carefully examined before adoption.

A great extension of educational opportunities to those who at present receive no education at all should be envisaged. It is not clear to me that any proper allowance has been made for this and the cost reckoned.

The proposal rests on certain hypothetical measures to be taken, e.g., increased taxation, support of education by local bodies, a decrease in salaries in view of the provision of free education by the State. I would like to be assured that these measures will be taken and that adequate funds will be available for the maintenance of a good standard of education before I asset to this proposal.

In paragraph 173 of Chapter XIII. it is stated that as the State will be paying the entire salary cost the numbers of staff and distribution according to qualifications in each school will have to be governed by rigid rules. I admit the validity of the conclusion but deplore the consequences for education. Schools will lose their ability to develop along their own lines when, before they can start any new development, they will have to convince the grant-paying authority of its desirability. If it is going to cost some more money grant-paying authorities are notoriously hard to convince. In the past schools have had their own resources raised by fees and have been able to employ an extra teacher without putting the State to any expense fur a development they thought desirable. If the proposal is adopted no school except private ones will have any such resources.

I find the proposals for free education set forth in Chapter XIII. obscure in some respects. In paragraph 170 it is said that it is contemplated that the cost of education shall be a charge on the funds of the State. Cost of education is defined as the entire salaries of an eligible staff, the cost of books and stationery, and a grant for equipment. In paragraph 174 a salary grant, an equipment grant and maintenance grant are mentioned. The equipment grant is defined as intended to cover cost of provision of and repairs to school furniture and equipment. No mention is made in this section of cost of books mentioned in paragraph 170. It is not clear how free books are to be provided.

Primary schools will receive an equipment grant not exceeding Rs.1.50 per annum per pupil. They will not have the option given to the senior and secondary schools of levying an equipment fee. It is not clear whether they will be allowed to charge a games fee. I consider the equipment grant too small. Particularly in a small school numbering say 80 the standard of equipment and amenity is bound to be low. It would receive a maximum equipment grant of only Rs.120 per annum. I urge that the equipment grant should be larger.

To sum up: My view is that universal free education at all stages is an ideal to be aimed at but that approach to it should be made by cautious steps. Till such time as we can be assured that the country can afford it, I suggest that we adopt a system such as the Hundred Per Cent Special Place System as set out in the Spens Report, Part IX and Part X. §32-38. Details cannot be given here. The principle is that each pupil pays according to his ability. He who cannot pay pays nothing. Boys paying full fees, those paying part fees and those paying none, are in the same school the system has been successfully adopted in England. It has been objected, not in my opinion convincingly, that conditions in Ceylon are different and that the proposal would involve a “Means Test”, which would be undesirable. Yet the Committee's own proposals envisage a “Means Test” and in granting scholarships at the University the means of candidates are taken into consideration. I cannot think the difficulties are insuperable and I think they ought to be faced in preference to giving “free” education on an impoverished basis.

2. A certain number of “English” Assisted schools at present conduct primary departments. Their number may be small but they form an important part of the educational fabric. These schools at present charge fees and receive grant. In this way they are able to maintain a moderately well-equipped primary school.

What is going to be the position of these schools? They will have to choose between charging no fees and receiving the full salary cost of their teachers and an equipment grant or charging fees and receiving no grant

whatever. The equipment grant of Rs.1.50 per annum per unit of average attendance will not enable such schools to maintain the standard of equipment they think necessary. They will accordingly be forced into the alternative of charging fees and receiving no grant of any kind. They will become private schools.

If they do, what is to be the position of the teachers employed in these schools? The schools will have to charge increased fees to pay them the salaries they are at present receiving. Very few schools will be able to do this. Even if they are, these teachers will lose their pension rights. Most schools will have to give their teachers notice of discontinuance or only retain them on a lower salary.

Hardship will therefore be imposed upon a considerable body of teachers. In para, 399 of the Report it is laid down that the salary scales of teachers now in service should not be disturbed. Such a disturbance will inevitably occur. Nor can it be argued that that will be the fault of the manager. He is faced with a cruel alternative. Is he to run an ill-equipped school while securing the salaries of his teachers or is he to run a properly equipped school and give notice to his present teachers? If he chooses the latter course the blame must lie not on him but on those who forced the choice upon him.

It is reasonable to say that if there is to be a genuine option in this matter it should be one which can be made without injustice or hardship to those con-cerned. The proprietors have established these schools and teachers accepted employment in them on a certain understanding. It would not be consistent with justice to change that suddenly on an “appointed day”.

I suggest therefore that reasonable transition arrangements be permitted by which these schools may convert themselves into private schools if they so desire. The arrangements I suggest are as follows: -

Such schools, provided they conform in other respects, e.g., the medium of instruction, should be permitted to continue on their present lines as grant-in-aid schools, charging fees and receiving grants as now. When teachers employed in these schools leave new teachers joining the staff in their place will not be eligible for grant.

3. The Lower Department of the Senior and Secondary School. - A certain number of schools may wish to make the lower departments of their Senior or Secondary schools private schools for reasons similar to those mentioned by me above in respect of primary schools.

I suggest that similar transitional arrangements be made in respect of them as I have suggested for the primary school.

4. The Committee's proposals, if adopted will, in my opinion, result in the appearance of a large number of private schools. While I agree that private schools should not be forbidden consider that they should only bee permitted if they set themselves and maintain a standard as good or better than that of Government or Aided schools in such matters as staff, salaries, equipment, teaching efficiency and amenities. It would be deplorable if the low standard of equipment and amenities which alone would be possible on the equipment grant and “activities fee” mentioned in para. 174 of the Report promoted the growth of private schools where while equipment might be better, teachers' salaries, even though on paper good, were not in fact secured to teachers. The Report envisages the inspection of private schools but such a matter as staff salaries will not come within the scope of such inspection. I am opposed to any measure which will promote the growth of a large number of private schools. For this reason too, I urge the adoption of some such scheme as the Hundred Per Cent Special Place System. As this will permit schools to be maintained with reasonably good equipment there will be much less reason for people to send their children to private schools unless they are really good ones.

5. *Probationary Teachers.* - There are certain features of the salary scale set out in Appendix 7 of the Report from which I dissent:

(a) I view with apprehension the letting loose of a number of probationary teachers on our primary schools at the age of 18 armed with the S.S. C. Certificate even though it be on the results of a further selective examination. The material upon which these probationers will try their prentice hand will be human material at its tenderest and most impressionable. The results for them may be good; the results for those on whom they work may be exceedingly bad. Teaching in the primary department is a highly skilled business, even more so than higher up the school. Primary school teachers may not require as much knowledge as teachers higher up but they require far greater skill and experience in getting things across

to their pupils. It may have escaped my notice but I do not see anywhere in the Report any limit on the number of probationary teachers in a primary school. It appears theoretically possible that the majority of the teachers may be probationers. If probationary teachers are to be used in primary schools the proportion should be not greater than one probationer to four trained teachers; and probationary teachers should never be given charge of the greater part of the teaching in any one class.

(b) *Lower Salary Scales in the Primary and Practical Schools*. - I dissent from the proposal that teachers in primary schools or practical schools should be on a lower scale of salary than in the other schools. In para.89 the Report emphasizes its desire that the different types of schools should be accorded parity of status. If it desires that, it should provide parity of salaries. There is not the least educational reason why a Trained teacher in the primary school should be paid less than a Trained teacher with the same qualification in a Senior or Secondary school. His work is as important and as responsible and calls for as much if not greater teaching skill. Further it is extremely undesirable to create the impression that teaching in the seventh standard is "higher work" than teaching in the second standard and that a teacher is promoted who has passed from the one to the other. It is very necessary that some of the best teachers should be encouraged to devote themselves to small children. For this reason, I suggest that a distinction be drawn between the Trained teacher whose school leaving qualification is the S.S.C. and the trained teacher whose school leaving qualification is the H.S.C. and that the latter be put on the scale provided in Appendix 7 for the Trained teacher in the Senior and Secondary school even though he be employed in the primary school.

6. *Content of Education (Chapters XVI. - XIX of the Report)* - The Report makes provision for the continuance of the denominational system and for the teaching of religion in State schools. This latter is an advance of which I heartily approve. In view of it I deplore the fact that in this portion of the Report reference to religion is almost negligible. A child who is not taught to worship has a part of his nature, and that the most important part, not merely stunted but perverted. Training in citizenship, music, art and moral instruction, excellent as they are, are no adequate substitute for what religion alone can provide.

Heath. - I agree with what is said in paragraphs 05 and 339 on this subject but I do not feel it goes far enough. The physical standard of children in Ceylon is low. Some sort of physical training should form part of the curriculum of every school and provision for every child to benefit from it should be made. That is not merely a question of equipment but of knowledge and skill on the part of the members of the staff or some of them. Physical training in the bands of inexpert people may do more harm than good. Not all children even of the same age should be called upon to do the same exercises. Experts are necessary and the ideal would be to have one on the staff of each school. As this is not possible there should be expert teachers to give courses in the Training schools for teachers; every teacher should be taught to take a class in Physical training and some teachers ought to be encouraged to specialize in Physical Education. Such a specialist teacher on the staff of a school would be invaluable. His functions would be various. He would hold a position in the school, on the physical side, analogous to that of a Chaplain on the spiritual side. He would ensure the providing of suitable equipment, tables of exercises graded according to the capacities of students, prescribe corrective exercises for the removal of physical defects and set a standard of correct posture and carriage which will have far-reaching effects not merely on the health of children but on their whole attitude to life. He would be a valuable liaison officer between the Medical Inspectors, the school and the home. He would provide that link in the chain the lack of which at present makes the medical inspection of schools largely ineffective. It is not enough for the Medical Inspectors to say what is wrong often in medical Latin "not understand of the people". There must be somebody on the spot who knows what should be done about it.

R. S. DE SARAM

September 23, 1943.

RIDER BY MR. E. L. BRADBY.

A word of explanation is needed for adding to the length of an already bulky Report by a note of dissent. The 90 meetings of the Committee were spread over a period of more than three years. Many of the meetings were held at times when other duties made it impossible for me to attend. As was inevitable, it sometimes happened that questions which had already been decided were reopened and decided differently. Owing, no doubt, to the need to save paper the minutes of the later stages, when the Report was being drafted, were so brief as often to give no idea of the matters decided at meetings which one was unable to attend. It, thus happened that there were whole sections of the report, including part of that on secondary schools with which I am particularly concerned which I had not even seen in their final form until the discussions were over and the Report was circulated in proof.

While, therefore, I am in agreement with the main views and decisions embo-died in the Report, I feel bound to register my dissent on certain important points of detail.

1. *Religious Instruction.* – (Sections 66 and 346). The recommendation that denominational religion should be taught in State schools seems to me to involve insuperable difficulties and to tend towards intensifying minor denominational differences. lnstead I suggest:

(i.) In all State schools; religious knowledge to be a regular part of the curriculum at all stages, and to include the following topics: comparative history of religion; great religious books of the world; ethics and elementary metaphysics. A recommended syllabus to be drawn up by the Department for the guidance of schools.

(ii.) In all State boarding schools and boarding sections of day-schools: facilities to be provided fur doctrinal instruction and worship for every boarder according to his or her own religious affiliation, at week-ends and on religious holidays.

(iii.) In State day-schools: the responsibility for arranging doctrinal instruction and worship in the case of day-pupils to be left with the parents.

2. *Training Schools.* (Sections 67, 159, 347, 368). I cannot agree that the Training College with several practicing schools attached is the best type for Ceylon for the following reasons: -

(a) the Head of the Training College will not be able to devote sufficient time to the running of a primary school, a practical school, and a senior or secondary school, of all of which he is to be the "Controller".

(b) coupled with the decision to continue denominational control, this provision would result in the establishment or perpetuation of self-contained educational communities divided on denominational lines, a result which I consider would be deplorable.

I suggest, instead, a system of unitary training colleges run either by the State or by denominational bodies, sending their students out to suitable schools for periods of practical training at intervals during the course.

3. *Private Schools.* - (Sections 68, 349 and 350). The power to inspect is of little use without the power to close unsuitable schools, which I suggest should be specifically provided. It should be necessary for all private schools to obtain a license from the Director of Education renewable annually.

"Tutories". - (Sections 68, 349 and 350). I strongly dissent from the attitude expressed here, which amounts to allowing unlimited scope for anyone to exploit the education of children of 15 or over for private profit and without Governmental control of any kind. I consider that "Tutories" should be subject to the controls recommended above for private schools; that they should be prohibited from presenting candidates for school examinations held by the Department (as suggested in section 68) and also for the Higher School Certificate; and that they should not be allowed to admit students under the age of 18.

4. *Individual Proprietors*. - (Sections 69 and 348). The provision that no school controlled by an individual proprietor should be assisted from public funds should apply to existing schools (possibly after a short period for reorganization) and not only to schools established in the future.

5. *Medium of Instruction.* - (Chapter VIII. i.e., sections 90-95 and section 356). I am unable to agree that "the ideal should be the mother-tongue medium at all stages of education" (section 90), since this would involve the provision of parallel and independent courses of education in three or more languages right up to the University

stage; the social and economic consequences of such a policy of segregation along racial-linguistic lines would be disastrous and would conflict with the aims which we have formulated in Chapter II.

The elaborate definition of “mother-tongue” given in section 90 was occasioned by the desire of some members to prevent a child's home-language from being determined by any but racial considerations. I think that this end if desired, should be attained by propaganda and persuasion and not by legislation, and in what follows I use the term “mother-tongue” in its ordinary sense of the tongue which a child learns from its mother, i.e., the home-language of its earliest years.

The importance of a child's early education being given through the medium of the mother-tongue is generally conceded by educational experts. I therefore agree that education at the primary stage should be in the mother-tongue with one important exception: it is also a generally accepted educational principle that languages can most effectively be taught through the “direct method”, particularly in the initial stages (i.e., English through the medium of English, Latin through the medium of Latin, &c.). If this educational principle can be adopted in Ceylon, some of our particular difficulties will disappear. Thus, in a primary school where Sinhalese is the main medium of instruction, English will be taught from the third standard (vide section 97 through the medium of English, and in a school where English is the main medium, Sinhalese or Tamil will be taught through the medium of Sinhalese or Tamil.

At the secondary, senior, and higher stages, the great need, as I see it, is for plan which admits of local variation and adaptability to meet changing needs, and l suggest that this again requires a bilingual solution. Thus, at the secondary level the teaching of languages should always be by the “direct method” (see above), but the medium of instruction for other subjects should vary according to locality, suitability of subject-matter, requirements of pupils, and staff available. In the earlier school years, the comprehension of pupils would be a dominating factor; later on, as comprehension of two languages becomes achieved, the nature of the subject would come to determine the medium (e.g., English History might best be taught through English, Ceylon History through Sinhalese or Tamil).

Thus, the secondary stage would be a transition between the predominantly unilingual stage and the predominantly bilingual or multilingual University stage, at which students should be expected to be able to follow lectures in at least two of the recognized languages thus reducing the multiplication of parallel courses to a minimum.

The provision contained in section 395 that primary schools should be forced to provide parallel courses, each through a different medium of instruction, in cases where 20 per cent or more of the pupils require it, seems to me impracticable and therefore dangerous. For example, a school in a mixed area might have to provide separate parallel classes for 6 boys out of each class of 30 from the highest to the lowest class in the school. The detailed working-out of transitional provisions is bound to be difficult, and will involve hardship to some individuals: but I suggest that the principles on which such difficulties should be settled are:

(i.) that the Director should have power to provide for minority groups whose linguistic needs are not met by existing schools, by providing State schools and if necessary, withholding grant from superfluous Assisted schools;

(ii.) that the language-groupings of schools, and of subject within schools, should not be changed without good reason (e.g., a shift of population) and that once the transitional period is over the onus should be on the parents to see that their children attend a school which meets their linguistic needs (helped where necessary by cheap boarding schools and scholarships).

6. *Secondary 'School Curriculum*. - (Section 117). On educational grounds I favor the inclusion of one classical language, either Eastern or Western as a com-pulsory subject in boys' secondary schools and an optional subject in girls' secondary schools, from the beginning of the post-primary course, with the proviso that if the pupil shows no aptitude for it after two or three years, he or she should be encouraged to drop it. This was the recommendation made by the Sub-Committee on the content of education.

The list of subjects common to all classes in secondary schools for the first two or three years would thus read: “History, Geography, Mathematics, Science (or Home Science for girls), the mother-tongue, one modern language and one classical language (optional for girls)”.

7. *Examinations.* - (Sections 139 and 140). Though I agree with the general thesis of these paragraphs, I consider that both the rosy picture of conditions in England and the murky one of conditions in Ceylon are seriously exaggerated. For example, at Royal College (a Government secondary school), there is only one public examination which can be taken by the boys from the time they enter the school at the age of 11 to the time they leave at 18 or 19 (with the exception of a few boys who take London Intermediate examinations before leaving), namely the special Senior School Certificate (until recently London Matriculation or Cambridge Senior) taken at the age of 16 or over. Moreover, the curriculum includes subjects over and above those required by this examination.

A further hindrance to broad education with which the secondary schools have had to contend until recently has been the narrowness of the requirements for entrance to the University College. The inclusion of a compulsory essay in the new University Entrance examination is a welcome sign of a wiser attitude on the part of the present university authorities.

8. *University Age-limit.* – (Section 147). I disagree with the statement that "no criticism need be offered" of the age-limit of 17 for admission to the Ceylon University. On the contrary, until the age limit is raised to 18 the hope expressed in this section that students will normally do two years work at school after passing the School Certificate (a view which has been frequently endorsed by the Vice Chancellor of the University) will remain a pious aspiration. The raising of the University age-limit to 18 is in my opinion one of the most urgently-needed reforms in the educational system of Ceylon.

9. *Compulsory Attendance.* - (Section 182). I desire to associate myself with the views expressed in Dr. Jennings' dissent on this subject.

10. *Control of Managers.* - (Sections 183 and 383). The attention of the Committee was drawn to the undesirability of school managers serving as members of the State Council, particularly as members of the Board of Ministers and Executive Committee of Education, and it is a matter of regret to me that all reference to this important topic and to the decision which the Committee had reached about it earlier was deleted as a result of a decision taken at one of the last meetings when the Report was already in proof.

It seems to me that those who have to legislate for education in a democratic country should so far as possible not be placed in a situation in which their private interests might hamper them in taking a broad and objective view of matters in which they should be guided only by the public interest. The difficulty would be adequately met by enacting that members of the State Council holding office as Minister or Member of the Executive Committee of Education should not be appointed managers of schools and would be required to resign any managerial office previously held.

11. *Finance.* - (Chapter XIII.). This chapter was rewritten with drastic alterations at a stage when the whole Report was already in proof and signatures had been invited. The new version includes a recommendation for free education at all stages up to and including the University, instead of merely up to the end of the eighth standard, as had been agreed in our earlier discussions. I feel bound to state that in my opinion this chapter has been adopted without sufficient consideration of its implications-educational, financial and administrative and therefore to record my dissent from it.

E. L. BRADBY

Royal College,

Colombo, September 24, 1943.

RIDER BY MR. S. SHIVAPADASUNDARAM.

1. *Control of Education.* -

(a) The only weapon in the hands of the opponents of a State system of education has been that no importance is attached to the teaching of religion in State schools. They are now disarmed by our recommendation that

religious instruction shall form part of the curriculum of studies in State schools (see paragraph 66). The grant-in-aid system should therefore be abolished, and all schools in future should be State schools. Those bodies and individuals who own schools would oppose the abolition, as their business might come to a standstill. But that is not the concern of the country.

(b) The Report says that it is the duty of the State "to ensure that the child receives as far as is practicable a complete education" and "that a religious background is indispensable to a complete education" (paragraph 64). 1f the country should favor the retention of the grant-in-aid system, it is the duty _of the State to see that every pupil attends a school where it can get a religious background. It is, therefore, the duty of the State (i) to make a rule that no Hindu child shall be admitted into a Christian school if there is a Hindu school or a State school within two miles of his residence, and (ii) in a Hindu locality not already provided with a State school or a Hindu school, to establish a State school at once if the Hindus are not prepared to establish one of their own, and if the Hindus do put up a school, to register the school provisionally as soon as it secures a suitable staff, giving two years' time for providing a substantial building, &c.

Of these two duties of the State, something similar to the latter is recommended in paragraph 64 of the Report. As regards the former, it says "It was pressed upon us that the State should bring about a reversal of this state of affairs by discouraging children from attending a school of an 'unlike' denomination. As far as the existing denominational schools are concerned, we think that such a reform should be achieved without resort to any action by the State. The objection to a child attending a school of an unlike denomination is nevertheless sound." (paragraph 65). But it is the duty of the State to make provision for the education of a child, and, if it is objectionable for a child to attend a school of an "unlike" denomination, it immediately follows that the State must forbid the admission of the child to such a school. No sound reason can be urged against this. But the following reason is given: - "We do not think it fair by the promoters of the existing established denominational schools to do anything that will have the effect of crippling such schools. They have done and are doing a great service to the country." The Report has already said that it is objectionable for a child to study in a school of an "unlike" denomination. Therefore, it cannot be said that it has done any service or is doing any service to such children. Removing them from that school only removes an objectionable feature of the school. It must also be remembered that the Ministry of Education, the Executive Committee of Education, the Department of Education, schools, school managers and school masters are all there to serve the child, and it would be cruel injustice to sacrifice the child to satisfy the promoter of a school which it is objectionable for the child to attend.

It was argued in some quarters that a man should have the freedom to send his child to any school of his choice. This is a hollow objection and has been rejected by the Committee, as will be seen from the following recommendation regarding the establishment of a denominational school: - "If it is within 2 miles of an existing State school, children of an "unlike" denomination will not be taken into account for assessing grant." (paragraph 65 (c)). The State does not give the freedom to do anything which it considers to be wrong. It does not give a man the freedom to have his child unvaccinated to keep his children away from school between certain ages, or (in this Report itself) to send to a Government or Assisted senior school a child declared unfit for such a school. If the State considers that it is objectionable for a child to study in a school of an "unlike" denomination the parent has no freedom to send him to such a school. Besides, our people cannot be expected to realize the objectionable nature of the education of their children in Christian schools, as their religious spirit has been sapped by the religious slavery to which they have been subject for three centuries, first under the Portuguese and Dutch Governments and then in Christian schools.

Moreover, the freedom of the child is of infinitely greater value than the freedom of the parent born with religious indifference; and of all kinds of freedom, religious freedom is most precious. The religion of a child in a school of an "unlike" denomination is not free. The alien religious atmosphere chokes his religion. In a certain Christian secondary school attended mostly by Shaivite children, the Christian atmosphere has so insidiously poisoned the hearts of these children that they have, of their own accord, given up wearing Sacred Ashes though it is *sine qua non* to Shaivism.

The Report suggests that “the foundations of moral and religious development must, however, be laid in the home. But this is not practicable so far as Hindus are concerned. Several Hindu parents are illiterate, and perhaps only one in a thousand can teach religion to his children. The remedy cannot therefore be applied to 99.9 percent of the Hindu children. –

2. *Post-primary Schools.* –

It is proposed to include an intelligence test in the fifth standard examination. Unless the test is scrutinized by an expert, it is apt to mislead. I have seen questions in such tests which demand knowledge rather than intelligence and which therefore ought not to have been there.

As the fifth standard test has to decide the whole future of tens of thousands of pupils every year, the utmost care must be taken to set the right kind of paper in other subjects also.

Failure in English ought to be considered as a disqualification for those who are capable of joining a senior or secondary school, as English is an important subject in these schools, and weakness in English would be a bar to progress in these schools.

3. *Supply of Teachers.* –

A Member of the State Council who employs a large number of teachers told me that he had never been able to discover any superiority in the work of a Trained teacher over that of an untrained teacher. This has been my experience too. This is most probably due to the arrangement in Training schools in which the subject teacher is required to train students in the teaching of the particular subject though he may be ignorant of the method of teaching the subject.

But future training schools are to be staffed solely by Trained teachers. If, as we have seen, they will be no better than untrained teachers, the vicious circle will continue. A possible remedy will be the employment of an expert master of method in each school and make him responsible for practical teaching.

It is not desirable to lay undue stress on such non-essentials as the residential system. There are first-rate Training Colleges in England which are non-residential. In any case, vegetarian Hindus should not be compelled to board in training schools which have no separate vegetarian boarding-house. It is not known to many that vegetarianism is a cardinal virtue of Hinduism.

If Assisted Training schools are allowed to continue, it must be made a preliminary condition of giving grant that they do not admit students of “unlike” denominations.

4. *Teachers' Salaries.* -

The parents' allowances of bachelors and spinsters must be the same as the wife's allowances of married teachers, as they look after their comforts besides being dependents. Bachelors who have to support younger brothers and unmarried sisters must be given allowances in respect of them.

5. *Educational Administration*. -

It is said that educational administration should “enable the right pupils to receive the right education from the right teachers”. But there are wrong teachers in our schools, whom the Administration should either mend or end. There are shirkers who either spend a good part of the school time in boutiques close to the schools or teach only a single lesson in a term, ask the pupils to keep themselves busy with it, and attend to some work of their own, including a chat with the teacher of a neighboring class. There are also teachers who think that their business is to teach a lesson and not the pupils. The consequence is that many pupils are not able to follow them and are branded as unfit for studying their subjects. Thus, the time of a large number of pupils is wasted.

Every pupil can get the right education if the Department approves as head teachers only those who possess administrative ability insists on their keeping a supervision diary and a criticism book, gives them all the help they need to deal effectively with recalcitrant and makes them responsible for the progress of each and every pupil.

6. *The Content of Education.* -

A grave defect in our system is that the curriculum is often over-loaded. This leads to cram and overwork. No History or Geography, however simple it may be, should be taught in the second standard and even in the third standard. Decimal fraction may be postponed to post-primary work.

The new S.S.C. examination regulations require a pass in six subjects and give the option to offer eight subjects. This is too heavy a burden. A pass in five subjects ought to be enough, and an additional subject may be allowed to be offered.

Another defect in our system is that too much time is devoted to riders and exercises, with the result that after several years of study the extent of our pupils knowledge happens to be very small. In this twentieth century which is characterized by very rapid advancement of knowledge, they should not be confined to a few subjects and required to dive into problems of little intrinsic value.

S. SHIVAPADASUNDARAM.

DISSENT BY THE REV. FR-. M. J. LEGOC.

WHILE being in agreement with the bulk of the recommendations made by the Special Committee on Education, I beg to differ on certain points which I state below: -

Para 65 (b). - Once a school has been recognized and registered for grant it should continue to receive grant provided it shall have at least 30 pupils on the roll. It may happen that in years the number of pupils of a particular denomination undergoes variation. Thirty pupils justify the employment of one teacher and consequently the grant for his salary.

Para 65 (c). - This clause restricts the rights of the parents. It belongs to the parents to select the school which to their mind satisfies their religious convictions. The State should not use preferential treatment in this matter in order to protect its own schools. Open competition on equal terms is more dignified.

Para 176. - The allowance granted for a dependent parent is made conditional on "the parent living with the teacher". This condition does not seem fair because the teacher may be sent to an out-of-the-way place where his parent does not wish to follow him or because the parent prefers to stay with another of his children. This does not exonerate the teacher from the duty of contributing to the support of his parent and therefore does not relieve him of the need of an allowance for this purpose.

Para 185. – "The grant is a voluntary payment". This interpretation of the Code is certainly new. The grant is payment for work done and therefore it should be due to the school, not be voluntary on the part of Government.

Para 160. - The minimum number of student (150) necessary for establishing a Training College seems to me excessive. This number was fixed on the basis of 1 Lecturer for 25 students. But as the number of students has subsequently, after mature deliberation, been reduced to 20 per Lecturer, a minimum number of 100 students will allow 5 Lecturers in addition to the Principal. This number would provide for an adequate staff for conducting a Training College efficiently. I therefore recommend that the minimum number of students be reduced to 100.

Para 159. - The recommendations dem0and that a primary school, a practical school and a senior or secondary school be attached to a Training College. A senior or secondary school would prove useful if the students are to be trained for work in a senior or secondary school. But if certain Training Colleges prepare teachers only for primary and practical schools a senior or secondary school will be needless as an adjutant of such Training Colleges. In the latter case, it should suffice to have a primary and a practical school attached to a Training College.

July 29, 1943. M. J. LEGOC.

RIDER BY THE CHAIRMAN.

ALTHOUGH there are some points on which I do not see eye to eye with the views of the majority contained in this Report, I subscribe to it as a whole. However, feel that I would be lacking in my duty if do not place on record my disagreement with the opinions and conclusions stated therein on the subject of the denominational control of education refer to the recommendations in paragraphs 63, 64, 65, and 67 and the arguments adduced in support of the continuance of the present denominational system. These are summarized in paragraphs 345 and 347. I also disagree with the recommendation in paragraph 163 that Managers of denominational schools should be allowed the right to select candidates of particular religious persuasions for teaching posts in their schools in preference to those who have been placed higher in order of merit at the examination. As early as 1911 the deficiencies of the system of denominational control were commented on by an impartial observer namely, Mr. J. J.R. Bridge, an Inspector of Schools of the English Board of Education. Some progress has no doubt been made under the denominational system, but a one-sided advance cannot make up for the rivalry and bitterness of feeling between different religious communities which the system has engendered. A most deplorable and disturbing feature of the educational system in vogue since the British connection has been inequality of opportunity which had been aggravated by the denominational system. Religious communities with comparatively less resources and without organizational strength and solidarity have long suffered under a sense of frustration and a sense of injustice. Even to-day the Kandyan Buddhist and the Muslims make demands for various special concessions, because they feel keenly the serious handicaps under which they labor under the present system which they criticize as one based on an artificial equality without real equality of opportunity for all the communities.

2. I am of opinion that any system of public education for the future must be entirely free and under public control, i.e., under the control of the State and/or the local authority. I do certainly subscribe to the proposition that no education can be complete unless imparted against a religious background. Religious instruction should form part of the curriculum of schools and colleges. But I do not agree with the school of thought that holds that State education is *per se* godless or soulless, because it is imparted by the State. On the other hand, all the usual activities of the State-maintenance of law and order, of economic and social services-have a meaning and purpose only in relation to the lives of its citizens, namely the provision for them of a fuller and a richer life both materially and spiritually. It must also be remembered that all State institutions are run by "soulful" men and women. Accordingly, it is not beyond human ingenuity to devise a system of education subject to public control in which there will be adequate arrangements to ensure a religious background and atmosphere appropriate to the pupils concerned and without violating the principle of State neutrality in matters pertaining to religion. In such a system arrangement could be made by the executive authority in consultation with the parents and the respective religious organizations for providing religious instruction in the school to pupils of the particular denominations.

3. If the advocates of the denominational system are serious in this contention that a religious background is indispensable to education such a background should be ensured for every child attending a denominational school. But, in accordance with the denominational system as prevailing at present, religious background and religious instruction are provided only in the religion of the body or organization that controls the school with the result that numbers of children who do not belong to that particular denomination have to forego a valuable part of their education. If the protagonists of denominational control are to be consistent, they must agree to make adequate provision for the religious instruction of any child attending a school in the religion to which the parent of the child belongs. In my view, this should be an indispensable condition of the continuance of the denominational system. I would go further and say that even the existing denominational schools should be required, on pain of forfeiture of the support they now receive from public funds, to provide for the instruction of children of unlike denominations in their respective religions. Such a course involves the right of entry to teachers of religious instruction belonging to other faiths which the supporters of the denominational system have hitherto resisted. The alternative is for the State to insist on the ideal denominational system in which children of each denomination only are taught in schools under the control of that denomination. But then from the point of view of national unity the State cannot support a movement to divide its future citizens and segregate them on the basis of creed. This *reductio ad absurdum* furnishes a complete argument in support of my view that in a country

of diverse religions a State system of public education is all the more essential. A decision to provide free education up to and including the University stage will reinforce my argument for complete State control.

4. I do not for a moment intend that the denominational system should be "scrapped". If any section of the people desire that their children should be educated in denominational schools, they should not be denied that right. But there is no reason why they should expect "exclusive" schools of this kind to be supported from public funds, in the same manner and to the same degree as at present. The State can make educational provision only up ta point. If any individual or group is dissatisfied with the nature and extent of such provision, such individual or group is free to make alternative provision at his or its own expense. So that State education does not, as is sometimes supposed militate against the theory of the freedom of parents in the matter of the choice of schools for their children.

5. The State system of education which I have supported for a considerable time and do support now should not be understood as including within its scope any kind of control or prescription of content or methods of education. In any democratic system these are matters that are left for free development by teachers. I consider that State control should primarily cover establishment of schools, admission and attendance of pupils, and appointment, emoluments and disciplinary control of teachers. The last is the most important. In connection with the appointment and disciplinary control of teachers, the denominational system has lent itself to grave abuse. In my experience as Minister for Education I have not found any other aspect of Assisted school administration taking up such a disproportionate part of the time of the Department of Education and the Executive Committee. A school should be deemed to be a public trust so long as it is supported from public funds. But the denominational principle insists on regarding the school as a private trust meant to be administered primarily in the interests of a private individual or of the members of the denomination concerned. These managements accordingly claim that no person other than a member of the denomination can hold a teaching post in a denominational school. I have throughout opposed this position. The claim, however, has been pressed on Government, but no definite decision has yet been taken. It is difficult to expect the service of education to improve if appointments to teaching posts are made on grounds other than those of character, competence and efficiency. It will not be denied that character and efficiency are not the monopoly of members of any particular religious persuasion.

6. Further apart from educational considerations, there are those of general policy. The teaching service is a large one. There are now about 22,000 teachers I cannot acquiesce in any system that aims at reserving any proportion of these posts for persons of a particular religious persuasion. Only a State system can guarantee the impartial distribution of employment among all sections of the population on the ground of merit. Even if the present Assisted school system is to be retained, I am of opinion that appointments and disciplinary control of teachers should be under the control of the Department of Education. Teachers as a body have all along expressed dissatisfaction with the position in which Managers exercised the power of dismissal and disciplinary control. Here again, experience has shown that teachers do not get a fair deal under the existing denominational system. Pointed attention must be drawn to the fact that, apart from the grounds of character, competence and other consideration that make a person unfit for an office; the denominational system has evolved certain untenable grounds for discontinuance of teachers. For example, a teacher is sometimes discontinued for changing his faith or for marriage with a person of a faith different from that of the management. Teachers of Assisted schools are also transferred by way of punishment for reasons unconnected with their efficiency as teachers or the welfare of the school. These are some of the disabilities imposed upon the teacher by denominational control of schools. Contentment in the the teaching profession can be secured only by making tenure of teachers similar to that of public servants. Such a proposal will however, be resisted by denominational managers as inimical to the interests of denominational schools. The solution therefore is a State system of schools maintained from public funds side by side with a system of private schools receiving comparatively limited aid, if any, from public funds administered according to denominational principles.

7. I take particular exception to the recommendation for the continuance of the system of denominational training schools. If the teachers of the future are not to be brought up in a free atmosphere with opportunities for mixing with one another, irrespective of race, caste or creed, their training, I am afraid, will be narrow. It is bad enough that pupils should be segregated during the primary and post-primary stages of their education in

denominational schools; but it is intolerable, from the point of view of breadth of sympathies, that, once they have left post-primary schools, they should be again segregated in denominational training schools. Finally, the products of the denominational training schools are to be sent out as teachers again to denominational schools. They will never imbibe the spirit of tolerance and sympathy for the other man's point of view, which are qualities so essential in a teacher. Here again, I agree that religious atmosphere and religious instruction are necessary. But adequate provision for this purpose can easily be made in State Training schools. I cannot also support the proposal that entrance to training colleges should be made to depend on a candidate's religious persuasion. I consider that after adequate notice teacher training should be taken over by the Department of Education under its direct control.

8. In conclusion, I should like to refer to a matter of the utmost importance, i.e., the growing demand for free education from the primary stage right up to the University with a view to giving every child in this country the fullest opportunity for the development of his talents irrespective of the means of his parents. The Committee considered the question of free education in the early stages of their deliberations and, chiefly owing to the financial position of the country at that time decided to recommend free education up to the top by stages. However, the changed conditions due to the war and the fact that, free education throughout a student's career is bound to be one of the essential features of a suitable post-war educational system in this country, make it imperative that this necessary reform should be put into operation at the earliest possible opportunity: I am glad that the committee have, during the final stages of their deliberations, definitely decided on free education. I strongly support the decision. The extra cost involved or any other possible effect, which this decision may have on the other main commendations, should not deter the Executive Committee from submitting and the State Council fur their acceptance.

C. W. W. KANNANGARA,

Colombo, August 9, 1943. Chairman.

RIDER BY MR. A. R. A. RAZIK.

It is well known that the Moor community has not been provided in the past with anything like the educational facilities that were available to the other communities in this Island. It is time that active steps are taken in the direction of removing the backwardness of the Moor community so that the Moors in this country may have an opportunity of taking their proper place in the life of the nation and be trained to shoulder far greater responsibilities than they have had hitherto. In order to mitigate the hardships that they have suffered as a result of a denial of equality of opportunity to them in the educational field, I consider that certain concessions should be extended to them when the various proposals recommended by the Special Committee on Education are being brought into operation. Unless these concessions are granted, it will not be possible for Moors to catch up the other communities in the educational progress which a liberal provision of educational facilities has made it possible for them to achieve. The following concessions are therefore in my opinion imperative: -

(i.) In promoting pupils from the Vth standard to the post-primary schools, for a reasonable number of years to come, the door should be open for Moor pupils to be admitted to the post-primary section even though their level of achievement at the Vth standard stage does not compare so well as that attained by pupils of other communities.

(ii.) The same concessions should be extended to Moor pupils who sit for the VIIIth standard examination.

(iii.) In the case of Moor pupils, the maximum age limit for admission or retention in a post-primary school should be 16.

(iv.) The maximum age limit for retention in the practical school should be raised to 18 in the case of Moors.

(v.) The maximum age limit for retention in the senior school should be raised to 20 in the case of Moors.

(vi.) The maximum age limit for retention in the secondary school should be raised to 22 in the case of Moors.

(vii.) Owing to historical reasons, Ceylon Moors cannot be said to have as their home language ''Proper- Tamil'' of the Jaffna variety; hence Moor pupils should be free to adopt as their home language any one of the three languages, English, Sinhalese or Tamil, in accordance with the wishes of their parents.

(viii.) As a study of Arabic is the door Muslim culture and all that Muslims hold precious in their heritage, it is absolutely essential that provision should be made for the study of this language from the kindergarten stage right up to the post-primary stage. Arabic should be included as a subject for the S.S.C. examination.

(ix.) Provision should be made as in the case of Oriental pundits for the training of Moulavis who hold the Final Certificate of recognized Madrassas.

(x.) It will be perpetuating the historic wrong done to the Moor community which I have referred to at the beginning of my rider if the same standard of knowledge of Sinhalese or Tamil is insisted upon in the case of Moor candidates for entrance in to Training schools. Moor candidates should be given the concession extended to the Burghers, viz.: "It should be sufficient if they possessed, in addition, a sufficient knowledge of Sinhalese or Tamil ''.

(xi.) The development of Muslim education demands that the claims of Moors should receive due consideration when School Inspectors are being appointed.

(xii.) The Moors of Ceylon have a great contribution to make towards the general advancement of this country, but I strongly feel that it will not be possible to contribute their share towards this general progress unless in the educational sphere they are given the concessions that are outlined above until such time as the Moor community can be thought to s--J. N. A 93095 (11/49) have made sufficient progress and bridged the gap that existed between them and the other communities who had been liberally dealt with in the matter of educational facilities in the past.

2. I wish also to record my emphatic protest against the continuance of the denominational system. The evils that are associated with this system, for example, the illegal levies by managers, Wrongful discontinuance of teachers-teachers have been known to be discontinued for such anti-social reasons as marriage to a person of a religious persuasion other than the manager's-the impossibility of planning out a proper national scheme of education to suit the needs of different areas, and financial wastefulness resulting from the unhealthy competition of the different denominational groups, necessitate the establishment of a State system of schools, sensitive to national criticism and conforming to national ideals.

3. In my opinion it is also very undesirable that State Councilors should be either Managers or Principals of schools. Perhaps the limit of undesirability is reached, when a State Councilor, who is either a Manager or a Principal, serves as a member of the Executive Committee of Education. The anomaly of a State Councilor, at one moment sitting in the Executive Committee and directing the policy of education and giving orders to the Director of Education and at another moment receiving orders from the Director-is too grave to be ignored any further. It places such a member of the Executive Committee in a very awkward position, particularly in matters relating to school finance. Further State Councilors who are Principals of schools cannot in my opinion do full justice to their duties as Principals of schools-- and at the same time attend meetings of the State Council and of Executive Committees. In the interest of the dignity and independence attaching to the position of a State Councilor, I think the time has come when a choice should be made by a person as to whether he elects to be the Manager or Principal of a school on the one hand, or to be a State Councilor on the other hand. In any case, in order to avoid even the appearance of undue influence being exercised on the Director of Education, no State Councilor who is a Manager or a Principal should serve on the Executive Committee of Education.

A. R. A. RAZIK.

July 30, 1943.

DISSENT BY DR. W. IVOR JENNINGS.

THOUGH there is much in the Report with which I agree, I regret that I am unable to sign it. When I joined the Committee at its 30th meeting the main principles of its recommendations had already been laid -down. These recommendations assumed that the "English" schools would continue to levy fees, at least in the post-primary stage. It was not until the 88th meeting, when the Report was ready for signature, that it was decided to recommend that education be free from kindergarten to University. I agreed with that decision. Indeed, I had stated in my Rider that the absence of an “educational ladder” was one of the major defects of the educational system and that "I would willingly have gone up much further" than the Committee. I also pointed out that University education could be made free for two lakhs.

2. It seems to me, however, that the consequences of the decision need more consideration than the Committee has given to them. Since the whole of the Report, other than Chapter Xlll., was written on the assumption of a free-paying system in the post-primary stage, there may be many paragraphs where that assumption colors the recommendation. There are certainly three matters which in my opinion require further thought and discussion-

(1) I am not at all satisfied that the new grant system devised for secondary schools is satisfactory. The University Boards of Examiners are well aware that the teaching and equipment provided in the thirty or more schools which prepare for University examinations vary considerably, and that the variation is in substantial measure reflected in the examination results. If the effect of the Committee's proposals were to raise the level of all the schools to that of the best of them, I would heartily support them. In fact, however, the effect will be to reduce the expenditure in many of the best schools to the level of the least good of them. Ideally it is desirable that every student should have the best education without paying for it. The Committee has already denied that principle is capable of application, for it agrees that Private schools should be permitted. If every pupil capable of profiting from secondary education is able to obtain the best that the State can afford, if every school is required to provide a high proportion of free places, and if no school is a profit-making concern, it would not appear objectionable (in present social conditions) that some schools provide better staff, better equipment and better buildings by levying fees. The result would be that the richer parents would subsidize the free scholars. This is the system operated in grant-aided grammar schools and other "direct grant” schools in England. That it works well I know from personal experience; and that it ensures to the advantage of the ''free scholars'' in such schools is shown by the examination results of the British Universities. In the City of Bristol, for instance, the six direct-grant schools receive all the best scholars from the elementary schools, and they almost monopolies the scholarships won at Oxford and Cambridge. These free scholars are in effect subsidized not only by grants and endowments but also by the fees paid by the parents of other pupils. The six schools are thus able to provide better facilities to their free scholars than the other secondary Schools of the City. Unless the Ceylon Government is prepared to provide grants, which will enable the most expensive schools of the Island to keep up their present rate of expenditure, I fear that some similar scheme must be established. It would certainly be inconsistent with my duty to the University to support a scheme which might lower the standard of some of the best schools in the Island.

(2) The considerable increase in the grants payable to schools seems to me to require a reconsideration of the problem of the control of education. It would appear to justify a much closer control over the quality of the education given in the schools. On the other hand, it is very undesirable that there should be increased political control of the schools. No difficulty arises with the secondary schools in England, whether they are direct-grant, provided, or non-provided, for there is a firm tradition separating control and administration. Education is left to the expert while control is vested for all practical purposes, in a non-political board of managers or governors. Ceylon, on the other hand, not only permits a much greater interference in purely educational matters, but also has the peculiar system of the individual manager. I know too little about the system to propose a solution: but I would suggest that the problem requires further consideration.

(3) I have never been happy about the proposal to establish three types of post-primary schools, secondary, senior and practical, and I am now much less happy. The idea was elaborated before became a member and it appears to have been adopted from the Spens Report. There may have been a case for some such division in Great Britain, though it has now been swept away by the decision to make education compulsory up to the age of 16 as soon as buildings are available. There may be a case in Ceylon if -

(i.) the Committee's recommendations for compulsory education are ignored, and

(ii.) fees are charged in senior and secondary schools.

In such a case there will be very few leaving senior schools at the age of 16, probably not more than the number of posts available for them. If, however, education really became compulsory and if pupils of all classes were encouraged by free education to remain at school up to the age of 16, there might be as many as 22,500 (15 per cent of 150,000) leaving school every year with commercial and technical qualifications. I see no evidence that the Island is likely to be able to absorb even half that number. I appreciate the difficulty (which perhaps weighed with the Committee) that many pupils are receiving a wholly inappropriate '' academic'' education in secondary schools. I think the solution is partly to alter the bias of secondary education and partly to improve the quality of the other schools and to encourage them to specialize. I fear that the senior schools will be regarded as having a higher social status than the practical schools which will mean that the ablest boys and girls will continue to be repelled from careers in agriculture. I should therefore recommend that there be only two types of post primary school, the academic and the practical. There is indeed much to be said for having only one type; but I fear (with the Committee) that they would all turn academic.

3. It is perhaps unfortunate that the terms of reference of the Special Committee were so wide. Ceylon has, for a tropical country, a good educational system. It has a comparatively high rate of literacy (though it is not as high as the figures sometimes suggest), a very intelligent peasantry, and a highly-educated middle class. Nevertheless, it has a very long way to go; and I think that the problems are so huge that they must be tackled in sections. Undoubtedly the most urgent reform is to secure universal compulsory education from the ages of 5 to 14. Let no one think that Ceylon has already tackled that problem. England and Wales have 92 per cent of their 6 million children of school age attending ***grant-in-aid*** schools, i.e., omitting children at private schools and those taught at home. Owing to the absence of statistical returns and even of a modem census, comparable figures are not available in Ceylon. It appears, however, that there are about 1,350,000 children of school age, while only 800,000 pupils of all ages are at school. I suspect that even the latter figure contains some element of fiction, for it is the number on the roll, and the average attendance is very much lower. The average attendance at Sinhalese, Tamil and Bilingual schools is about73 per cent of those on the roll, while in England and Wales the average attendance at public elementary schools is nearly 90 per cent It is thus clear that only a fraction of the child population of Ceylon receives even the bare minimum of education. Less than 30 per cent attend in the fifth standard and only about 10 per cent attend in the seventh' standard. It is generally agreed, too, that the quality of the education given in the Sinhalese and Tamil schools is poor. We thus reach the conclusion that a high proportion of the child population does not attend school at all, that an even higher proportion attends for a short period only, and that those who do attend receive education of a poor quality.

4. I suggest that this is the primary problem, and that it should be tackled at once. Its solution would require the building of many new schools, the provision of much better accommodation and equipment and the training of many more teachers. In the process it would be desirable to separate the primary and the post-primary schools. The latter could provide a more ''practical" training than that provided by the secondary schools in the past, but whether it was "agricultural'' or ''commercial and technical'' should depend on the location of the schools. English should be taught from the third standard, and those who showed the "academic" type of ability should be provided with scholarships to the secondary schools. Meanwhile the secondary schools would begin the process of reforming themselves, especially because the creation of new Faculties at the University would provide a wider variety of higher education for which the secondary schools would prepare. If at the end of this period of rapid

development it was found that the secondary schools had not properly adapted' themselves to the new conditions another series of reforms could be instituted.

5. The above scheme, or something like it, would be much less heroic than the Committee's scheme, but it would be much, more practicable. The Consultative Committee of the Board of Education has had a much less difficult task than that of the Special Committee. When it was reconstituted in 1920 it had to consider a fully developed educational system in which provision was made for the education of every child of school age, together with secondary school education for every child who could show the right type of ability, technical schools for those of mechanical bent, and ample scholarships to Universities. Nevertheless, it decided to take up the problems of reform one by one. The necessity of these Fabian tactics has been shown by the experience of the reorganization proposed in the Haddow Report. Though recommended in 1926 it was still not complete in 1939. If this was the experience in England and Wales, Fabian tactics would seem to be even more necessary in Ceylon, here the educational system is in some respects more backward than the English system of 1900. In this connection it should be pointed out that Appendix 8 of the Special Committee's Report may give a false impression of the cost. The Committee has assumed a school population of 600,000. I understand that there are 160,000 children in the 5-6 age group alone. If elementary education were made genuinely compulsory, as the Committee itself proposes, there would be at last 1¼ million children under 14 at school. The distribution of pupils would be not as the Committee shows it, but something as follows: -

Primary	...	900,000	Secondary	...	40,000
Practical	...	350,000	Senior	...	100,000

The Committee's figures are based on the present school population, not the school population proposed by the Report. Nor does the Appendix take any account of the vast capital expenditure required for new primary schools, practical schools, Senior Schools and new secondary schools.

6. There are other paragraphs in the Report with which I could not agree. I regret, for instance, the racial definition of "Mother Tongue" in paragraph 90. There are many ways of encouraging the use of Sinhalese and Tamil and if it is so desired) discouraging the use of English, without attempting the impossible task of dividing the people of Ceylon according to ''race". I should not have dissented merely because of minor differences of this character. My chief objection is that the Committee, after 87 meetings, suddenly changed the basis on which the Report was compiled. Since I agreed with the proposal to make education free, I was quite prepared to start again; but the Committee decided otherwise and I am therefore unable to sign the Report. I should like to add, however, that there are many Chapters, especially Chapters XVI to XIX which should help to improve the Ceylon system of education.

W. IVOR JENNINGS.

DISSENT BY MR. J. C. AMARASINGHAM.

1. THE time is not ripe for the introduction of free education in all types of schools up to the very highest class. I am in hearty agreement with our decision made earlier that education shall be free to the end of the compulsory age. My reasons for the position have taken up are briefly as follows: -

(a) Free education is likely to become inefficient education, particularly in Assisted Schools. In this country the Assisted school is one which is run chiefly, if not entirely, with Government grant and school fees. Government pays a grant in respect of a minimum number of teachers. School fees go to make up the balance necessary to run the school efficiently. Unless the Government is prepared to provide enough money over and above the minimum staff requirements to enable the Manager to run his school as efficiently as he thinks or unless the Manager is prepared to meet the balance of expenses from his own resources, Ceylon education is likely to become third-rate education in most Assisted schools. Neither of these two conditions is likely to be fulfilled. My long experience with vernacular education prompts me to make this statement.

(b) It may be asked why the same argument should not hold good in respect of education up to 14+. I submit there is, to some extent, Justification in this objection. But it would be readily accepted as things are 9-J.N.A. 93095 (11/49) at present and as they are likely to be for some time to come, the equipment and the staff necessary for the higher department of secondary and senior schools will be much more expensive than those of other grades of schools. This additional expense should have additional source of income in the form of fees.

(c) Free education up to the highest class in schools and free education in the University should be our ideal. But any cautious statesman would move slowly and steadily, stage by stage. Evolution is a safer process than revolution. For some years to come as a first stage in reaching our goal free education up to a certain age had better be provided. 14+ is the proper age for this purpose. Education is compulsory, therefore it ought to be free not merely in the poorer types of school but also in the better types of school. For, the type of school to which a boy should go should be determined not by his parents' wealth but by his capacity to be benefited by the education given to him. All schools and colleges teaching up to 14 + should have attained an equally high standard of efficiency before we venture higher. When we have satisfactorily solved this, we may proceed to the second stage; not till then.

(d) The free education proposed by the Special Committee is not going to benefit the class of people who need such help more than others. The poorer children who need the State's help more than others will not proceed with their education unless other important conditions are fulfilled. (i.) Food, clothing, books, &c., total up more than school fees. What most parents find difficulty in providing is not the latter. The subsidiaries cost them more. Is the Government prepared to provide food, clothing, books, &c., to all those who deserve them. I doubt it. Though the Committee has recommended such a provision in respect of food, I am afraid it will remain only a pious wish. Even if this is provided, (ii.) there is the question of the loss of income to a poor family by its children's withdrawal from remunerative work that might add to the family income. Is the Government prepared to meet this contingency too?

(e) All those children who most deserve the help we are trying to give them by making all higher education free are provided for by the requirement that 25 per cent of all students, be given scholarship. The additional financial burden will be out of proportion to the correlative increase in educational facilities.

(f) By what I have said above I do not wish to be understood as being opposed forever to education up to the highest class in our schools. I would strongly support a long-term plan whereby at the end of a certain number of years education shall be completely free. The goal should be reached by steady and wise progress. When that goal is reached, every boy and girl capable of higher secondary or senior education should be financially helped, wherever necessary, to receive that education. When education thus becomes completely free, provision should be made whereby the Director of Education should be the ultimate authority in respect of appointment, dismissal and transfer of teachers in Assisted schools. If this be not possible, the State should take over complete control of education in the country. Denominational schools may be given a small grant in recognition of their services to the cause of education. They should however satisfy the Director in respect of educational requirements.

2. Unless the opinion expressed in paragraph 89 of the Report in respect of parity amongst all types of schools is to be only a pious wish, the salary scale for practical schools should be the same as the scale for the senior and secondary schools.

3. The following procedure should be followed in respect of appointments in schools where the full cost of salary paid by the Department. The vacancy should be advertised by the manager. The manager may nominate one of the applicants and ask for the Director's approval, forwarding all the applications to the Director along with his reasons for his selection. If the Director is satisfied, the appointment should he made forthwith. If the Director is not satisfied, he shall ask for a second nomination. If this too be unsatisfactory, the Director shall make the appointment.

4. No teacher in a State school may be called upon either by the Director or by the Head master of a school to teach religion. It should never be necessary for he Director or the Headmaster of a school to inquire as to what a

man's religion is. School buildings, however, should be available before or after school hours for any authorized religious leader to organize religious education in that school.

5. There should be no difference in the treatment between an old Assisted school and a new Assisted school. For a period of five years the old school may receive differential treatment, but not after that.

6. The allowance paid to a teacher's wife or his dependents should not vary in amount from place to place.

7. The minimum number of students for a training school should be 100.

8. That a Senior school, or a Secondary school, should form part of a Teacher training Centre need not be insisted on. It should be enough if a Senior school or a Secondary school were made available for teaching practice within a reasonable distance of the Training Centre.

J. C. AMARASINGHAM.

RIDER BY MR. S. NATESAN.

IN planning courses of studies in Tamil suitable to the three types of schools envisaged in the Report, there are some general aims to be kept in view. The study of Tamil at school should not only enable the students to express themselves correctly and effectively in the language, but should also give them an opportunity of getting some idea of the cultural heritage enshrined in the language. In the secondary schools, of course, it would be possible to lay more emphasis on literary appreciation and enjoyment, but even in the practical and senior schools, it is important that the cultural aspect of the study of Tamil should be given its rightful place in the planning of the syllabus. There should be a basic syllabus, which should include the elements of grammar and the study of selections from Auvaiyar. Thiruvalluvar and some of the other great masters of the language. Music and Drama should go hand in hand with the study of Tamil literature. The time-honored classification of Tamil studies into Iyal (Literature), Isai (Music) and Natakam (Drama) emphasizes the value attached to Music and Drama as aids to the study of Tamil Literature.

2. Tamil is already being used as the medium of instruction in Tamil schools up to the S.S.C. standard, with fairly satisfactory results, though the standard of teaching in these schools may not compare favorably with the standard attained by English schools. The difficulty with regard to text-books is not as acute in the case of Tamil as it is in the case of Sinhalese. I am afraid that the progress made so far in the use of Tamil as the medium of instruction in Tamil schools, especially in the higher classes, will receive a set-back, if there is a large-scale conversion of Tamil schools into practical schools, and if due attention is not paid to the necessity for viding a good number of secondary schools imparting instruction through the medium of Tamil. I am anxious that there should be ample scope not only for maintaining the progress already made in the use of Tamil as a medium of expression, but for extending it further in the interests of higher learning in Tamil. Present-Day trends in the development of Tamil show the possibility of making Tamil effective vehicle of modem thought. Steps should be taken for the establishment of institutions of higher learning in Tamil which will impart instruction in Science as well as in other subjects through the medium of Tamil beyond the S.S.C. standard.

S. NATESAN.

APPENDIX 1.

QUESTIONNAIRE.

A. - Aims and general features of a System of Education suitable for Ceylon.

1. What do you think should be the aims and general features of a system of education suited to Ceylon?

B. – General Defects of the existing System.

2. What are the more patent defects and drawbacks of the existing system of education from the social, educational and economic points of view?

C. – Control of Schools.

3. Should all schools be owned and controlled by the State? If not, what degree of control should be exercised by the State over non-Government schools? Should non-Government schools be aided from public funds? If so, to what extent?

D. – Grading of Schools.

4. Should schools continue to be divided into English and Vernacular schools or should they be divided according to their curriculum and not according to their media of instruction?
5. Should primary schools be separate from post-primary schools? Should there be separate Infant schools?
6. Should there be one type of post-primary school with various sides, or should there be different types of post-primary schools?
7. Are you in favor of post-primary education for all, or should post-primary education be restricted? If the latter, what should be the basis of restriction?
8. Are you satisfied with the present provision for vocational education?

E. – Curricula.

9. What should be the particular aims and the curricula of primary schools? Is there anything wrong with the present curricula?
10. What should be the particular aims and the curricula of post-primary schools? Is there anything wrong with the present curricula?
11. How far should crafts from the basis for framing the curricula?
12. How far should curricula be adapted so as to include training for future employment?
13. What should be the medium of instruction in the different types of schools and what should be the place of English in these schools?
14. Should both Sinhalese and Tamil be made compulsory in post-primary schools? If so to what extent?

F. – Examinations.

15. What are the defects of the present system of examinations? What remedies do you suggest?

G. – Teachers.

16. Do you suggest any changes in the existing system of recruitment, certification and training of teachers?
17. Should the salary of a teacher depend upon the type of school to which he is attached, the post which he holds in that school, and/or upon his qualification?
18. Should teachers form an educational service with graded posts?
19. Are any changes necessary in the present rules in regard to the appointment, payment, dismissal and disciplinary control of teachers in Assisted schools?

H. – Inspectors.

20. Are there any objections to the present system of inspection of schools? If so, what remedies do you suggest?

I. – Educational Research.

21. What provision should Government make for the promotion of educational experiments and research?

APPENDIX 2.

LIST OF INDIVIDUALS AND ASSOCIATIONS WHO SENT REPLIES TO THE QUESTIONNAIRE OR FORWARDED MEMORANDA ON EDUCATIONAL REFORMS.

1. Chilaw Maha Jana Sabha, Marawila.
2. Mr. D. T. Devendra, Dharmaraja College, Kandy.
3. Mr. T. S. Selviah, Bonnieland, Badulla.
4. All-Ceylon Union of Teachers, Chundikuli, Jaffna
5. Mr. V. T. Gnanasuriyam, Arasadi Training School, Batticaloa.
6. Ceylon Educational Association, Wesley College, Colombo.
7. Mr. S. L. B. Kapukotuwa, Assistant Director of Education.
8. Manager, Sri Puspadana Society School, Kandy.
9. Sivali Education Society, Ratnapura.
10. The Rev. G. E. Jessop, Methodist Mission (E.P)
11. The Rev. H. R. Cornish, General Manager, Methodist Mission Schools.
12. Society of Ceylon Teachers, 147/1, Elliott road, Galle.
13. Mr. W. A. de Silva, Mahamodera, Galle.
14. Ceylon Catholic Board of Education, Archbishop's House, Borella.
15. Ceylon Headmasters' Conference.
16. The Rev. R. S. de Saram.
17. Principal, B. M. S. English School, Matale.
18. The Rev. H. W. Spillett, Carey Baptist College, Colombo.
19. The General Manager, R. C. Schools, Colombo.
20. The Rev. S. F. Pearce, Field Secretary, Baptist Missionary Society.
21. Vernacular Teachers' Union of the Colombo Archdiocese, St. Peter's School, Negambo.

22. Galle Vernacular Teachers' Association, Elliot road, Galle.
23. Kolonna Korale Teachers' Association.
24. Walapane Teachers' Association, Nildandahinna.
25. Bentota Circuit Teachers' Associoation, Kosgoda.
26. Lanka Maha Jana Sabha., Hulftsdorp street, Colombo.
27. The Sisters of Charity, Ceylon.
28. Kandy Saraswathie Mandalaya, Trinity College, Kandy.
29. Mathara Circuit Head Teachers' Conference.
30. The General Manager, R. C. Schools, Batticaloa.
31. Mr. G. E. de Saram, Galle.
32. Mr. H. D. Gunasekara, Ratnapura.
33. Mr. S. A. Wickramasuriya., Government English School, Matugama.
34. Staff of Maradana Girls' Boarding School (Baptist).
35. Kandy and Matale District Baptist Schools Committee.
36. Secretary, British and Foreign Bible Society.
37. Mr. J. de Silva, Nanodaya College, Kalutara.
38. Ceylon Baptist union, The Manse, Ratnapura.
39. Miss E. A. Allsop, Ferguson High School, Ratnapura.
40. Mr. P. Thenabadu, Mahinda College, Galle.
41. Manager, Roman Catholic Schools, Kegalla.
42. Mr. N. A. Liyanage, Gitanjali, Pussellawa.
43. Kegalla Sinhalese Teachers' Association.
44. Mr. S. Shivapadasunderam, Kandavanam, Valvettiturai.
45. Mr. B. H. C. Mendis, Holy Trinity School, Pussellawa.
46. Provincial Visitor, St. Joseph's Novitiate, Mutwal.
47. Matara Teachers' Association.
48. Panadura Teachers' Association.
49. Kandy Teachers' Association.
50. Sri Indajoti Buddhist Educational Society.
51. The Rev. Father Sebastian Fernando.
52. Catholic Union of Ceylon, Caxton House, Kotahena.
53. General Manager, R. C. Schools, Jaffna.
54. General Manager, R. C. Schools, North Western Province.
55. General Manager, R. C. Schools, Galle.
56. Mr. V. Veerasingham, Principal, Manipay Hindu College.
57. B. Nanarathana Thero, General Manager, Buddhist Schools, Peliyagoda.
58. Sinhalese Merchants' Chamber, Olcott buildings, Colombo.
59. Tamil Training Schools' Teachers' Association, Chavakachcheri.
60. Manager, Salvation Army Schools, Union place, Colombo.
61. Kalutara District Vern. Teachers' Association, Paiyagala.
62. Mr. Cyril Fonseka, St. Sebastian's road, Colombo.
63. Mr. M. D. Cyril Perera., Colombo.
64. Gramawardhana Samitiya, Kannimahara, Waturugama.
65. Kandaboda Ubheya Lokartha Sadhaka Samitiya, Dekatana, R. 0.
66. Moratuwa Catholic Association.
67. Head Teacher, Narawelpita. Boys' School.
68. Certain residents of Kurunegala.
69. Uda Hewaheta Teachers' Association, Government Bilingual School, Poramadulla, Rikkillakaskala.
70. Mr. Dingiri Banda, Head Teacher, Sri Swarnajothi B. M. School, Kiribathnuwara, Peradeniya.
71. The Catholic Teachers' Association, Colombagam, Jaffna.
72. Mr. C. K. Swaminathan, Retired Head Master, Ramanathan College, Chunnakam.
73. Certain residents of Kalutara.
74. The Burgher Political Association of Ceylon.
75. Coronation Silver Jubilee Teachers' Union, Methodist School, Maha·Ambalangoda, Ambalangoda.
76. Mr. D. D. L. W. Gunasekera, Head Teacher, C. C. S. M. School, Gampaha.
77. Principal teachers of the Southern Division, Elliott road, Galle.
78. Parent-Teachers' Association, Girls' Sinhalese School, Sea Street, Negombo.
79. Ratnapura Vernacular Teachers’ Association, Ratnapura.
80. Mr. J. P. Nagalingam, Manipay.
81. Teachers’ Association, Tudella.
82. Peradeniya Training Colony.

83. Moratuwa Maha Jana Sabha.
84. Mr. M. B. A. Jayasekera, Head Teacher, C. C. S. M. School, Hanguranketa.
85. St. Sebastian's College Old Boys' Union, Moratuwa.
86. Saiva Managers' Association, Jaffna.
87. Ceylon Teachers' Association, Havelock Town, Government School, Colombo.
88. Mr. J. C. Amarasingham and others, Chavakachcheri.
89. Christian Council of Ceylon, P. 0. Box 510, Colombo.
90. All Ceylon Swabasha Teachers' Union, Marshall street, Mutwal.
91. General Manager, R. C. Schools, Jaffna.
92. Mr. C. S. Arulananthan, U. C., Jaffna.
93. The Rev. Fr. B. Wm Jesu Thasan, 0. M. I., St. Xavier's School, Mannar.
94. Miss R. R. Chelliah, Ramanathan College, Jaffna.
95. Mr. S. R. Jacob (Representative of the Jaffna Depressed Tamils), Ghandhi Ashram, Uduvil, Chunnakam.
96. Mr. A. M. Piyadasa, "Amaragiri", Alawatugoda.
97. Ven'ble Pandit Welivitiya Punnasara Nayake Thero, Galle.
98. The Rev. Fr. E. Crowther, S. J.
99. Mrs. D. Gunawardane, Yalta, Flower road, Colombo.
100. Ubayartha Sadaka Free Reading Room, Rajakadaluwa.
101. Jaffna Association, Jaffna.
102. Rev. Bro. Cristantian, F. S. C., St. Joseph's Novitiate, Mutwal.
103. Mr. J. T. Hensman, Chawakachcheri.
104. Dr. M. D. S. Jayawardane, School Medical Officer, Colombo.
105. Mr. S. H. Suwaris Silva, Head Teacher, Wellaltota School, Talpe.
106. Mr. V. T. S. Sivagurunathan, Colombo.
107. Negombo Urban Council.
108. Kandy Local Advisory Committee, Kandy.
109. Diocesan Council of Ceylon, Colombo.
110. Y. M. C. A., Colombo.
111. Mr. J. P. Perera, D. M. O's Bungalow, Nawalapitiya.

APPENDIX 3.

WITNESSES WHO GAVE ORAL EVIDENCE BEFORE THE SPECIAL COMMITTEE AT VARIOUS PROVINCIAL CENTRES.

Jaffna.

1. Mr. J. V. Chelliah, J.P
2. Mr. C. K. Swaminathan, retired Headmaster, Ramanathan College.
3. The Rev. James S. Mather, Chairman, North Ceylon Methodist Mission
   The Rev. M. S. Chinniah, Manager, Methodist Vernacular Schools — Representing the Methodist Mission.
4. The Rev. Fr. T. M. F. Long, O.M.I., Rector, St. Patrick's College.
5. Miss. R. R. Chelliah, Vice-Principal, Ramanathan College.
6. Chevalier S. Arulanantham and
   Mr. S. M. Aboobacker — Representing the Urban Council Jaffna.
7. The Rev. Fr. L. A. Singarayer,
   Messrs. V. A. Johnpillai and
   S. Gnanapragasam — Representing the Catholic Teachers' Association of the North.
8. Messrs S. Rajarathnam,
   S. Adchalingam and
   S. R. Kanaganayagam — Representing the Hindu Board of Education.
9. The Rev. S. K. Bunker, Principal, Jaffna College.
10. Mr. K. A. Chelliah, Vice-Principal, Jaffna College.
11. Mr. T. H. Crossette, retired Vice- Principal, St. John's College.
12. Messrs. P. Ragupathy,
    K. Muttukumaraswamy and others — Representing the North Ceylon Tamil Teachers' Association.
13. Mr. A. Thambipillai
14. Mr. S. R. Jacob, representative of the lower castes
15. Mr. A. Cumaraswamy, — Representing the North Province Teachers' Association.

Mr. J. C. Charles and others

16. The Rev. Fr. Emilianuspillai, O.M.I.
    The Rev. Fr. Bizien, O.M.I
    The Rev. Fr. T. M. F. Long, O.M.I.
    — Representing the management of Catholic Schools.
17. Mr. C. Arulambalam, J. P.

Kandy

18. Adigar T. B. Panabokke
19. Mr. D.T. Devendra, Dharmaraja College.
20. Dr. W. L. Vitharana
    Dr. S. T. de Silva
    — Representing the Puspadana Society
21. The Rev. J. C. Harvey, Superintendent, Peradeniya Training School.
22. The Rev. Fr. D. L. Hyde, St. Anthony's College.
23. Messrs. B. H. Dunuwille
    H. R. V. Premaratne
    — Representing the Municipal Council, Kandy.
24. Messrs. M. A. S. Marikar
    N. A. M. Naheem
    — Representing the Kandyan Muslim Association
25. The Rev. Fr. D. G. Phoebus, General Manager, R. C. Schools.
26. Messrs. C. E. Simitharachy
    J. C. A. Corea
    G. D. A. Abeyratne
    — Representing the Kandy Teachers' Association
27. Messrs. S. A. Peiris
    H. D. C. Goonewardane
    K. J. Fernando
    — Representing the Local Advisory lar Teachers' Association
28. Mr. E. W. Aryanayakam, Secretary, All-India Education Board (National Congress).
29. Messrs. M. A. perera
    H. K. Kurukule Arachy
    E. H. de Alwis
    — Representing the Kandy Saraswathie Mandalaya.
30. The Ven'ble Mabopitiya Medankara Nayaka Thero, Principal, Sangaraja Pirivena.
31. Messrs. R. S. S. Goonewardane
    P. B. Ranaraja
    — Representing the local Advisory Committee, Kandy Rural Area.
32. Messrs. P. B. Ranaraja
    A. Godamune and others
    — Representing the Kandyan Youth League.

Galle.

33. Miss. D. K. Williams, Principal, Rippon Girls' School.
34. Dr. C. S. P. Jayanayake
35. Mr. J. E. Lodowyk
36. Messrs. J. C. Handy
    P. B. Ratnayake and others
    — Representing the Southern province Principal Teachers' Association.
37. Messrs J. Ginige
    J. Hewawasam and others
    — Representing the Society of Ceylon Teachers.
38. Mr. D. L. wanigaratne, Teacher, Government School.
39. Muhandiram J. P. Amarasinghe
    Mr. H. N. Abeywardane and others
    — Representing the Vernacular Teachers' Association, Galle.
40. Mr. E. R. de Silva, Acting principal, Richmond College.
41. E. A. Wijesuriya, Principal, Mahinda College.
42. Capt. A. F. de Saa Bandaranaike
43. Mr. D. J. Kumarage, Principal, Rahula Vidyalaya, Matara.
44. Mr. C. A. Aryatilaka, Manager, Rahula Vidyalaya.
45. Mr. C. D. A. Gunawardane
46. The Rev. Pundit W. Punyasara Nayaka Thero, Principal, Vidyaloka Pirivena, Galle.
47. Mr. W. Balasuriya, Chairman, Urban Council, Matara.
48. Miss. Nina Perera, Headmistress, Sangamitta Girls' School.
49. Mr. W. A. Gunatilaka, Mudaliyar, Bentota-Wellawiti Korale.
50. Mr. H. de S. Kularatne
51. Mr. A. M. Sabeed
52. Mr. C. L. wickramasinghe, J.P.
53. Mr. K. S. Wimalasuriya

Batticaloa.

54. Messrs. V. Nalliah
    — Representing the Urban Council, Batticaloa.

M. C. Abdul Cader
G. S. Stephens

55. The Rev. Fr. E. Crowther, Principal, St. Michael's College.
56. The Rev. Bro. E. Chrysostum, Headmaster, St. Augustine Training School.
57. Mr. S. Ambalavaner, Headmaster, Shivananda Vidyalaya.
58. Miss. G. Croft
    Mr. I. Sebastiampillai
    — The Eastern Province Teachers' Association.
59. Mr. V. T. Gnanasuriyam, Headmaster, Arasadi Training School.
60. Mudaliyar M. S. Kariapper, Vanniah, Kalmunai.
61. The Rev. J. Cartman, Principal, Central College.
62. The Rev. B. Holland, Manager, Methodist Mission schools.

Colombo.

63. The Rev. Fr. E. Gaspard
    The Rev. Fr. Dago Fernando
    The Rev. Fr. D. J. Anthony
    — Representing the Catholic Board of Education.
64. The Rev. Fr. D. J. Nicholas Perera, Principal, St. Peter's College.
65. The Rev. Bro. Christantian
66. Dr. Lucian de Zilwa
    Messrs. D. J. B. Kuruppu
    E. H. de La Harpe
    — Representing the Catholic Union of Ceylon.
67. Mr. G. Weeramantry
68. Messrs. P Ragupathy
    E. Ramalingham
    — Representing the Hindu Board Teachers' Association.
69. Messrs. S. H. Perimbanayagam
    R. H. Philips
    K. Nesiah and others
    — Representing the All-Ceylon Union of Teachers.
70. The Rev. H. R. Cornish
    The Rev. S. F. Pearce
    The Rev. Bro. Luke
    — Representing the Ceylon Educational Association.
71. Messrs. P. M. Perera
    M. Mathias and others
    — Representing the Sri Lanka Mahaguru sangamaya.
72. The Rev. D. S. T. Izzet
73. Mrs. C. Motwani, Principal, Visakha Vidyalaya.
74. Dr. E. W. Adhikaram
75. Messrs. A. D. Jayasekara
    E. C. H. Fernando
    D. F. Athukorala and others
    — Representing the All-Ceylon Swabasha Teachers' Union.
76. The Chairman and four Members of the Urban Council, Negambo.
77. The Rev A. Vandergert
    Dr. V. R. Schokman and others
    — Representing the Burgher Political Association.
78. The Hon. Mr. W. A. de Silva
79. Sir Mohamed Macan Markar
80. Mr. V. T. S. Sivagurunathan
81. Mr. G. H. Perera
82. Mr. R. Nagamuttu
83. Mr. S. Weerakody, Secretary, Pupil Teachers' Association.
84. Mr. A. R. A. Razik, M.S.C.
85. Mr. J. S. de Silva, Principal, Gnanodaya College, Kalutara.
86. The Rev. Bro. Albert
    The Rev. S. K. Bunker
    Mr. J. N. Jinendradasa
    — Representing the Headmasters' Conference.
87. Sri Math Swami Avinasananda
    Sri Math Swami Nishkamananda
    — Representing the Ramakrishna Mission.
88. Mr. Donald Obeysekera and
    Mr. rupasinghe
    — Representing the Urban Council, Kotte.
89. Dr. M. C. M. Kaleel
    Mr. M. A. C. M. Kaleel and others
    — Representing the Ceylon Muslim League.
90. The Divisional Inspectors of Schools.
    Miss. E. E. Solomons, Inspectress of Schools.
91. Dr. M. D. S. Jayawardana, School Medical Officer, Colombo.

92. The Rt. Rev. Dr. C. D. Horsley — Representing the Diocesan Committee of the Church of Ceylon.
The Rev. Derek Karunaratne
Dr. E. A. Cooray

93. The Rev. G. A. F. Senaratne
The Rev. D. T. Niles
The Rev. H. E. R. Goonewardene
— Representing the Christian Council of Ceylon.

94. Mr. J. D. William, representing the Urban Council, Kolonnawa.

95. Messrs. Gilbert Perera
Porolis Fernando and others
— Representing the Sinhalese Merchants' Chamber.

96. Mr. Francis de Zoysa, M.S.C.

97. Mr. H. O. Gunawardane

98. Messrs. D. Obeysekere
R. O. Buell
C. L. Peiris
— Representing the Y.M.C.A.

APPENDIX 4.

COMPOSITION OF VARIOUS SUB-COMMITTEES.

Sub-Committee on the differentiating tests (Vth Std. and VIIIth Std. tests)

H. S. Perora (Convener), S. A. Pakeman, P. de S. Kularatne, S. Shivapadasundaram, R. W. Stopford, R. S. de Saram, and W. I. Jennings (the last two taking the place of Stopford and Pakeman respectively).

Sub-Committee on Voluntary contributions from Assisted School teachers.

L. McD. Robison (Convener), T. B. Jayah, P. de S. Kularatne, W. I. Jennings, R. S. de Saram and M. J. LeGoc.

Sub-Committee on the contest of Education.

Members: W. I. Jennings (Chairman), H. S. Perera, G. P. Malalasekera, Co-opted: S. L. B. Kapukotuwa, K. S. Arulnandhy, Miss E. E. Solmons.

First Sub-Committee on grant and teachers' salary scales.

C. W. W. Kannangara, L. McD. Robison, M. J. LeGoc, T. B. Jayah, H. S. Perera and P. de S. Kularatne.

Second Sub-Committee on grants and teachers' salaries.

C. W. W. Kannangara, M. J. LeGoc, H. S. Perera and P. de S. Kularatne.

APPENDIX 5.

AN ORDINANCE TO DECLARE AN ASSISTED SCHOOL AND THE RIGHT TO THE SCHOOL PROPERTY AN EDUCATIONAL TRUST AND TO PROVIDE FOR THE REGISTRATION OF PROPRIETORS OF SCHOOLS.

BE it enacted by the Governor of Ceylon with the advice and consent of the State Council thereof as follows: -

1. This Ordinance may be cited as the Educational Trusts (Declaration and Registration) Ordinance No of 194, and shall come into operation on such date as the Governor may appoint (hereinafter referred to as the appointed date) by Proclamation published in the *Gazette.*

Part I.

2. (1) Every school established and being in receipt of grant before the appointed date and the property used in connexion with the school (unless any person other than the proprietor of the school is the owner of such property or unless such property forms part of the properly on which a church, temple or mosque ta situated) is hereby declared with effect from the appointed date to be an educational trust and shall be deemed to be a. charitable trust within the meaning of the Trusts Ordinance notwithstanding the provisions of section 5 (1) and (2) of the said Ordinance.

(2) Every school established after the appointed date and the property used in connection with the school (unless any person other than the proprietor of the school is the owner of such property or unless such property forms part of the property on which a church, temple or mosque situated) shall be an educational trust with effect from the date of its registration as an Assisted school and shall be deemed to be a charitable trust within the meaning of the Trusts Ordinance notwithstanding the provisions of section 5 (1) and (2) of the said Ordinance.

(3) The purpose of an educational trust shall be the advancement or promotion of education or knowledge.

(4) The person who or the body of persons or Society which one day preceding the appointed date is the lawful proprietor of every school referred to in sub-section (1) is hereby declared and shall be deemed to be the trustee or trustees of such school.

(5) The body of persons or Society which on the date preceding the date from which a school is registered as an Assisted school is the lawful- proprietor of every school referred to in sub-section (2) shall be the trustee or trustees of such school.

3. No person, body of persons or Society becoming a trustee or trustees under the provisions of the preceding section shall, except with the permission of the Court, renounce the trust.

4. (1) If the proprietor of a school which becomes a trust under the provisions of this Ordinance is a Society any person on due authorization by the Society may do all acts on behalf of the Society connected with the administration and conduct of the school. Provided, however, that if the law incorporating the Society specifically provide a procedure for the transaction of the business of the society the provisions of that law shall be observed.

(2) If the proprietor of a school shall be a person or body of persons the performance of all acts connected with the administration or conduct of the school shall be governed by such procedure as may be prescribed.

5. (1) A school which has become a trust under the provisions of this Ordinance or any property lawfully appertaining to it shall not be sold or o otherwise disposed of for consideration except with the permission of the Director first had and obtained.

(2) The proceeds of sale or transfer of a school referred to in sub-section (1) and the school property shall, within a period of six months from the date of such sale or transfer, be devoted for the purpose of establishing a new school or the improvement of an existing school within a prescribed radius of the old school; and if the proceeds are not so devoted with the aforesaid period of six months they shall vest in the Crown and shall be recoverable by the Director or the Attorney-General as if they were a debt due to the Crown.

(3) The Director shall not withhold permission to sell or transfer for consideration a school referred to in sub-section (1) and the school property except on the ground that the closure of the school is likely to affect public education adversely or that the proceeds of sale or transfer are not likely to be devoted solely to educational purposes.

(4) Any sale or transfer other than a mortgage effected in contravention of the provisions of sub-section (1) shall be null and void, and the school and the school property shall thereupon vest in the Crown.

6. (1) In the event of the office of trustee becoming vacant by death or otherwise the succession to the office and the disposal of the trust shall be determined in accordance with the provisions hereinafter set out.

(2) If the trustee shall be a Society and such Society shall renounce the trust the Court may, on application by the Attorney-General or the Director, either appoint another society as trustee or make order vesting the school and its property in the crown.

(3) If the trustee shall be a person or body of persons the succession shall be determined by the provisions of any notarially executed deed or last will of the deceased trustee or trustees.

(4) If a trustee other than a Society shall die intestate and without having executed a deed of succession or shall renounce the trust the trust shall continue to be administered by the surviving trustee or trustees, and if there shall be no such surviving trustee or trustees, the trust shall be deemed to have failed and the school and all the property thereto lawfully appertaining shall become vested in the Crown on the issue by the prescribed officer of a certificate to that effect.

7. If any school which becomes a trust under the provisions of the ordinance ceases to be maintained and conducted and the trustee or trustees shall not have transferred the trust by deed free of consideration to a Society or body of persons, being itself a trustee of an Assisted school or schools, the trust shall be deemed to have failed and all property lawfully appertaining to the trust shall vest in the Crown on the issue by the prescribed officer of a certificate to that effect.

8. (1) There shall be created a fund called the educational fund into which shall be paid the proceeds of sale of all property becoming vested in the Crown by virtue of the provisions of this Ordinance.

(2) The educational fund shall be administered by the Director who shall maintain a separate account of all receipts and expenditure from the fund.

(3) No part of the educational fund shall be expended on any purpose other than that of promoting the education of the youth of the Island.

9. (1) Separate accounts shall be kept in respect of every school which becomes a trust under the provisions of this ordinance, of the receipt of all, moneys, whether fees, grants &, endowments or donation & and the expenditure thereof.

(2) Such accounts shall be produced for inspection by the Director.

(3) No part of the assets of a. school shall be expended on any purpose other than a prescribed purpose.

(4) If any part of the assets of a school is expended in contravention of the provisions of the foregoing sub-section it shall be lawful for the Director to stop the payment of grant to the school.

Provided, however, that nothing in this ordinance shall be construed as derogating from the right of the Attorney-General or any two persons to bring an action before a Court for the restoration or restitution of any assets expended outside the purpose of the trust.

10. When a school becomes a trust under the provisions of this ordinance the trust shall not be deemed to be extinguished merely by reason or the school ceasing to receive grant.

11. The provisions of this ordinance shall be in addition to and not in substitution of the provisions of the Trusts ordinance but if there is any Cap. 72. conflict between any of the provisions of this Ordinance and the provisions of the trusts ordinance the former shall prevail.

Part II.

12. (1) Notwithstanding anything contained in any other written law to the contrary, it shall be a condition of the payment of grant to any school that the proprietorship of such school is vested in a person or body of persons or Society registered· under the provisions of this Ordinance.

(2) Any person, who, or body of persons or Society, which, on the day preceding the appointed date, is the proprietor of one or more Assisted schools shall be deemed to be registered under the provisions of this ordinance.

13. (1) The Director shall maintain a register of proprietors of schools. Provided, however, that the Director may maintain one and the same register for the purpose of registering proprietors and registering schools as Assisted schools.

(2) The names of persons, body of persons or Societies referred to in section 12 (2) shall be entered in the register by the Director as soon as may be convenient.

14. (1) The Director may in his discretion register as a proprietor any Society or body of persons not less than seven in number constituted or formed as the case may be for the purpose of promoting religious, charitable or educational enterprises, such Society or body of persons being already the proprietor of one or more schools.

(2) No Society shall be so registered unless one of its objects as declared in the law incorporating it is the promotion of education and less it is possessed of assets sufficient to finance the conduct of one or more schools. ·

(3) No body of persons not less than seven in number shall be so registered unless the sole object for which it has been formed is the promotion of education and unless it is possessed of assets sufficient to finance the conduct of one or more schools.

(4) Subject to the provisions of section 12 (2) no person or body of persons less than seven in number shall be registered under this ordinance.

(5) Regulations may be made laying down the conditions subject to which proprietors of schools will be registered.

15. (1) If any one or more conditions of registration are no longer maintained by a registered proprietor of a school it shall be lawful for the Director to cancel the registration of such proprietor.

(2) If any dispute relating to the proprietorship of a school or the construction of trust in relation to the school and the properly appertaining to it has been referred to Court the Director shall suspend the registration of the proprietor until the order of the. Court in the matter is known; or if the registration had already been affected the Direct may amend such registration so as to bring it into conformity with the order of the Court.

(3) The Director may from time to time rectify any verbal errors of registration.

Part III.

16. (1) The Executive Committee may make regulations for the purpose of carrying out or giving effect to the principles and provisions of this ordinance.

(2) In particular and without prejudice to the generality of the powers conferred by sub-section (1), the Executive Committee may make regulations for or in respect of all or any of the following matters: -

(a) the manner of keeping of accounts of a school which becomes a trust,

(b) the procedure relating to the taking possession of by the Crown of trust property where the trust fails,

(c) the procedure relating to the registration of proprietors,

(d) any matters for which regulations may be made under section 14; and

(e) all matters stated or required by this Ordinance to be prescribed.

(3) No regulation made under this section shall have effect until it has been approved by the state council and ratified by the governor; nor until notification of such approval and ratification has been published in the Gazette.

(4) Every regulation made by the Executive Committee shall, upon publication of the notification of the approval and ratification of that regulation as provided for in sub-section (3), be as valid and effectual as if it were herein enacted.

Part IV.

17. In this Ordinance, unless the content otherwise requires -

"Assisted school" means a school which is in receipt of grant;

"Director" means the Director of Education or any officer of the Department generally or specially authorized by him to perform his functions under this Ordinance;

"Executive Committee" means the Executive Committee of Education;

"Prescribed" means prescribed by regulation;

"Regulation" means a regulation made under section 16;

"Society" means a Society, Board of Governors, Board of Directors or other Association constituted by separate statute to be a body politic and corporate;

"proprietor of a school" means any person who, or body of persons which, in the opinion of the Director, has for the time being the right to maintain and conduct the school, whether by virtue of the legal title to the land or by virtue of any right to the possession and control of the building or by virtue of any permission whether express or implied given by the legal owner of the land or the person legally entitled to the possession of the building, as the case may be, to conduct the school therein;

"grant" means grant from state funds or funds of a local authority;

"school" includes the right to maintain and conduct the school;

"state funds" means money voted by the State Council;

"Court" means any court of competent jurisdiction.

APPENDIX 6

See page 160.

APPENDIX 7

SALARY SCALES

(Primary and Practical Schools)

	Basic Salary per Month.	Allowances.						Range of Salary and Allowances.
		Wife.			Dependents.			
		Rural.	Urban.	Municipal.	Rural.	Urban.	Municipal.	
Probationers ...	Rs. 30	Rs. c.	Rs. c.	Rs. c.	Rs. c.	Rs. c.	Rs. c.	Rs. 30
Trained Teacher ...	Rs. 50-Rs. 75 Rs. 2.50 biennial	20	0..25	0..30	0..01	0..12	50..15	0..Rs.50 – Rs.150
Tr. Grad. or Tech. Tr. Sp. for Practical Schools	Rs. 150-Rs. 250 Rs. 10 biennial	20	0..25	0..30	0..10	0..12	50..15	0..Rs. 150-Rs.340
Headmaster's allowance	150 pupils and less	Rs. 10	150 -	250 pupils	Rs. 15	Over	250 pupils	Rs. 25.

Senior and Secondary Schools.

		Rural. Rs. c.	Urban. Rs. c.	Mun. Rs. c.	Rural. Rs. c.	Urban. Rs. c.	Mun. Rs. c.	Range
Probationer* ...	Rs. 50							
Graduate probationer ...	Rs. 100							
Tr. Teacher or Approved Specialist	Rs. 80-150 Rs. 10 biennial	20	0..25	0..30	0..10	0..12	50..15	0..Rs. 80 - Rs. 225
Trd. Graduate† or Tech Trd.	Rs. 150 - Rs. 300	25	0..35	0..40	0..12	50..15	0..20	0..Rs. 150 - Rs. 400

Graduate		Rs. 15 biennial Rs. 340 - Rs. 500						
Headmaster	…	Rs. 20 biennial	50	0..62	50..75	0..15	0..20	0..25	0..Rs. 340 - Rs. 650

* Probationer in a secondary or senior school should possess the Higher School Certificate or an equivalent Qualification.
† The number of trained graduates in a school shall not exceed the proportion of one to every 40 students.

APPENDIX 8.

FINANCIAL IMPLICATIONS OF THE SALARIES SCHEME.

In working out the probable stabilized cost of our salaries scheme we have assumed the average attendance of pupils for whom educational provision (primary and post-primary) should be made in any year to be 600,000. This is not on the low side. The distribution of pupils among the various types of schools has been taken to be as follows: -

Primary	…	…	480,000	Senior	…	…	25,000
Practical	…	…	81,000	Secondary	…	…	14,000

This proportion represents fairly the present allocation of children to types of education corresponding to the types proposed. The maximum number of teachers worked out on the basis of the agreed quotas is as follows: -

Primary	…	…	17,778	Senior	…	…	925
Practical	…	…	3,000	Secondary	…	…	637

Cost to Government of Proposed Salary Scales.

A. – *Primary and Practical Schools.*

Average salary including allowances (taken over 30 years).

Class.				Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1.	Teacher with no dependents	…	…	790		
2.	Teacher with wife	…	…	1,005	(790 + 215)*	
3.	Teacher with wife and 1 dependent	…	…	1,091	(1,005 + 86)†	
4.	Teacher with wife and 2 dependents	…	…	1,177	(1,091 + 86)	
5.	Teacher with wife and 3 dependents	…	…	1,263	(1,177 + 86)	

* Average wife's allowance of Rs. 215 in obtained as follows: -

75 per cent of the Rural allowance of Rs. 20
20 per cent of the Urban allowance of Rs. 25
5 per cent of the Municipal allowance of Rs. 30
} ×12 = Rs. 258. 5/6 of this (allowing for cases of unmarried teachers) is Rs. 215.

† Average dependents' allowance of Rs. 86 is calculated as follows: -

75 per cent of the Rural allowance of Rs. 10
20 per cent of the Urban allowance of Rs. 12.50
5 per cent of the Municipal allowance of Rs. 15
} ×12 = Rs. 129. 2/3 of this (allowing for cases where there is no dependent) = Rs. 86.

Average salary for Class 1 Rs. 800 (round number).
Average salary for Classes 2-5 Rs. 1,180 (round number).

Cost to Government of Primary Schools.

				Rs.
Number of Trained Teachers in Primary Schools	…	…	…	16,000
Number of Probationers	…	…	…	1,778
			Total …	17,778

Costs.

Rs.

Probationers Rs. 360×1,778	…	…	640,080
¾ Trained Teachers Women Rs. 800×12,000	…	…	9,600,000
¼ Trained Teachers Men Rs. 1,180×4,000	…	…	4,720,000
Women Teachers' dependents allowance (1 only) Rs. 86*×5,000		…	430,000
Headmasters' allowance Rs. 141†×5,000	…	…	705,000
For additional Tr. Grads.	…	…	100,000
			16,195,080

* Women teachers' dependents allowance of Rs. 86 is calculated in the same way as explained above.

† Headmasters' allowance of Rs. 141 is calculated as follows: -

75 per cent of Rs. 10 (under 150 children)
20 per cent of Rs. 15 (150-250 children) ×12 = Rs. 141
5 per cent of Rs. 25 (0ver 250 children)

Cost to Government of Practical Schools.

			Rs.
Number of Probationers	…	…	300
Number of Tr. Teachers, Tr. Grads. and Techn. Tr. Sp.	…	…	2,070
	Total	…	3,000

Costs.

			Rs.
Probationers	…	…	108,000
40 per cent Women Trained Teachers Rs. 800×1,080	…	…	864,000
60 per cent Men Trained Teachers Rs. 1,180×1,620	…	…	1,911,600
Women Teachers' dependents allowance (1 only) Rs. 86×425		…	36,550
Headmasters' allowance Rs. 141×500	…	…	70,500
For additional Tr. Grads. Tech. Tr. Specialists	…	…	28,900
			3,019,550

Senior and Secondary Schools.

Average annual salary including allowance (taken over 30 years for Tr. Teachers and Specialists, over 25 years for Tr. Graduates and Tech. Tr. Grades., and 20 years for Headmasters).

Class.			Tr. Tech. & Ap. Sp.		Tr. Grad. & Tech. Tr. Grad.		Headmaster
1.	Teacher with no dependent	…	1,380	…	2,728	…	5,136
2.	Teacher with wife …	…	1,680*	…	3,140*	…	5,886*
3.	Teacher with wife and 1 dependent …	…	1,770†	…	3,258†	…	6,126†
4.	Teacher with wife and 2 dependents	…	1,860	…	3,366	…	6,366
5.	Teacher with wife and 3 dependents	…	1,950	…	3,474	…	6,606

* The wife's allowance is calculated by taking the Urban allowance to be the average, Rs. 25×12 = Rs. 300.

† The dependents' allowance is calculated by taking the Urban allowance as the average 3/5 of this, i.e., 3/5 of Rs. 12.50×12 = Rs. 90

Cost to Government of Senior and Secondary Schools.

Number of Teachers = 1,562

Costs.

Probationers	…	…	600×84	…	50,400
Graduate Probationers	…	…	1,200×230	…	276,000
Tr. Teach and Ap. Specialists Women	…	…	1,380×224	…	309,120

Tr. Teach and Ap. Specialists Men	…	…	1,860×370	…	688,200
Tr. Grad and Tech. Tr. Grad Women	…	…	2,728×224	…	611,072
Tr. Grad and Tech. Tr. Grad Men	…	…	3,366×370	…	1,245,420
Principals Women	…	…	5,136×20	…	102,720
Principals Men	…	…	6,366×40	…	254,640
					3,537,572