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BUREAU OF EDUCATION

INDIA

Pamphlet No. 5

NOTES ON VERNACULAR EDUCATION IN CEYLON

By H. SHARP, C.S.I., C.I.E.

CALCUTTA
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INTRODUCTION

IN November 1918 I went to Ceylon to make some enquiries about the system of compulsory vernacular education and the scheme of village self-government through committees and tribunals which is there in vogue. My investigations were interrupted by the celebrations incident on the armistice, which temporarily closed schools and village courts; and I was then summoned to return to Delhi before my work was completed. The effective time at disposal for my researches was thus barely a fortnight and my stay in the island only seventeen days. Notwithstanding this, I was able, through the helpfulness of all whom I met, to get together a considerable amount of information.

It would be presumptuous to attempt any systematic report on vernacular education and the working of the compulsory Ordinances on so short an acquaintance with the system; and anyone in Ceylon who is conversant with educational problems would be more competent to perform such a task than I. The following pages are merely a few rough notes intended to bring out certain points in the Ceylon system which may be found of interest in India at a time when the question of mass education is being much discussed and local legislatures are introducing measures permitting the adoption of compulsion. They are intended for readers in India. I regret that, imperfect as the notes necessarily are, my present duties have prevented my bestowing that care which I should have desired upon their editing.

By way of preface it is necessary to state that in 1911 Ceylon was found to contain 4,110,000 inhabitants. Though the number has now probably risen to 4½ millions, I have, in making calculations, taken the population figures of 1911 for both Ceylon and India. Of the total in Ceylon, 66 per cent. are Sinhalese. The next most numerous class are Tamils. Europeans, Burghers and Eurasians form 9 per cent. There is a small sprinkling of Muhammadans (called Moors) and of Malays.

The administrative staff is considerably larger than that which would be found among a population of the same size in India. The progress which the island has achieved is no doubt partly

ascribable to the fact that the units of administration are not unwieldy and that officials have time to tackle local problems. In addition there is the system of village self-government, which is found over the larger part of the island and is carefully fostered by the Government Agents. Much of the short time at my disposal was taken up in studying this system; but it is mentioned in this pamphlet only as it incidentally affects education.

I must express my thanks to Mr. E. B. Denham, the energetic Director of Education, for all the help which he gave me in my enquiry; also to the Hon'ble Lieutenant-Colonel Chapman for assistance regarding plans of school buildings; to Mr. Leigh Smith, the Principal of the Government Training College, and to the other members of the educational staff with whom I came in contact. I should also like to take this opportunity of thanking those also who aided me with much information about the system of village communities, which, though it does not form the subject of these pages, sheds light on the educational organisation. The Hon'ble Sir Anton Bertram, Chief Justice of Ceylon, the Hon'ble Dr. H. M. Fernando and the Hon'ble Mr. Tillekeratna spared no pains to give me such information.

H. SHARP,

Educational Commissioner

with the Government af India.

April, 1919.

VERNACULAR EDUCATION IN CEYLON

I.—The Educational System of Ceylon.

Elementary education is the subject of these pages. But a few words regarding the general system of education in Ceylon are required.

Administration.

There is a Director of Education with a staff of inspectors and sub-inspectors. The proportion of government institutions is much higher than in India—between one-fourth and one-fifth of the total. Practically all expenditure is either from public revenues or from fees and other private sources. There are District School Committees with certain powers of expenditure on buildings, etc., and other powers shown on pages 5 and 6. But there are no local funds*. The District School Committees manage no schools but exercise supervision in various ways over government schools. They have nothing to do with aided schools, which are subsidised by government. The village committees act as Divisional School Committees; but their functions appear to be largely confined to placing any small available funds at the disposal of the District School Committees. There is no university; students are prepared in some of the secondary schools and colleges for the Cambridge School Certificate Examinations, the London Matriculation, and the London Intermediate; and they can and do appear for the external degrees of the London University.

Compulsion.

There is a law enforcing attendance at vernacular schools and quite recently an amendment has been passed making it incumbent on persons opening an English school to notify the fact to the Education Department in advance. As attendance at a school not recognised by the Director or under other conditions not approved by him would not count as attendance under the law, this provision constitutes a safeguard against the opening of inefficient institutions.

Classes of institutions.

Schools are divided in accordance with their status and the language taught. Thus, there are schools with two infant classes and five standards; these are called primary or elementary schools according as the instruction is in the vernacular or in English.

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* It is now proposed to give local bodies the power to raise such funds for the establishment of schools.

The addition of three more standards up to the eighth constitutes a middle or a secondary school, the distinction of name again depending on the language in which instruction is conducted. More advanced classes prepare for the Cambridge School Certificate, the London Matriculation and the London Intermediate. There are no regular classes for the London B.A. and B.Sc., pupils prepare privately for these examinations. Again, schools are divided as Vernacular, Anglo-vernacular and English. In Anglo-vernacular schools, English is begun as an optional second language (reading, writing and conversation) in the third standard. In English schools the whole of the instruction is in English. The grading in all classes is that just described; and there are a number of English elementary schools. All the principal English schools are aided institutions save the Royal College, which is maintained by government. There is no separate system of European schools.

Expenditure.

It is impossible to compare total expenditure with that in India, since fees, etc., in aided schools are not entered in the returns. The total recorded annual cost is Rs. 23,53,591, of which Rs. 22,93,723 is cost to government. This latter figure represents an expenditure from public funds at the rate of Re. 0·55* per head of the population, the answering figure for India (inclusive of expenditnre from local and municipal funds) representing Re. 0·25 per head. Vernacular education is free. Fees in English schools are high compared with India; in one aided institution which I visited I found them fixed at Rs. 15 a month for the top classes; and on the whole the rates are two and a half times greater than in corresponding institutions in Madras.

Teachers.

The training of teachers is carried on in a government college, in aided training schools and in certain schools which are allowed to take pupil teachers. The system largely depends upon the employment of monitors in ordinary schools. While the organisation is excellent, it has not been long in existence, with the result that the proportion of trained teachers is not more than one to four untrained. Teachers of English, being almost wholly employed in aided schools, are variously paid; those whom I saw were

* The coinage in Ceylon is in rupees and cents. The plan of showing any sum less than a rupee by two decimal figures has accordingly been adopted in this pamphlet.

generally receiving from about Rs. 100 to about Rs. 150. In a government Anglo-vernacular school I found the trained head-master getting Rs. 75—100 a month and the untrained assistants Rs. 30—40. The pay in vernacular schools is given in detail on page 12. It is necessary to point out the difference in the value of money when these figures are compared with Indian rates.

Grant-in-aid system.

The grant-in-aid in English schools is given on the capitation system—Rs. 10 a year for each unit of average attendance in standards I—IV, Rs. 15 in standards V—VIII and the Cambridge Junior Class, and Rs. 20 for each pupil studying for the Cambridge Senior School Certificate. Other grants are given, *e.g.*, a grant of Rs. 2 a year for each unit under instruction by a trained teacher. Reductions of 25 or even 50 per cent. may be made for bad work. The amount of grant is subject to certain limitations with reference to the amount of private resources, etc. One of them is to the effect that no grant is permissible for units in excess of 350 in an upper English school or 200 in the secondary department of an elementary school. Among the general conditions of grant three are worth mentioning. No class in charge of one teacher may exceed 32; either the head teacher or two other teachers must be trained; 13 square feet of floor space are required for each pupil in a class of 25 or more pupils and 15 square feet in smaller classes.

Grant-in-aid in vernacular schools is given almost wholly on the results system (see page 12).

Professional education.

There is a medical college but there is no facility for training engineers. Industrial education is being developed in night schools, carpentry classes attached to ordinary schools, etc.

Discipline, etc.

The hostel system is not much developed. Discipline struck me as excellent and the tone as good. There are two inspectors of drill and games. Thirty-eight schools have troops organised under General Baden-Powell's Boy Scouts Association, and there are 1,600 scouts.

Lack of scholarships.

It is remarkable to find that there is no regular system of scholarships. Government gives two annual scholarships tenable abroad of the value of £200 a year on the result of the London Intermediate Examination. There are a few bursaries (not to exceed fifteen in number) for would-be teachers, and students

at the Training College are boarded at public cost. But there are no ordinary scholarships. Mr. Denham has evolved a scheme of private scholarships under which he has obtained Rs. 82,000 from the public. Each subscriber gives a scholarship which is individually bestowed on a pupil upon the result of an examination. The pupil must have passed vernacular standard IV and be under eleven years of age. English schools are excluded and a knowledge of English would be regarded as a disqualification. The scholarships are intended to carry village boys on to English education. The scholarship-holders are collected into a single class under a special teacher at the practising school of the Royal College, and this concentration of specially bright boys from the villages is regarded by Mr. Denham as a feature of the scheme. The boys live in a special boarding house where only English is spoken. Each scholarship is of the value of Rs. 1,200 and payment of it is spread over five years. These scholarships are regarded with great enthusiasm. English education is keenly sought after.

General characteristics of system.

This lack of public scholarships is a curious hiatus in a system which otherwise has much to commend it. The retention of a monitorial system and of grant by results would not appeal to certain critics; but their effects in Ceylon seem on the whole beneficial. Generally speaking, Ceylon, if its size be considered, is far more adequately equipped than most parts of India. The quality and tone of the schools is good. They are under better control than in India, and there is a genuine keenness for *good* education.

Figures of pupils.

The numerical result is a school population of 400,933 out of a total population of 4,110,000 or 9·76 per cent. of the population at school as against 3·2 in India. Of these, 125,779 are in government, 253,241 in aided and 21,913 in unaided schools; 32,642 are in English, and 346,378 in vernacular, government and aided schools, the remainder in schools of other kinds; and 126,871 are girls.

II.—The Ordinances.

Influence of the system on elementary education.

The foregoing sketch is necessary to enable the reader to place the vernacular primary school in the general educational system. The excellence of a widespread secondary education and the general control which the authorities can exercise render the maintenance of a good standard possible in primary institutions.

The level of intelligence attained by various classes of the population reacts by minimising the difficulties of a compulsory system. Besides the educational, there are of course other factors which contribute to the result. These are described in section VI.

The rest of these pages is devoted to vernacular primary education. The first things to describe are the law on this subject and its working. There are two Ordinances regarding vernacular education.

The Rural Schools Ordinance, 1907.

The compulsory education of village children in the vernacular is provided for by the Rural Schools Ordinance of 1907, as subsequently amended.

Application of the Ordinance.

It can be enforced only in rural areas and is not applicable to municipal or local board towns or to small towns. Each revenue district (or, where a province is not divided, then that province) is constituted a school district, and this again is divided into school divisions identical with the sub-divisions of a chief headman's district, *i.e.*, the unit represented by a village committee, and consisting generally of a collection of hamlets. The Governor in Council can apply the Ordinance to any of these divisions and can also withdraw its application.

District school committees—their duties.

Each school district has a district school committee, consisting of the Government Agent as chairman, the Director of Public Instruction, a chief headman nominated by the Government Agent and one or more school managers or others interested in education, nominated by the Governor. Nominated members hold office for three years.

This committee is an important agency in the educational system. It is provided with a certain amount of funds, consisting of not more than one-third of the value of the labour of the inhabitants appropriated for the maintenance of roads. If this amount is very small, provision may be made by government and applied by the committee to buildings, furniture, etc. It is also the duty of the committee to prepare a scheme for the establishment of vernacular schools for the education of all male children and, if they think fit, of all female children. This scheme shows the number of children in each school division, the facilities already existing in the way of government and aided schools, the government schools which it is proposed to construct or enlarge

and an estimate of the cost. Before any such scheme comes into operation it has to receive the approval of the Director; and an interval is prescribed for the lodging of objections against the establishment of new schools. It then becomes the duty of the village committees to place annually at the disposal of district school committees the money or labour available out of the tax imposed under the Village Communities Ordinance.

Rules compelling attendance, etc.

Where the schools in any village school division are in the district committee's opinion sufficient for the education of the children, the district committee may compel the attendance of children by means of by-laws. The period of compulsion is between 6 and 14 years of age save for Muhammadan and Tamil girls, who are not required to attend after 12 years. The attendance must be either at a public vernacular school, a grant-in-aid school or one from which an application for grant is under consideration; or it must be under arrangements certified as adequate by the Director. Exemptions from such attendance are permitted on production of a certificate from the Director recommending that the child be exempted or if attendance would involve going to a school at a distance of over three miles. No parent may be fined if he can prove to the court sickness or any other unavoidable cause of absence. The by-laws may determine the penalty for non-attendance, within the limits of a fine of Rs. 20 or imprisonment for fourteen days and an additional fine up to Rs. 10 a day for continuance of non-attendance; the days and hours of attendance; the course to be prescribed on the recommendation of the Director, etc. By-laws and their alteration or revocation require the sanction of the Governor in Council. They must also, after publication in the gazette, be laid before the Legislative Council, and any part of them may be annulled by a resolution passed within forty days thereafter. Offences againt the Ordinance or by-laws are tried by the village tribunal or committee, or, if neither exists, by the Police Court. All fines are paid into the fund of the district school committee.

Village school committees.

A village school committee is to be established for each school division. Where the Village Communities Ordinance is applied, this shall be the village committee constituted for general purposes; elsewhere it shall be similarly elected. The committee can

make rules subject to sanction regarding the construction and repair of school buildings and the provision of money or labour for such purpose. The school committee is also required to make provision, by means of its own money or labour, for the accommodation of school-children not otherwise provided and to place such money and labour as can be made available at the disposal of the district school committee.

Powers of the Director, etc.

The Ordinance also specifies certain powers of the Director and of the committee. The Director has the power of appointment in vernacular schools provided by the village school committee. He and the chairman of the district school committee can inspect any school whether in receipt of aid or not. The chairman of the village school committee can inspect any government or aided school. It is specially provided that private land required for school buildings, teachers' houses, school gardens or play grounds, may be acquired.

Notification of intention to open a school.

An amendment made in 1917 requires any person who desires to open a school or give instruction in English or any other language in a schoolroom or building previously not used by him for this purpose to any class attended by children of school-going age, to report to the nearest educational officer at least one month before work commences and thereafter to supply such information as the Director may call for.

Religious instruction.

The Ordinance provides that religious instruction may be given only during the times specified in the time table and only to pupils of the denomination to which the school belongs, that other pupils be employed, if necessary in another part of the building, in other study during the time of religious instruction, and that a copy of the section dealing with this subject be posted up in the school in English, Sinhalese and Tamil.

Estate schools.

A separate part of the Ordinance applies to estates, the children on which may be educated in the ordinary schools, if this can conveniently be done, or in a school which the superintendent of an estate or a group of estates is required to provide. The superintendent is required to submit returns and the schools are open to inspection. If these duties are neglected, the Governor in Council can authorise a person to make the necessary provision and recover the cost from the estate.

The Town Schools Ordinance, 1906.

Another Ordinance applies in municipal and local board towns and in towns under the operation of the Small Towns Sanitary Ordinance. It is known as the Town Schools Ordinance, 1906, and can be applied to any town by the Governor in Council. The local authority (*i.e.*, the municipal council, the local board, or, in the case of small towns, the Board of Health) is empowered to make provision for schools, and, under the same sanctions which are imposed in the case of the district school committees, to make by-laws compelling the attendance of children between 6 and 12 years old (or 6 and 10 years in the case of Tamil and Muhammadan girls), etc. On the requisition of the local authority the Director may appoint attendance officers, who are paid out of its funds. The attendance officer is armed with various powers, including those of search of premises; and obstruction to him or the giving of false information is punishable with a fine up to Rs.100 or imprisonment up to six months rigorous. Prosecutions for non-attendance take place before police or municipal magistrates and a magistrate may, if the child is habitually vagrant or in bad company, place it in an industrial school at the expense of the local authority and its parent. Any fines imposed are paid into the funds of the local authority. This Ordinance also provides that religious instruction shall not be given in any school provided by the local authority and that no school where religious instruction is given may be recognised as one in which efficient vernacular instruction is given unless it fulfils the conditions in this matter which are laid down in the Rural Schools Ordinance.

III—The Working of the Ordinances.

Application of the Ordinances.

The Ordinances apply practically over the whole island. They are in reality permissive measures; for it is not incumbent on a local authority, even in an area to which the measure has been applied, to make the by-laws which compel education. But they have been adopted everywhere save in two towns where their adoption is unnecessary since all children are already receiving instruction. In the north of the island and in the city of Colombo (where the Director reports 10,813 children not yet at school but where new schools are now being opened) they have only recently been applied. The system of compulsion, the Director told me, makes itself felt by three-fourths of the children of school-

going age ; out of the remaining one-fourth, half the children are prevented from coming to school by the fact that no school is available.

The reasons for this almost universal application of a permissive measure are, first that the people want education, second that there is a sufficiency of schools. Numbers affected.

This being so, it might be expected that more than 9·63 per cent. of the total population would be at school. Large as is this proportion in comparison with the percentage of 3·2 in India, it represents only 64·2 per cent. of the children of school-going age (reckoned as 15 per cent. of the population). The reasons for this appear to be as follows. As already stated, the Ordinance has only recently been brought into force in Colombo and the north of the island. Future returns will no doubt show the effect of this extension. There is no compulsion upon the children of the emigrant cooli. The aboriginal Veddas have as yet but little education. In some backward tracts, where there is no school within three miles of a village, children cannot be made to go to school, though the Ordinance is in force. In communities where *purda* is observed (*e. g.,* the Kandyans and the Moors, among whom the figures of female literacy are very low), the Ordinance is cautiously worked ; indeed its general success is partly attributed to the judicious manner in which government agents have applied its penal sections. There are also the exemptions permissible under the Ordinance. Finally there is no doubt a certain amount of slackness in some aided schools, where the managers are themselves constituted attendance officers and, unwilling to incur odium or to court unpopularity with their flocks, fail to report cases of non-attendance. Where government schools have been established, things are stricter and attendance is better. The results of the policy pursued have been satisfactory. Between 1889 and 1911, literacy (notwithstanding a stricter standard) rose from 24·6 to 40·4 per cent. among males and from 2·5 to 10·6 among females.

A second matter in which better results might be expected is the proportion between enrolment and actual attendance. Attendance in vernacular schools in Ceylon is only 66·7 of the enrolment ; in primary schools in India it is 80·7. The explanation is that the attendance register in a school in Ceylon contains the name of Attendance.

every child who ought to be at school, and not merely of those whose parents desire to send them. This fact naturally tends to depress the attendance. It is remarkable to find a much higher percentage in some girls' schools—in one I discovered that the average attendance during the past year had been 92 per cent.

Penalties for non-attendance.

The general opinion expressed to me was that cases of prosecution for non-attendanace are not numerous. Nevertheless, the statistics for 1917 show that, out of a total of 128,229 civil and criminal cases instituted under the Village Communities Ordinance, 28,819 related to school offences.

General effect.

On the whole, the working of the Schools Ordinances is undoubtedly beneficial. Compulsion is not a burden on the people, because children are not required for labour (save in certain parts of the Island, where parents sometimes actually prefer to pay fines rather than forego their children's wages) and there is a genuine keenness for education. This keenness is naturally exhibited chiefly in the richer parts of the island. In some parts I was told there is apathy among many parents. But the Ordinances are not over-rigidly enforced. Social custom and other exigencies are taken into consideration and hardship is thereby avoided.

IV—The Vernacular School.

Organisation.

The vernacular school consists of an infant class in two divisions, and five primary standards. Such a school is known as a primary school. To this may be added three middle standards, the addition of any of which converts the institution into a middle school. Promotions from class to class are in all cases made by the inspecting officers and in aided schools grants are awarded on the result of their examinations. On the examination held in standard VIII a certificate is in future to be awarded to successful candidates, which will be considered in making various minor Government appointments.

Curriculum.

The curriculum of vernacular schools does not substantially differ from that pursued in India and requires no detailed description here. Arithmetic is worked throughout in English numerals, and beginning from standard IV calculations are taught in English as well as in local money, measures of length, weight, capacity, etc. Observation lessons on nature study are a feature throughout the curriculum. In the lowest classes these take the form of observation of the qualities of solids, of colours, etc. Next come simple lessons on animals, plants and common products. In standard IV

the children begin to use a book of simple botanical facts mainly connected with products of the island. Finally in the middle classes more elaborate work on the same subject is given. Sanitation is taught in standards IV to VI. Needlework is admirably done throughout the course in girls' schools, the main subjects being plain sewing, button-holing and the making of simple garments. This greatly adds to the popularity of the girls' schools for the work taught is useful in the home and may also become a source of income. I saw hardly any embroidery or other fancy work. That which is done is of a very simple nature. In some schools the making of the local lace on cushions is taught. The only manual work regularly prescribed for boys consists of simple occupations in the infant divisions. But drawing is generally taught and is good. It is proposed to introduce some forms of vocational training, *e.g.*, carpentry. Action songs are taught and collections of old folklore and cultivation songs have been introduced.

The staff consists partly of regular teachers (some of whom, and in Government schools a large proportion of whom, have been trained) and monitors. The system of training is more particularly described in the section on that subject. Suffice it to say here that a monitor (who has generally been through standard V and in the largest schools standards VI and VII) is required to pass yearly examinations over a maximum period of three to six years and the school or the monitor earns an allowance in accordance with his qualifications. Teachers are ordinarily drawn from among the monitors, sometimes after these have undergone a course of two years training in the government Training College, one of the aided training schools or an institution authorised to train teachers. An untrained certificate may be obtained by private study and the passing of a government examination. **Staff.**

The proportion of regular staff to monitors varies. Sometimes I found two teachers to three monitors, sometimes three teachers to five monitors. In a large aided Buddhist school, containing nearly a thousand boys and girls, I found ten male teachers, of whom nine held certificates, seven female teachers, of whom five held certificates, and two monitors. This school earned Rs. 3,000 as annual grant.

This system of monitors is regarded as very useful from the point of view of training, but I was told by some that it is not

I and II, Rs. 6 in standard III, Rs. 9 in standards IV and V, Rs. 11·50 in standard VI and Rs.14 in standards VII and VIII. The rate for a girl is Rs. 2 or Rs. 2·50 higher than for a boy in the various standards. In addition to this, the principal teacher (as apart from the manager) earns a personal bonus equivalent to 5, 10 or 15 per cent. of the grant earned by the school, according to the enrolment and the number of passes, provided he holds a first class certificate and his work is well reported by the inspecting officer. Grants are also given for gardens—Rs. 30 for not less than a third of an acre, Rs. 50 for an acre.

There is no regular provision for pensions or provident funds in aided schools, though the code permits of this and though a scheme has been drawn up.

Pay such as this would be wealth to the elementary teacher in India, who receives, on the average, in a board school Rs. 11 a month, in a municipal school Rs. 15-4, and in a privately managed school Rs. 7-8. At the same time, the enormous difference in the value of money and the cost of living must not be forgotten.

Pupils.

Ordinarily speaking, boys and girls are educated in separate institutions. But there are also mixed schools. In such schools a mixed staff of men and women is maintained and needlework is taught to girls. The small children are trained on kindergarten methods. In one case I saw a special school house just built for the infant classes of the two neighbouring schools. The boys from one and the girls from the other were to be collected in this building and placed under the charge of women teachers. This plan (which is being generally introduced) has the advantage of relieving large schools of the pressure of numbers, of the cheerful though disturbing noises incidental to an infant institution, of bringing the small children together and of placing them under the care of women. The school pupils appear thoroughly alert and intelligent. Discipline is good and, conducted on rational lines, by no means robs them of animation. Teachers and pupils fraternise in garden work without any apparent loss of dignity on the part of the former.

Buildings.

The school building is quite a feature in Ceylon. Nearly all the village schools which I saw (and they occur at frequent intervals along the roads) were built on one general pattern. There

is also an admirable pattern for town schools. The main feature of both is their open-air character—a half-wall of about four feet, and a high roof carried on pillars. Plans of both types are given and several pictures of specimens are reproduced.

The village school is ordinarily a long plain building, from 20′ to 30′ broad and of any length, according as it is intended to accommodate 100 or 1,000 children. Teachers are required to live on the spot, and the headmaster's house is sometimes built at one end of the long school-room and under the same roof. This is shown in the plan and some of the pictures. Separate houses are however found more satisfactory. The material varies. In the newer schools the floor and walls are ordinarily *pucka* and the roof of good tiles; a building of this kind costs about Rs. 2·30 per superficial square foot. In other types I found *kutcha* floors (generally with *pucka* edging), *pucka* walls and pillars and palm-leaf roof; one such building which I inspected had cost only Re. 0·80 per square foot and yet remained in excellent preservation and as good and healthy a building as one could desire. Most of the aided village schools are built on the same type, but sometimes the materials used are humbler. This kind of school-house has great advantages—abundance of space, good light, airiness and cheapness. Its drawback is the noise created by a number of classes working in the same room. To remedy this defect the house is sometimes broken up into several buildings, arranged near to each other in a square, a T or some similar pattern. Where there is only one building the Director proposes to lessen the disadvantage by the use of partitions.

The town school is more elaborate. Several class-rooms are connected with the main room. The teacher's house (shown in one of the pictures) is separate from the school. A certain amount of architectural effect is attempted and undoubtedly achieved. When this is said it is not to be understood that the village type is unpleasing in appearance; its proportions, simplicity and obvious suitability for the purpose it serves constitute a sufficient charm. The town school is a distinct ornament to the quarter in which it is built.

Government schools are built by contractors acting under the district school committee and thoroughly supervised. The

village committee is under an obligation to execute repairs. The newer type of school probably seldom wants repair.

I was greatly struck by the good compounds of the schools, in the country often spacious, in the town not cramped, and always neatly fenced and kept, often with a good school garden. The furniture and equipment are simple but sufficient. The walls are cemented inside to serve as blackboards. War pictures and general illustrations are fairly numerous. The War leaflet has been used as a reader in the schools. Mr. Denham has instituted the practice of presenting special pictures to schools whose condition he finds particularly meritorious.

The open type of building adopted in Ceylon is not unknown in India. The Ceylon plan has been tried.* The trial is reported not to have been altogether successful. Reasons for this suggest themselves. Tradition is in favour of the full wall. Strong fencing (it is often of barbed wire in Ceylon) is required if cattle are to be prevented from committing depredations. The headmaster's house on the premises is a guarantee against theft and needless damage. Doubtless there are some parts of India where climatic conditions would tell against such a type or where the materials best suited for its construction are lacking. But I can see no particular reason against its adoption over large areas.

V.--The training of teachers.

Monitors.

The recruitment of teachers is based largely upon a system of monitors in the village schools. Promising boys who have ordinarily passed standard V may become monitors and remain on, learning and teaching in the school. After a year's work they appear at the first year monitors' examination, the teacher receiving a bonus of Rs. 20 for each who passes. After the succeeding one and two years they pass the second and third year monitors' examination, the teacher receiving on these occasions bonuses of Rs. 30 and Rs. 40. The last of these examinations is considered equal to a third class teacher's certificate. The course consists of such subjects as Sinhalese literature, grammar, geography, arithmetic and drawing——in fact, a continuation of the school course. But the monitor also teaches under supervision in the school and thus undergoes a useful practical training. If he

* Indian Education in 1913-14, page 19.

has passed standard V and the first year monitors' examination, he receives an allowance of Rs. 3 a month for his work during the past year, and, after passing the two subsequent examinations, an allowance of Rs. 4, and Rs. 5, for this service during the second and third year. He may then have to wait several years before becoming a teacher or obtaining a place in the training college. During this period he may continue to teach in the school and to draw the allowance of Rs. 5 a month. He may then become an assistant teacher on Rs. 180 a year. Such a teacher is certificated but not trained.

Trained teachers.

In order to become a trained teacher, the certificated monitot must proceed either to the training college or (if he is employed in an aided school) to one of the aided training schools. Admission is allowed to those who hold the third year monitor's certificate and compete successfully at an examination in which the number of candidates always largely exceeds the number of vacancies. The course in the training college is of two years. The course is calculated to enlarge the student's knowledge of the ordinary subjects. He also goes through a course of manual training in a well-fitted workshop, during which he makes simple models in wood. He is instructed in the teaching of nature study, map-drawing and physiology. All this work is excellently done. The carpentry is workmanlike—the maps and notes and drawings on physiology exquisitely neat, and the greatest pains are obviously taken over hand-writing. He attends criticism lessons and, two and two, the students teach in a class for a fortnight each year, being held entirely responsible for the work during that time. Through these years the student is maintained from public funds, that is to say, he lives in a colloge with free boarding. This costs about Rs. 15 a head. He has to pay for his own books. Every student who enters the training college possesses a third class certificate, which entitles him to a starting pay of Rs. 240 a year. At the end of the second year he obtains the second class trained certificate, which entitles him to a similar starting pay rising to Rs. 600. After ten years' approved service he is entitled to a first class certificate and pay rising from Rs. 450 to Rs. 900 a year.

Women teachers.

The arrangement for lady teachers is precisely the same. The monitresses pass the same examinations and earn the same

rewards for the mistresses. Their course and examinations in the training college and the salaries to which they become entitled are the same as in the case of male students. In two points only is there a difference. Kandyan girls may be taken into the training college when they have passed the second year monitresses' examination, notwithstanding that here also the competition for vacancies is keen. The reason for this is that the Kandyans have shown themselves conservative in the matter of the education of girls and there is still a tendency among them to withdraw their girls from school at a very early age. The second is that needlework is substituted for carpentry and excellent needlework it is, though of the simplest.

The government training college. A word must be said about the training college at Colombo, where these courses are most effectively taught. It is an excellent institution, in unostentatious but fairly roomy buildings situated in charming grounds. The same institution also trains teachers for English and for Anglo-vernacular schools. The general rule is to admit 20 students into the first year class in each of these departments of the college. The practising and model schools are supplied by a free school and by some of the classes of the Royal College which are held in the same building. Here Mr. Leigh Smith and his assistants, European and Sinhalese, male and female, are doing an admirable work for the education of the island.

Private training schools. Training schools are also maintained by private bodies—mainly missions. They admit students who have already been pupil-teachers on the result of a departmental examination and undergo a two years' course. Each year closes with an examination, on the result of which the manager receives a grant at the rate, for the first examination, of Rs. 100 per male student and Rs. 125 per female student, and for the second examination, Rs. 150 and Rs. 175. These grants are limited to a number of the successful candidates equal, in the case of males, to 10 per cent. of the number of boys' and mixed schools maintained under the same management, and, in the case of females, to 15 per cent. of the girls' vernacular schools.

The training Colony at Peradeniya. I had the pleasure of visiting one of the aided training institutions—the Training Colony at Peradeniya, jointly managed by the Church Missionary Society and the Wesleyans. The Colony is situated on the slope of a steep hill. The buildings include large

airy class-rooms, simple but excellent dormitories and houses for the staff. A picture is reproduced of the interior of one of the class-rooms, with two classes of students. (These two classes, one of male, the other of female students, are separately taught and normally sit at opposite ends of the room; for purposes of photographing they were placed together.) In addition to the Principal and the Lady Principal (who are missionaries) there are six teachers, four of whom are men and two are women. At the time of my visit there were 35 male and 31 female students. The qualification for admission is either the third year monitors' examination or the government entrance examination for training classes. The course is of two years, the student earning the second class trained certificate or, if his work is not good enough, the third class. The girls are also generally put through a preliminary course of a year in general knowledge. The course is rather lighter than that prescribed for the government training college. On the completion of five years' satisfactory service after obtaining the second class certificate a teacher earns the first class trained certificate in contrast to those who have been trained in the government college and who earn this only after ten years. A neighbouring government Anglo-vernacular school is used for practice. I was informed that twice a week two students teach a lesson to a class in two sections, while the others listen to the lessons. But, in addition to this, an arrangement had recently been made under which a class is put wholly in charge of the students of the first year for six weeks and in that of second year students for a like period. The government grant is calculated in the way shown on page 17. The passed students are sometimes employed in government schools but generally in the service of the mission, where they earn from Rs. 15 to Rs. 20. The institution is clearly inspired by a spirit of enthusiasm. The students are smart, well-dressed and obviously absorbed in their studies.

Training classes in aided schools. Aided schools, whether English or vernacular, are also encouraged to train students on a system not dissimilar from that of monitors and monitresses in government schools. In vernacular schools a pupil teacher can be maintained, provided he has passed standard V and is 14 years of age. The course is of three years (two in the case of English teachers) and includes practical work in the school. Examinations are held, and for each pupil teacher who passes and

earns a good report on his practical work, the management receives the full grant for a pass in standards VI, VII or VIII, *plus* Rs. 30, Rs. 50 or Rs. 75 respectively in each examination.

VI.—Reasons for success of the Educational System.

It has already been pointed out that the percentage to the population of those who attend school in Ceylon is just three times what it is in India. The percentage of literacy for males is 40·4 and for females 10·6 against 10·6 and 1·0 respectively in India. The visitor who is acquainted with Indian village conditions will be impressed in Ceylon by the wholesale way in which things are done and also by the excellence of the education imparted. He will be thinking of the small, dark building, stuffy in summer and sunless in winter, with its fifty pupils, mainly crowded together in the infant classes, which so often represents the educational centre of an Indian village; and he will contrast it with these open school-rooms, spacious and airy, with anything from 100 to 1,000 pupils divided into well-proportioned classes, each with its teacher and monitor. The school in Ceylon is alive and things go with a business-like energy which is too frequently lacking among the stagnant lower classes which overload Indian institutions. There are reasons for this contrast; and, when we consider them, it is only fair to bear in mind that India too can show many admirable elementary schools—indeed whole tracts where such schools abound. The contrast is between the average institutions found in the two countries. Comparison with India.

The natural wealth of the island is a potent factor among these causes. It permits of a reasonable expenditure upon education and of the retention of the children at school beyond the age when they become useful for agricultural or other work. The ancient stories of this "land of the ruby and the hyacinth" are no myth and are as true now as in the days of the Greek writers. Tea, rubber, plumbago, cocoa, the areca nut, cinnamon and above all the coconut and its products, to say nothing of precious stones, constitute an unfailing mine of riches. Here the cultivator is indeed blessed; the earth pours out for him an easy livelihood and Expenditure on education.

a few acres of coconut palms bring him a solid monthly income.* There is no income tax, no land revenue. Indeed, the only form of direct taxation is a poll-tax of Rs. 1·50 a year on all males between 18 and 55 years of age. The revenue is derived from customs, the railway and other such sources. The annual value of exports is £3·6 per head of the population against £0·53 in India. The revenue is £1·1 per head against £0·37 in India.

Thus Ceylon is in a position to afford a good educational system. The expenditure on education from public funds per head of the population is more than double that in India. And yet this result is accomplished by the allotment to education of a smaller percentage of the public revenue. Ceylon spends 3·5 per cent. of her public revenue on education, India spends 4·3.

General desire for education.

Then again there is the Ordinance, which it is easy to enforce with reasonable strictness because of the abundance of educational facilities and the general desire on the part of the people for instruction. The wealth of the island and the advanced state of civilisation to which most of its inhabitants have arrived render education popular. Caste and *purda* are of minor importance. Sinhalese girls come readily to school. This fact radically affects the attitude of the people towards education; the literate mother regards literacy as the rightful heritage of her offspring. The only extensive area in India which can compare in the matter of education with Ceylon is Burma, which also is mainly a Buddhist country. In Burma 37·6 per cent. of the male population and 6·1 of the female are literate.

Westernising influences.

Westernising influences have been strong in the island and, without breaking down the national characteristics, have left their marks in many ways upon the life of the people. The missionary element is potent and adds considerably to the educational assets of the island. The European element in the population is substantial and (including Burghers and Eurasians) amounts to 9 per cent. No less than 0·8 per cent. of the population are enrolled in English schools. The number of males literate in English in 1911 was three and a half times the corresponding

* I was informed that an acre of coconut gives Rs. 20 a month, *i. e.*, from the mere sale of the produce. Others told me that this was so only in the richer parts of the island, but admitted that the return was large even elsewhere. Such calculations make no reckoning of the further return from the manufacture of oil, coir and copra, with which the cultivator has nothing to do.

figure in India and the number of females was twelve times. In some of its aspects Ceylon appears to have parted from the habits of the immemorial East and to have adopted European ways and requirements.

Again, vernacular education in Ceylon is worth having, not only because the people feel the need of it, but also because it is good. The teachers are reasonably paid. Training, though by no means universal, is thorough. The headmaster is alert and takes pride in his school. Control is effective. Much of the education is imparted in government schools, which are sufficiently numerous to set a high standard. Inspection is adequate. For a population which is not larger than that of some Indian districts there are a Director of Education and an Assistant Director; there are three inspectors, one inspectress, an inspectress of drawing and an inspectress of needlework—all Europeans, who tour throughout the island; there are five inspectors of English schools, with territorial jurisdiction; and there are 30 sub-inspectors. An Indian district has on the average one-third of the services of a single inspector, one-third of those of an assistant inspector, one deputy inspector and half the services of a similar officer, and four sub-inspectors or officers of like grade. For a district containing four millions of people, the allowance of inspecting officers would ordinarily be larger than this—possibly three times as large. But, even so, the contrast is remarkable. Excellence of education.

Such, so far as I could ascertain, are the reasons which render compulsory education a fairly easy problem in Ceylon and which keep the instruction at a high level. The natural advantages of the country are its own and cannot be artificially reproduced elsewhere. But perhaps these few notes may be found to contain some suggestions not altogether inapplicable to India. Conclusion.

SGPI 7—322 D. of E.—31-7-1919. 2,000.

ILLUSTRATIONS & PLANS.

Village school—Separate Buildings for boys and girls.

Photo.-Mechl. Dept., Thomason College, Roorkee.

Village school.

Infant class school.

Photo.-Mechl. Dept., Thomason College, Roorkee.

The Training Colony, Peradeniya.

Photo.-Mechl. Dept., Thomason College, Roorkee.

Village Schools of humbler type.

Town school.

Photo.-Mechl. Dept., Thomason College, Roorkee.

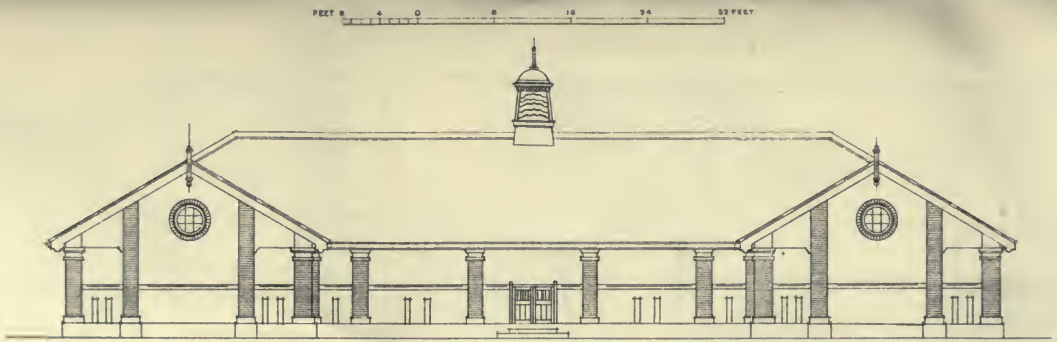
Town School—Corner of school and headmaster's house.

Photo.-Mechl. Dept., Thomason College, Roorkee.

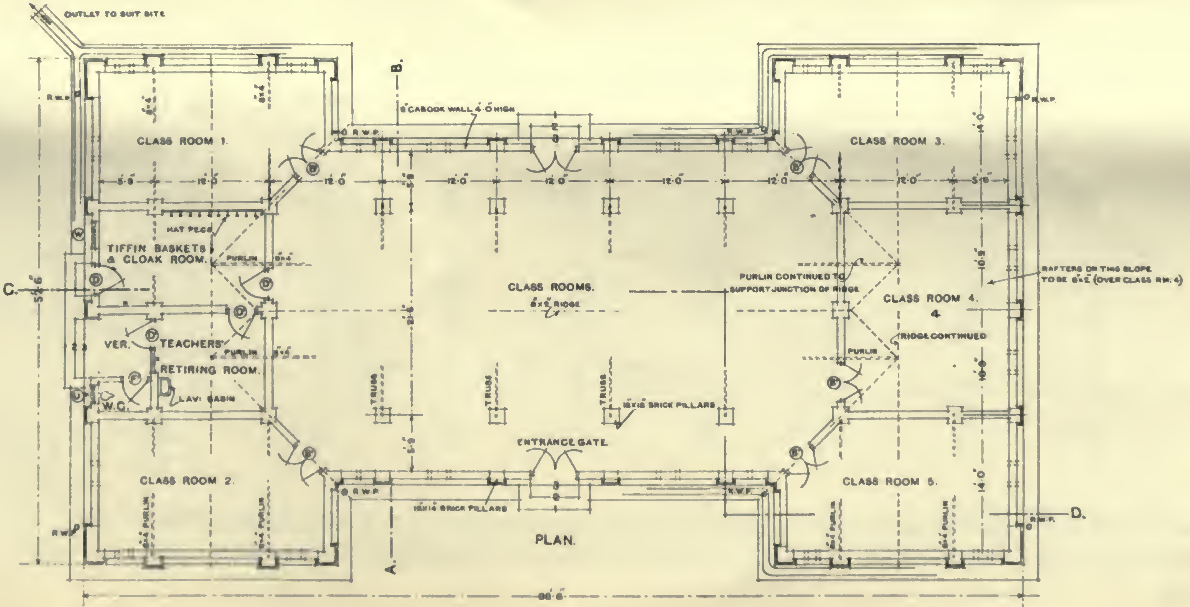
School gardens.

Photo.-Mechl. Dept., Thomason College, Roorkee.

School garden.



FRONT ELEVATION.



PLAN.

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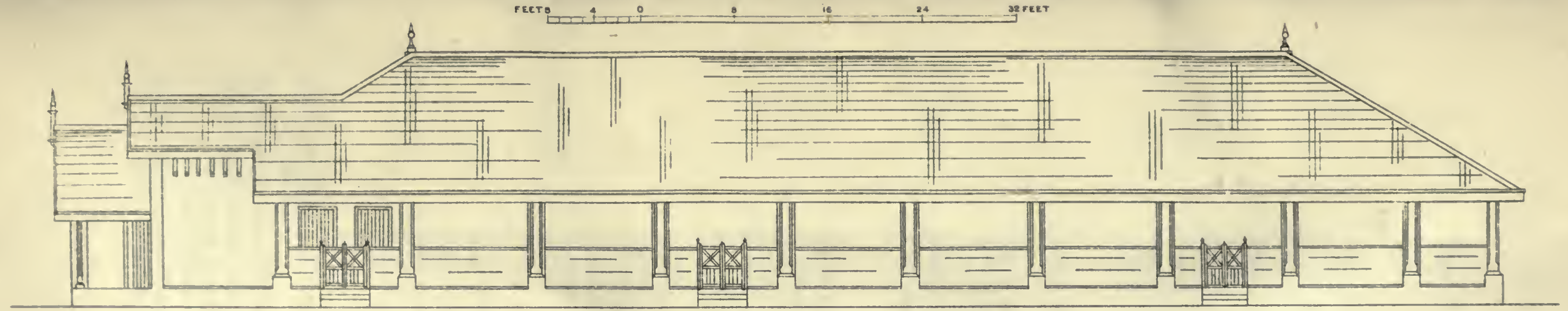
Scale of Feet.



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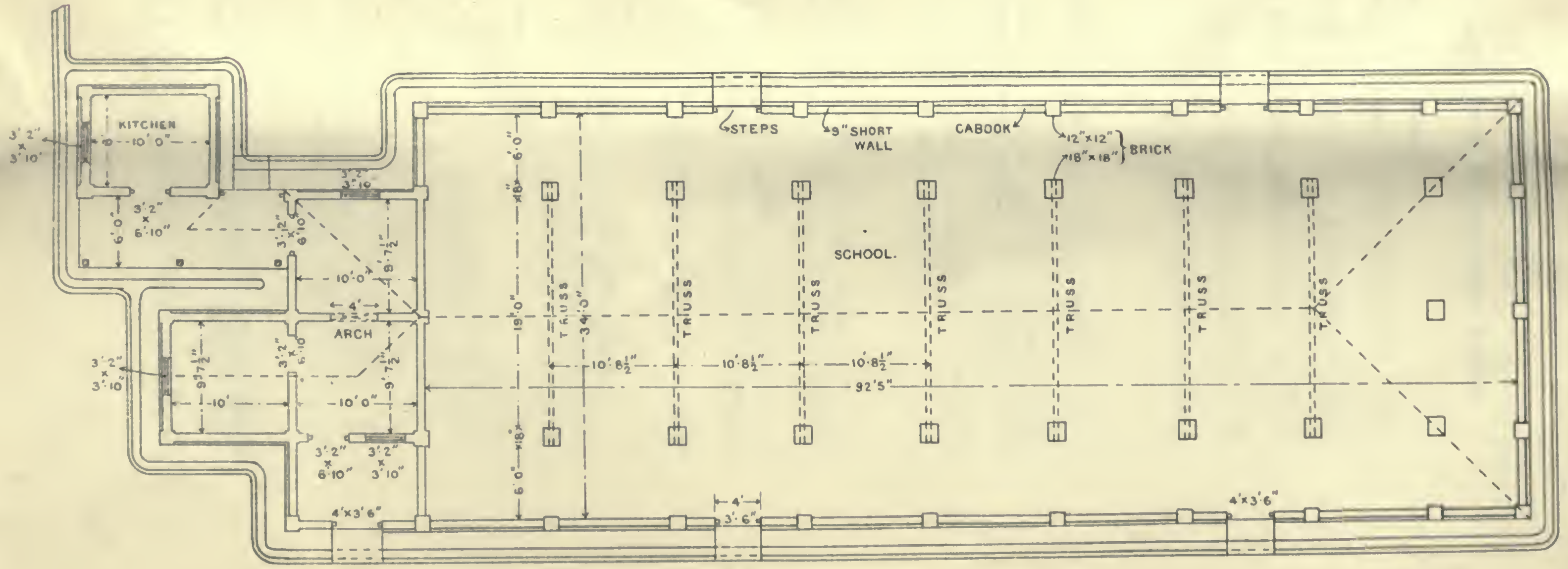

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