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# Non-formal Education in Sri Lanka

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the ICED/UNICEF for agreeing  
to the publication of this Study.*





## ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This study of Non-Formal Education is based on information from various sources, both published and unpublished – the latter constituting the major source, since non-formal education is generally provided outside the established system of formal education by a host of agencies and institutions. The study had, therefore, to rely heavily on information from these sources. When the study was undertaken and also while it was in progress, the Marga Institute had sought the assistance of several organisations and individuals in governmental and non-governmental agencies, directly responsible for the various schemes of education and training of youth. Many of them responded with written notes and memoranda providing basic information for the study and many more gave much of their time to discuss and explain various matters relating to the training programmes provided by them. The Institute acknowledges with gratitude the assistance and co-operation extended by them all.

Mr. E. L. Wijemanne, Director of Education (Planning) and Mr. G. H. F. Welikala, two experts in this sphere, functioned as consultants for this study. They gathered most of the basic data formulated specific parts of the study report and generally guided the research staff concerned with this study. Mr. Welikala coordinated the field work for the study of programmes of non-formal education and training, including interviews and collection of data. He was thus responsible for carrying out a greater part of the field work and study. The Institute conveys to them its deep appreciation of the work done.

**Godfrey Gunatilleke**  
*Director of Studies*  
*Marga Institute*

Colombo 7  
Sri Lanka  
June 1973



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## PUBLISHER'S NOTE

One of the important policy shifts that has taken place in Sri Lanka over the past decade is the acceptance by politicians and planners alike that the 'development' of the country and the emergence of large segments of its people from living conditions which are only slightly above subsistence levels depends crucially not on the pace at which the urban or the industrial sector will grow, as was imagined to be the case for many years, but on the speed with which the rural or agricultural sector can be modernised.

Modernising the rural sector involves, among other things, transferring to it the skills the technology and the disciplines and values required for raising the level of its productivity.

The responsibility for this transference rests principally with the multitude of government agencies which are currently engaged in transforming our rural life. These agencies consist principally of the conventional schooling system and training institutes, and the complex network of government offices and officials and the vast army of extension workers attached to various government departments and deployed in the field. The task of transferring information, knowledge and skills and transforming attitudes and values is also being carried out fairly intensively through the conventional media channels – the press, the radio and film.

In this study undertaken by the Marga Institute for the UNICEF an attempt is made to explore and understand the working of another network of institutions and agencies operating outside the conventional schooling system and the formal government sponsored agencies but engaged with them in imparting skills and upgrading the performance and quality of life of the rural sector. That such institutions exist is generally known. What is not known is how extensive this network is, how the components that comprise this system are structured, how they are financed, what sort of motives sustain them, what kind of skills and disciplines they seek to impart and what contribution they make towards meeting the needs of our society. Even though the formal governmental and government sponsored agencies cover a very wide area, there are still large

gaps in our society's needs that are not met. For a long time to come, these needs will continue to remain unserved by governmental activities because of the sheer lack of capacity and resources. The question that this study seeks to answer is to what extent the non-formal non-governmental voluntary agencies fill those gaps.

Even though an attempt has been made to make the study as inclusive as was reasonably possible it was inevitable that the system as a whole could not be covered in its entirety. This was due not so much to the limitations of the investigation procedure itself, but to the fact that the non-formal sector does not exist as an interlocking system or as an identifiable unit. It exists mostly as an agglomeration of independent atomic institutions and groups. Two things are attempted in this study. One is to see what general truths may be drawn concerning this agglomeration as a whole and the other to see how the more important of these institutions and agencies are structured financed and get about their work. However, the generalisations that have been set out in this study are based not only on data that has been thrown up in the course of this investigation itself but are related to and draw on other research findings also, both published and unpublished. Wherever the study draws on such research findings, acknowledgements have been made.

Since this study was completed in 1972 there has been a major transformation in the framework of national values within which both the formal and the non-formal systems work. The commitment of our society to socialist goals, represented not merely in government policies emanating out of a party programme, but in a new constitution which concretely and explicitly defines its objectives to be the creation of a socialist society, has served to diffuse through all our institutions, whether they be government sponsored or not, the realisation that their activities have to tie up in some way with the new objectives set for our society. Upto now none of these non-formal groups, for that matter not even the government sponsored agencies, had set their work within a conceptual understanding or interpretation of society as a whole. If an ideological element entered into their activities it was primarily of a religious nature and remained strictly private to their parochial concerns. "Socialism" has now thrust upon all institutions and

groups a new ideology, secular in content and method, and ubiquitous in its occurrence. Not all of the non-formal groups have yet fully internalised or transmuted their new reality. Neither have they yet even partly adapted their activities to cope with its demands. But there is among them more than a vague awareness of the need to take a hard look at their long established structures and procedures and to see how they relate to the needs of the new society that is being built. Within a large number of long established non-formal institutions some of the basic assumptions within which they have hitherto worked are being brought into question. Doubts are being raised as to whether the kind of training that is being imparted and the styles of teaching and disciplines which support them are likely to turn out the kind of person adapted to meet the needs of and work within the new society. We expect that this questioning will be a prelude to a more basic transformation that will take place through their entire content and structures.





## INTRODUCTION



## INTRODUCTION

### SECTION I — THE ROLE OF NON-FORMAL EDUCATION FROM THE TRADITIONAL LEARNING SYSTEM TO MODERN EDUCATION

The role of non-formal education in the present educational system of the country can be best understood when it is considered in relation to the institutions and modes of learning that formed the total educational system which functioned in the traditional village society. Protagonists of that system (for example, Ananda Coomaraswamy)<sup>1</sup> often tend to present it in ideal terms, and seek to re-create an attractive model in which the social and economic relationships were finely balanced and well integrated. This model, of course, was very different from the reality. The traditional community in which all the parts fitted into an organic whole, in which the mode of production was supported by an appropriate value system and where the social groups and the individuals within them had clearly defined and accepted roles, was seldom or never realised in all the positive dimensions that are ascribed to in the model. Nevertheless, the model provides the framework within which the role of non-formal education can be meaningfully evaluated.

In the village community which existed in Sri Lanka before the impact of western commercial civilization as described by writers such as Robert Knox, and more recently Ananda Coomaraswamy, Ralph Pieris<sup>2</sup> and Ariyapala<sup>3</sup>, one can recognize many of the elements of the organic traditional society. The

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<sup>1</sup> Ananda K. Coomaraswamy: *Mediaeval Sinhalese Art* — being a monograph on mediaeval Sinhalese art and crafts mainly as surviving in the eighteenth century with an account of the structure of society and the status of craftsmen. Broad Compend: Essex House Press, 1908. 2nd ed.

<sup>2</sup> Ralph Pieris: *Sinhalese Social Organisation*.

<sup>3</sup> "Mediaeval Sinhalese society was a fully integrated whole in which the traditional forms of Buddhist thought provided the cohesive links. This is neither surprising nor difficult to grasp ..... it is clear that the authority of the Sangha (Buddhist priesthood) subtly linked with the Crown, which was enjoyed to provide its temporal base and guarantee its protection, permeated the whole of social activity and thought". — M. B. Ariyapala — *Society in Mediaeval Ceylon*.

Buddhist religion provided the basis for the value system and the ethos of that society. The economy was essentially a subsistence agrarian economy with the ancillary crafts and occupations supporting the primary occupation of producing food for the community. The society was organised on the basis of occupational castes. It was generally hierarchical in structure with a gradation of several castes. The main social group round which the system was organised was the group which produced the food for the community – the ‘goviyas’ or cultivators. Various other occupational groups provided services to the community, for example, the blacksmiths who provided the tools, the group which performed at rituals and ceremonies – the drummers, the group which supplied some of the domestic utensils – such as the potters, the group which washed and cleaned the linen for the more privileged social groups, and so on. Within such a system, the socialisation of the individual member, his training in a given skill and introduction to an occupation and craft, the education into the value system of the society and the acceptance of the normative patterns of behaviour in the society were all indivisible elements of a single learning system. The various institutions in that society – the Pirivena school which was the formal educational institution attached to the temple, the temple itself, the workplace whether it be the family farm or the workshop, the family – all combined to provide the individual member with the education he needed to exist as a useful member in his community. Crucial situations in the life of the individual and the community were ritualised and through them the disciplines of religion, myth, and folklore were affirmed.

The education in such a society consisted of occupational skills, codes of behaviour, initiation into the value system within which he could relate himself to the different members of his society and to the different life situations he encountered, and the understanding of the ultimate purpose of his existence in terms of his religion. The social organisation into which the individual was born clearly determined the whole cycle of his life from childhood to old age. Education within such a social order was an integral process, in which the informal, non-formal and formal processes merged into one another. Learning and work were linked closely together. In such a context the transition from childhood to adult roles contained no sharp separation of the learning phase from the participation in adult activities and responsibilities. The educators of the young in such a society were the elders whom the

young encountered in different institutionalised life situations, whether as a student in the *pirivena*, an apprentice in the workplace, a devotee in the temple or a member of his family. By these means the individual was instructed how to live, work and worship in the society to which he was born. But the learning or educational system was not confined to the integration of the young in adult society. The system also contained the elements which provided a continuous interaction among the adult groups themselves, so that the leaders, the elders, the master craftsmen, the religious teachers, the most skilled in each occupational group, set the standards and imparted the skills as a continuing process of adult learning.

It is against this integral system of learning and education, functioning of course in a technologically simple and economically static society, that the new system of formal education would have to be placed. Although vast social and economic changes had occurred during the period of occupation of Ceylon by the Western powers, many of the essential elements of the organic village community continued in rural Ceylon even in the early forties. One of the most significant catalysts in the process of change was the introduction of a universal free education system in 1944. Secondary and higher education up to that date had been the monopoly of a small English educated minority. This elite system of education was geared to the needs of a foreign imperial government which needed subordinate grades with a reasonably good education in the English language for their administration and commercial activities. Until the introduction of free education, the education system was reasonably well adapted to the needs of the economy and society as a whole. At the base there existed a school system which imparted primary education in the national languages reaching a substantial portion of the population and fulfilling the needs of functional literacy and numeracy. Alongside this system was the school system which imparted education in the English language from the primary to the tertiary levels. While primary education in the national language was a state service provided free of charge, education in the English language was provided in private schools on a fee levying basis. There was hardly any transfer of students from the state-owned primary school system to the private fee-levying English-medium school system. Limited opportunities for the movement from one system to the other were provided to outstanding students in the primary

state school system by means of scholarships awarded by the government and private philanthropic organisations and individuals. After the introduction of universal free education the national languages were adopted as the media of instruction in all schools. With the government decision to provide education free at all stages, the large majority of private schools were brought within the free education system and were provided with state subsidies based on student enrolment. With these two measures the distinction between the primary state school system and the private school system which gave access to secondary and higher education was effectively removed.<sup>4</sup> Opportunities were made available to the entire population of school going age to proceed from the primary to the secondary and tertiary stages.

Until the introduction of free education the education system was reasonably well adapted to the needs of the economy and society as a whole. The products of the secondary and higher education system were readily absorbed into the small modern sector of the economy both in government service and the mercantile sector. Within this structure which had protected the privileged position of a small minority and perpetuated the inequalities that went with it, the education system had been in reasonable equilibrium with the demand in the employment market. The situation dramatically changed in the course of 15 years with the introduction of free education. The elite system of education geared to specific needs of a small governmental and mercantile sector was expanded and converted into a mass system of education, without any fundamental change in the curriculum or the objectives of education. The system inevitably generated expectations which were modelled on those which were part of the system before the introduction of free education. Secondary and higher education had always been demonstrated as the one means for upward social mobility, secure employment, high incomes and improvement in status. It was therefore inevitable that the same expectations motivated the rapidly increasing school going population who received an opportunity for secondary and higher education through the free education system.

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<sup>4</sup> The system of private subsidised schools was abolished in 1961. The majority of these schools were taken over by the State while some of the schools were given the option of continuing under private management on a non-fee levying basis.

There were two developments that occurred with the implementation of the free education system, which are relevant to our discussion. First, the increasing number of products of this system were frustrated in their expectations of employment in the modern sector. Even given the best conditions regarding availability of resources, the economy could not have grown fast enough to expand the modern sector to the extent needed to absorb the educational output. In fact, what happened was that the economy expanded at a slow rate. The modern sector comprising the industrial urban economy, government services and the organised commercial sector grew at a rate which was far too slow to receive more than a small fraction of the newly educated generation. The sixties therefore ended with a massive backlog of unemployed educated youth. The other feature of the educational system is also significant. Through the free education system large numbers of young persons received formal instruction in a range of selected subjects and added to their stock of knowledge on these subjects. But this stock of knowledge was most often not related to the occupational needs of the economy into which they entered after leaving school. The modes of instruction within the educational system, particularly the very large state segment of the system also neglected many fundamental aspects of instruction which related to the development of values, the formation of character and personality, the acquisition of social skills to participate in community action, the norms of behaviour through which the individual relates himself to society and so on, which were part of the integral learning system of the traditional society.

The traditional learning system had been clearly oriented to the life goals of the society in which the individuals lived, and the various social roles that he had to assume in that society. This meant that the different elements that formed the learning system including such institutions as the family and the temple all combined in a consistent manner to develop the skills, the personality, the psychological orientation and the character traits for these roles. But the institutions which had looked after these aspects – whether they were the family, the village community, the temple or the school – had now to function in an environment in which the formal education system did not always act in consonance with and reinforce those institutions. In fact, the structures which had imparted the ethos and the social disciplines in the traditional system were

becoming increasingly irrelevant in the context of the socio-economic changes that were taking place and the new goals of development that were beginning to motivate the society. The modern education system which imparted formal instruction in schools did not explicitly relate itself to the roles in life and the social objectives which its clientele had to pursue. The primary and secondary components of that system contained little or no orientation towards vocations and jobs and even at the tertiary stage only a small segment provided training for clearly identified professions, where job opportunities were available. The elements of a total education system which fulfilled such functions as the formation of values, the orientation of personalities, the development of skills for civic participation had to exist and function independently outside the formal education system. A great part of vocational training and the development of occupational skills had also to be undertaken outside the formal system. And as stated earlier, this situation was developing at a time when the traditional learning system which looked after these aspects was itself gradually disintegrating and was becoming incapable of fulfilling the new needs and demands of a changing society. Many of the elements in that system, the influence of elders, the hold of the family on its individual members, the status and prestige of the village temple, the attraction of the occupational skills based on caste were all steadily losing ground as new knowledge and changing aspirations and expectations began to make their inroads.

There was a further educational demand generated by the process of development which could not be met through the formal educational system or any part of the traditional learning system that was available. This was the demand generated by the national effort to raise the level of technology in the agrarian economy and to transform and modernise the rural sector. What was involved in this process was the transfer of know-how and the technology to subsistence farmers to enable them to improve their methods of production, raise their income levels and achieve a higher quality of living. Such a process involved not only the knowledge of superior techniques of production, it required an increasingly scientific outlook and rudimentary knowledge and understanding of the essential scientific facts pertaining to such things as their agricultural activities, nutrition and sanitation. It had also to include new managerial and organisational skills to



cope with a higher level of production and a monetised economy. There had to be a basic understanding of the workings of the society in which the individual lived and some elementary appreciation of the social and economic significance of these activities. This would include basic information ranging from government administration and its functions to taxes and public expenditures in so far as they are relevant. If one were to examine how well and effectively this process takes place, it would be necessary to survey an entire diverse range of institutions and services which are the sources of knowledge and the purveyors of modern information and know-how to the non-modern sector. This would include a number of government services in health, sanitation, agriculture and so on. It would include news media, broadcasting, political party machinery and its agents, the cinema and various voluntary organisations which are active in the non-modern sector, bringing some element of modern services and know-how to this sector. The educational task that is envisaged here is a massive one and is of the utmost importance in the effort to transform and modernise the non-modern sector. The functions of government in the non-modern sector conceived within such a context of development are imbued with a high educational content. In performing his functions and in his regular contact with the citizens in this sector, the bureaucrat is also an educator. Whether in health and sanitation, in agricultural extension, in maintenance of law and order, in relationship of the school to the community, or the collection of public revenues, he has to deepen the citizen's awareness and understanding of the new situations in the non-modern sector which he will continue to encounter, and by this means contribute to develop the informed and modern outlook in that sector. When the central educational content in development activity is identified in this manner the task of educating the community for development assumes a new character. Within such a perspective it seems essential to give a more purposive, conscious and coherent direction to the sources of knowledge which now reach the non-modern sector in a disparate, unco-ordinated and at times, even in a conflicting manner.

It is necessary to add a footnote to these comments. While what has been said would apply largely to the rural sector, there are corresponding educational demands which arise with the expansion of the urban industrial economy and the transfer of the

working population from the non-modern sector to the modern industrial sector. While the more conventional requirements of training in occupational skills, in-service training and up-grading of skills would be recognised and met with varying degrees of efficiency by the institutions established for the purpose, there tends to be a hiatus in regard to the development of modern work attitudes, industrial disciplines, adaptation to city life, urban community living and so on. Trade unions, organisations for worker education, voluntary agencies and other similar institutions have to take on this task.

The efforts at non-formal education and the curricular changes in the formal education system which are described in the study have therefore to be considered in this setting in which at least three significant developments can be identified. First there was the rapid expansion of the modern school system which controlled the most significant learning phase in the individual's life, but confined itself to imparting formal instruction in selected subjects and became increasingly separate from the comprehensive learning system which educated persons for their different roles in society and for the complex task of living. Second, those elements which went to make up what might be regarded as the comprehensive learning system in the traditional society became increasingly inadequate for performing their functions in the context of social and economic changes that were taking place. Third, the goals of development called for a new and different educational effort to transform the non-modern sector, raise its level of technology, transfer modern knowledge and know-how to that sector and inculcate scientific attitudes and improve its managerial capability – in short, an effort to educate the whole community for development.

## SECTION II — DEMOGRAPHIC CHANGES, EDUCATION AND THE WORKPLACE

The population in Sri Lanka nearly doubled during the 25 years from 1946 to 1971. It rose from 6.657 million in 1946 to 12.747 million in 1971. The century preceding this sudden upsurge of population had witnessed a slow increase of population at a rate between 1 to 1½%. The natural increase of population was even lower and a significant part of the increase in population was contributed by migration. 1947 saw a dramatic and unprecedented decline in mortality from 20 per thousand in 1946 to 14 per thousand

in 1947. The free government health service ensured that modern medical technology reached all sections of the population. The major epidemics which accounted for high mortality, particularly malaria, were all brought under effective control. Life expectancy increased from 45.8 in 1946 to 65.9 in 1971. Rates of population growth shot up to over 3% in 1950 and 1951 and then registered a very slow decline maintaining an average of 2.6% in the Fifties and 2.3% in the Seventies.

Among the many consequences in this rapid increase in population two can be identified which have relevance for our discussion. The increase in population had a significant effect on the age structure of the population, and this in turn increased the economically non-active or dependent segment of the population and the dependency burden on the economically active population. It naturally had its consequences for the total mix of consumption and savings in the economy and the rate of growth it was able to achieve. The population spurt in the early Fifties also resulted in a rapid expansion of the workforce in the Sixties as those born in the Fifties began to enter the workforce in increasing numbers. It is estimated that the workforce increased from 2.506 million in 1946 to 4.14 million in 1970.

During the 25 years after independence, the economy was able to create only about 1 million jobs whereas the workforce increased by about 1.55 million resulting in a massive backlog of unemployment. The information that is available for the workforce for the period from 1946 to 1960 is not sufficient for making firm estimates of the unemployment trend for the entire period from 1946 to 1971. But when certain reasonable assumptions are made in regard to the rates of participation in the workforce, the trend that emerges indicates that the rates of unemployment were insignificant in the period from 1946 to 1953. In 1952 when the Economic Mission of the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development reported on the prospects of economic development in Ceylon it has this to say in regard to the incidence of unemployment:

“Concerning the quantity of labour available for development work there is at present no significant unemployment, that is, there is no substantial body of workers normally dependent on wages who are without work for any extended period. As

in most countries, in Ceylon's stage of development however there is a high degree of underemployment, especially in the rural areas.''

The total number of persons gainfully employed as recorded in the Censuses and the Socio-Economic Survey together with provisional estimates of the total workforce for the relevant years are given in Table I. These estimates tend to confirm the conclusion that it is towards the end of the Fifties and during the Sixties that the overall rates of unemployment had risen sharply. This was inevitable in a situation where the rapid expansion of population after 1947 was beginning to have its effect on the expansion of the workforce in the Sixties.

At the same time the modern sector of the economy both in manufacturing and in plantation agriculture was expanding much too slowly to absorb the workforce. Over the 20 years from

TABLE I  
Estimate of Total Workforce and Unemployed

Year	Population 15 years and over	Total Workforce	Rate of Participation	Population employed
1946 Male	2,274	1,933	85% <sup>1</sup>	
Female	1,910	573	30%	
Total		2,506		2,568 <sup>2</sup>
1953 Male	2,634	2,239	85% <sup>1</sup>	
Female	2,248	674	30%	
Total		2,913		2,990 <sup>2</sup>
1963 Male	3,235	2,652	82% <sup>1</sup>	
Female	2,887	793	27.5%	
Total		3,445		3,197 <sup>2</sup>
1970 Male	3,736	3,063	82%	
Female	3,729	1,017	27.5%	
Total		4,080		3,535

<sup>1</sup> Estimated for 1946, 1953, 1963. Rates derived from the 1953 and 1963 censuses are 84 (males) and 30 (females) for 1953 and 82 (males) and 23.6 (females) for 1963 - P. R. Richards - Vide *Employment and Unemployment in Ceylon O.E. C.D.* 1971 pp. 50, 51. For 1970 rates have been derived from the Socio Economic Survey 69/70.

<sup>2</sup> Includes the employed population between 5 and 14 years of age.

Source: Census 1946, 1953, 1963 and Socio Economic Survey 1969/70.

TABLE II

## Growth of Employment by Sectors 1946 - 1970

(Number in '000)

	(a) 1946		(a) 1953		(a) 1963		(b) 1970	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
1. Agriculture, Forestry & Fishing	1381	53.8	1584	53.0	1692	52.9	1853.8	51.6
2. Mining and Quarrying	9	0.3	13	0.4	10	0.3	31.9	0.9
3. Manufacturing*	259	10.1	303	10.1	312	9.8	379.4	10.6
4. Construction	—	—	56	1.9	80	2.5	114.0	3.2
5. Banking, Trade and Commerce	205	8.0	246	8.2	287	9.0	341.9	9.5
6. Transport and Communication	93	3.6	104	3.5	132	4.1	179.2	5.0
7. Services including Utilities	342	13.3	487	16.3	510	16.0	584.8	16.2
8. Not elsewhere classified	279	10.9	197	6.6	174	5.4	110.5	3.0
9. Total - All Sectors	2568	100.0	2990	100.0	3197	100.0	3595.4	100.0

\*Consist of factory industries, cottage industries and the processing of tea, rubber and coconut products.

Sources: (a) Census data 1946, 1953 and 1963.

(b) 1970 Socio-Economic Survey 1969/70, Department of Census and Statistics.

1950 to 1970 the rate of growth of the Gross Domestic Product had reached an annual average between 4% and 4.5%. During this period Government had embarked on a major agricultural programme in the peasant sector under which new agricultural settlements were provided with irrigation and the peasant small-holding sector was expanded, thereby generating a sizeable volume of agricultural employment. But this programme was not large enough to provide opportunities on the scale required by the growing rural workforce. Therefore, during the Sixties, both the urban and rural sectors began to accumulate a large mass of young unemployed persons.

Table II shows the growth of employment by sectors for the period 1946 to 1970. It will be observed that agriculture contains 51.6% of the workforce in 1970 as against 53.8 per cent in 1946.

Although there had been an expansion of the industrial sector, it was not significant enough to bring about any major structural change in the economy. While there were marginal changes in the mix of the Gross Domestic Product these did not bring about any significant shift in the pattern of economic activity or diminish the predominant role of the agricultural sector.

The rapid increase in the unemployed workforce has to be examined in relation to two aspects. There was first the global imbalance as between the increase in the workforce and the capacity of the economy to create new work opportunities to absorb this increment. Within this situation, however, there were serious structural imbalances caused by factors as the education system and the job aspirations that it generated, the rigidity of the labour market which did not create conditions for transfer of manpower from labour surplus areas to labour deficit areas, and problems created by the seasonal peaks and troughs in labour demand related to the type of agricultural activity.

The age composition and the level of educational attainment of the unemployed workforce as in 1970 is shown in Table III.

It would be observed that over 80 per cent of the unemployed are between the ages of 15 and 24 and that of this age group approximately 22.1% have completed their primary education, 46.8% have reached the middle school and another 23.9% have passed the GCE (OL).

**TABLE III**  
**Age Composition of Unemployed Workforce by Level of Education**  
('000)

	<i>Age Groups</i>	
	15 - 24	25 - 35
Number Unemployed .. ..	451.0	69.5
Percentage .. ..	82.6	7.4
Rate of Unemployment .. ..	35.6	7.4
<hr/>		
Educational Level: (Percentage distribution)		
No. schooling .. ..	4.6	2.3
Primary .. ..	22.1	18.8
Middle School .. ..	46.8	42.2
G.C.E. (O.L.) .. ..	23.9	28.5
G.C.E. (A.L.) and over .. ..	2.9	8.2
<hr/>		
Total .. ..	100.0	100.0

**Source:** Socio-Economic Survey, 1969/70.

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Table IV assembles the available data relating to the levels of literacy and the educational attainments in the different age groups in the population. It will be observed that the age groups under 35 have achieved a significantly higher level of formal education than the age groups above 35. These figures by themselves will have to be further analysed if we are to obtain a clearer idea of the education gap between the generations in Sri Lanka. The rate of literacy itself does not reflect disparity in educational levels between the literate of the young generation and the literate of the older generation. In fact, the educational level reflected in the literacy of the young are on the average much higher than those of the old. In the past emotional ties between the old and the young were reinforced by the dependence of the young on the repository of knowledge and experience of the elders. The new situation in the rural environment can no longer preserve this balance. The emotional ties and bonds of kinship are now seldom integrated with the ties which have their source in the superior knowledge and skill of the elders. As yet there have been no reliable surveys of job expectations and attitudes to work among the rural unemployed educated youth.

If one relates the data in regard to unemployment to the data relating to the levels of educational attainment it would seem that those with higher educational attainment have less chance of

finding employment. Approximately 45% of the school-going population drop out of the system before they reach the Primary grade. The current unemployment data indicate that a large proportion of these drop-outs approximately 78% get absorbed in the existing work opportunities in the rural sector. In this segment of the workforce job opportunities appear to be in balance with job aspirations and levels of educational attainment. The general observations that have been made point strongly to the conclusion that the segment of the unemployed workforce which has reached the higher grades in the secondary school show a high preference for wage employment in the modern sector whether in government service, in industry or commerce. Secondary school education had in the past given access to jobs of higher status with a clerical or supervisory content, with higher income levels than are possible in the peasant agriculture at levels of technology that were available in the past. The data available indicate that the youth in this category have been seldom ready to find a livelihood through the low income agriculture pursued by the older generation. Although for the time being they may share some of the work opportunities in the family farm they would regard themselves as unemployed until they obtain employment which is in keeping with their expectations. Students of the rural employment situation in Sri Lanka have pointed out the numerous contradictions in the situation. While there is considerable unemployment in the rural sector there has been progressive mechanisation of agricultural operations. Many employment intensive tasks in the rural sector which can improve technology and raise productivity such as transplanting and weeding, are not undertaken to the extent possible owing to shortage of labour. The prevailing situation reflects the reluctance of the existing unemployed workforce to accept some of the fatigue-intensive arduous operations in smallholding agriculture. Where a new prototype of smallholding agriculture has been developed providing high income with a more sophisticated level of technology and making demands on the educational attainment of the youth, agriculture has succeeded in attracting young persons. These experiments will be described in later sections of this study.

The distribution of the unemployed in the different regions in the country is shown in Table V. The highest rates of unemployment were of course recorded in the South West and Centre – (Zones 1 and 4) – the densely populated regions. The districts



**TABLE IV**

**Total population 5 years and over classified by level of Education and Age**

<i>Educational Level</i>	<i>All Ages</i>		<i>5-14</i>		<i>15-19</i>		<i>20-24</i>		<i>25-34</i>		<i>35-44</i>		<i>45-54</i>		<i>55-59</i>		<i>60 and Over</i>	
	<i>Total</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>%</i>
No schooling	1,881.6	17.5	521.6	15.8	97.2	6.8	97.5	8.2	193.0	12.8	262.9	21.5	266.5	27.5	110.5	30.9	332.5	41.4
Primary	4,808.7	44.6	2,105.7	63.6	404.3	28.4	362.8	30.6	543.2	36.1	527.0	43.0	401.5	41.5	152.0	42.5	312.5	38.9
Middle School	3,724.4	30.4	680.4	20.5	802.8	56.5	484.6	40.8	524.9	34.9	330.1	26.9	242.9	25.1	75.9	21.3	132.9	16.5
Passed GCE (OL)	714.1	6.6	2.9	0.1	109.2	7.7	209.4	17.6	211.1	14.1	92.8	7.6	48.0	5.0	18.0	5.0	22.8	2.8
Passed GCE (AL) and Over	98.3	0.9	—	—	8.5	0.6	33.6	2.8	31.0	2.1	12.4	1.0	9.2	0.9	1.0	0.3	2.9	0.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>10,776.9</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>3,310.6</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>1,421.8</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>1,187.9</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>1,503.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>1,225.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>968.1</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>357.3</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>803.6</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Socio-Economic Survey, 1969/70

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with the lower population densities and a fast expanding population had an unemployment rate less than half that in these regions. It will also be observed from the data in Table V that while the rate of unemployment in the urban sector is higher than that of the rural sector the gap is not so wide as to suggest a significant difference in the quality and intensity of the unemployment situation in the urban sector. This phenomenon is related to the manner in which social and economic policies in Sri Lanka were able to maintain a relatively satisfactory rural-urban balance and prevent the disorderly migration of rural masses into the city. Even at the end of the sixties the retentive capacity of the rural sector was such that there was no major shift in the unemployed population from the rural sector to the towns and cities.

In examining the employment potential during the next decade it is necessary to take into account the main elements in the development strategy set out in the Five Year Plan. For any projection of the occupational profile during the next 10 years leads to the conclusion that the structure of the workforce will not undergo any major changes. For instance it is unlikely that there would be a rapid transfer of the workforce from the agricultural sector to the urban industrial sector as it has occurred in the advanced economies. The sectoral composition of employment which the programmes of the Five Year Plan expect to create is given below:

1. Agriculture .. ..	300,000
2. Industry .. ..	165,000
3. Construction .. ..	60,000
4. Services .. ..	285,000
Total .. ..	<u>810,000</u>

It will be observed that the main burden of employment creation falls on the agricultural sector. The development of two major river basins together with a number of other smaller agricultural settlements are expected to yield an additional extent of nearly 250,000 acres providing employment in the cultivation of a wide range of crops. The growth of the manufacturing sector relies heavily on the expansion and dispersion of agro-based small industries which will help to diversify the rural economy. Agriculture and rural industry together with the services they generate will absorb the major portion of the increment to the workforce. A number of large scale industrial projects for the manufacture of

TABLE V  
Composition of Unemployed Population

Divisions (All ages)	Number Unemployed (Both sexes)		Unemployment Rate			Educational Level - Percentage Distribution					
	No. in '000	% of Total	Male	Female	Both Sexes	No. school-ing	Pri- mary	Middle School	Passed GCE (OL)	GCE (AL) & Over	Total
All Island	545.9	100.0	10.7	20.5	13.2	5.5	22.5	44.6	24.1	3.3	100.0
By Sector											
Urban	115.7	21.1	13.0	31.1	16.9	2.0	18.6	52.0	24.6	2.8	100.0
Rural	379.1	69.4	10.2	27.1	13.7	4.0	19.8	45.6	26.8	3.8	100.0
Estate	51.1	9.4	10.7	3.5	7.4	24.4	52.0	20.8	2.2	0.6	100.0
By Zones											
Zone 1	250.7	45.9	13.2	25.9	16.1	1.9	16.4	52.0	26.2	3.5	100.0
Zone 2	33.5	6.1	6.1	20.9	7.8	9.2	27.7	43.8	18.7	0.6	100.0
Zone 3	22.9	4.2	5.8	12.9	6.6	—	7.2	50.9	21.0	0.9	100.0
Zone 4	238.8	43.8	11.0	17.7	13.2	9.2	27.7	36.6	22.9	3.6	100.0

Zone 1 - Colombo, Kalutara, Galle and Matara Districts.

Zone 2 - Hambantota, Moneragala, Amparai, Polonnaruwa, Anuradhapura and Puttalam Districts.

Zone 3 - Jaffna, Mannar, Vavuniya, Trincomalee and Batticaloa Districts.

Zone 4 - Kandy, Matale, N'eliya, Badulla, Ratnapura, Kegalle and Kurunegala Districts.

Source: Socio-Economic Survey 1969/70.

textiles, fertilisers, paper, cement, among other basic items will also be implemented during this period. But these will fall into the capital intensive sector and the employment they will generate will be limited. Both the demographic factor and the constraints of a development strategy which has to maximise available capital resources for employment creation will necessarily lead to the concentration of the development effort in the rural sector. But the occupations in the diversified agriculture and the rural industry that will be created will have to match the aspirations of the new job seekers both in regard to the character and quality of the work as well as the incomes that they yield. The absorption of the rural educated youth in the new work opportunities that are created will also depend on the capacity of the learning system and the value system to form the needed skills and aptitudes on the one hand and develop the right attitudes to work, on the other.

### SECTION III — LAND AND EMPLOYMENT

The high level of rural unemployment which has been described in the preceding sections reflects the conditions in the rural economy in which there is a growing imbalance between population and resources of which agricultural land was the most important. The problems of land and employment can be analysed in terms of two typical situations, one in the Wet Zone and the other in the Dry Zone. The two Tables given below contain selected data on land, population and the structure of peasant holdings. Table I contains data pertaining to population changes and man land ratios during the period 1946 - 1971. Table II derives the available information relating to the structure of holdings from two agricultural censuses held in 1952 and 1962. These two Tables provide the framework for a discussion of the problems.

The most important characteristics relevant to our discussion which can be distinguished in the situation in the Wet Zone are mainly the pressure of population on the limited resources of the village economy, the increasing landlessness, the limited or zero potential for the development of new agricultural land and the dual structure of holdings in which peasant small holdings, a large number of which are fragmented parcels of uneconomical size, exist side by side with the large scale plantations. Already before the dramatic upsurge of population in the late 40's, the

agricultural potential of the Wet Zone land had been almost fully exploited. During the 19th century and the early part of the 20th century, approximately 1,800,000 acres had been brought under intensive cultivation of tea, rubber and coconut. The Wet Zone contained more than two-thirds of the country's population on a land area which is less than one-third of the total and resulted in very high population densities. The dual structure of holdings created acute problems of land shortage in certain parts of the Wet Zone. This was most evident in those parts of the Wet Zone in the south and southwest, where the coconut plantations hemmed in the village communities on a limited stock of land which had to bear the increasing burden of an expanding population. A similar situation was found in the hill country in the central region. What would have been forest land and therefore available to the village as common land as the village expanded had been appropriated and developed into large scale plantations. It could therefore be concluded that the situation in the Wet Zone was largely one of land scarcity which did not provide the new rural workforce with easy and ready access to land if they sought a livelihood in agriculture. The situation however was not one of a straight supply and demand kind. Several factors complicated the land/man relationship. The demand for land itself as stated earlier, was influenced by the changes that were brought about through the education system and the expectations that it generated regarding employment.

In the Dry Zone the situation in regard to land and employment was sharply in contrast to the Wet Zone. The land/man ratio was on an average more than eight times that in the Wet Zone. The Dry Zone contained less than one-third of the total population. The land area in this Zone was more than two-thirds of the country's total. Only approximately 16 per cent of the total land area had been brought into agricultural use and the potential for agricultural development of the balance area was very considerable. This situation is also reflected in the higher size of land holdings in the Dry Zone and the lower level of rural unemployment. The Dry Zone economy does not contain the dualistic feature of the plantation-cum-peasant economy of the Wet Zone, but the residual elements of a traditional feudal economy resulted in certain sharp disparities in land holdings in parts of the Dry Zone. The small holding village economy existed side by side with large scale holdings

**TABLE VI**  
**Agricultural Land and Population Density**

DISTRICT	Total Land Area Acres	POPULATION		Agricultural Land Area		Density of Population per Acre of land		Agricultural Area as % age to Total Area		Density of Population per acre of Agricultural Land	
		1946	1971*	1946	1971**	1946	1971	1946	1971	1946	1971
<b>CEYLON</b>	15,997,904	6,657,339	12,747,755	4,267,398	4,925,268	0.42	0.80	26.67	30.7	1.6	2.6
<b>GROUP A</b>											
<b>W E T</b> Colombo	506,880	1,420,332	2,699,392	416,725	376,280	2.80	5.32	82.21	74.23	3.4	7.2
Kalutara	396,960	456,572	729,185	255,571	252,352	1.15	1.83	64.38	63.57	1.8	2.9
Galle	413,600	459,785	733,258	233,384	230,670	1.11	1.77	56.43	55.77	2.0	3.2
Matara	308,000	351,947	587,005	216,132	213,446	1.14	1.90	70.17	69.30	1.6	2.7
<b>Total</b>	1,625,440	2,688,636	4,748,840	1,121,812	1,072,748	1.65	2.92	69.02	65.99	2.4	4.4
<b>GROUP B</b>											
<b>W E T</b> Kandy	584,912	711,449	1,199,977	402,163	402,686	1.22	2.05	68.76	68.84	1.8	3.0
Nuwara Eliya	303,360	268,121	456,086	170,883	176,868	0.88	1.50	56.33	58.30	1.6	2.6
Kegalle	410,880	401,762	656,712	335,488	321,655	0.98	1.59	81.65	78.28	1.2	2.0
<b>Total</b>	1,299,152	1,381,332	2,312,775	908,534	901,209	1.07	1.07	69.93	69.36	1.5	2.6
<b>GROUP C</b>											
<b>I N T E R M E D I A T E</b> Matale	493,040	155,720	321,669	168,178	156,818	0.32	0.65	34.11	31.80	0.9	2.1
Kurunegala	1,179,360	485,042	1,028,048	584,698	663,214	0.41	0.77	49.58	56.23	0.8	1.5
Ratnapura	800,320	343,620	662,660	305,815	352,317	0.43	0.82	38.21	44.02	1.1	1.9
Puttalam	735,600	182,847	383,597	190,551	239,132	0.25	0.52	25.91	32.51	0.9	1.6
Badulla	696,360	297,046	619,458	227,972	218,965	0.43	0.89	32.74	31.44	1.3	2.8
<b>Total</b>	3,904,680	1,464,275	3,015,432	1,477,214	1,630,446	0.37	0.78	37.83	41.75	1.0	1.8
<b>GROUP D</b>											
<b>D R Y</b> Jaffna	617,280	424,788	701,738	152,908	178,460	0.69	1.14	24.77	28.91	2.8	3.9
<b>GROUP E</b>											
<b>D R Y</b> Hambantota	640,800	149,686	342,181	131,639	176,914	0.23	0.54	20.54	27.61	1.1	1.9
Mannar	612,800	31,538	77,319	37,750	49,350	0.05	0.13	6.16	8.05	0.8	1.6
Vavuniya	916,160	23,246	95,228	31,950	88,526	0.03	0.04	3.49	9.66	0.8	1.1
Batticaloa	609,013	203,186	259,011	92,998	139,442	0.15	0.43	15.27	22.89	1.2	1.9
Amparai	737,707	—	277,181	73,755	123,729	—	0.38	10.00	16.77	—	2.2
Trincomalee	646,960	75,926	188,411	30,866	78,764	0.12	0.29	4.77	12.17	2.5	2.4
Anuradhapura	1,783,760	139,534	388,618	138,535	242,917	0.05	0.22	7.43	13.62	0.8	1.6
Polonnaruwa	841,072	—	150,051	37,497	126,487	—	0.18	4.46	15.03	—	1.2
Moneragala	1,763,080	75,192	190,970	37,940	116,276	0.04	0.11	2.15	6.59	2.0	1.6
<b>Total</b>	8,551,352	698,308	1,968,970	606,930	1,142,405	0.08	0.23	7.10	13.36	1.1	1.7

Source: Census of Agriculture 1962.  
Census Population 1946, 1963 and 1971.

\*Provisional.

†Includes both the Wet and the Dry Zones.

\*\*Districtwise distribution estimated.

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TABLE VII

## (A) Agricultural Holdings below and above 50 acres

Size, Class of Agricultural Holding	Number of Holdings		Acreage		Average Extent	
	1946	1962	1946	1962	1946	1962
Holdings under 50 acres .. ..	810,877	1,163,929	2,813,126	3,125,961	3.47	2.68
Holdings 50 acres and above .. ..	5,048	5,872	1,454,272	1,540,572	288.09	262.36
Total .. ..	815,925	1,169,801	4,267,398	4,666,533	5.23	3.99

## (B) Structure of Holdings below 10 Acres

	0 to less than 1		1 to less than 2		2½ to less than 5		6 to less than 10		½ to less than 10											
	1952	1962	1952	1962	1952	1962	1952	1962	1952	1962										
	Avg. Extent	% age Share	Avg. Extent	% age Share	Avg. Extent	% age Share	Avg. Extent	% age Share	Avg. Extent	% age Share										
Ceylon	.59	24.4	.65	20.5	1.49	42.6	1.54	39.5	3.35	21.9	3.45	24.9	5.56	11.1	6.44	5.1	2.23	100	2.56	100
Group A	.58	28.3	.64	27.1	1.45	44.5	1.50	43.6	3.30	19.2	3.36	21.0	6.47	8.0	6.46	8.3	1.96	100	2.07	100
Group B	.60	26.9	.65	24.4	1.52	39.6	1.56	44.1	3.38	20.5	5.43	21.9	7.01	13.0	6.50	9.6	2.36	100	2.21	100
Group C	.58	23.9	.66	16.3	1.47	45.3	1.57	41.5	3.31	21.8	3.43	27.8	6.38	9.0	6.50	14.4	2.10	100	2.63	100
Group D	.65	27.9	.69	33.3	1.57	42.2	1.52	35.3	3.30	20.7	3.39	14.8	6.61	9.2	6.17	16.6	2.11	100	2.11	100
Group E	.53	14.2	.61	8.3	1.55	37.8	1.57	26.7	3.44	28.8	3.56	32.3	6.47	19.2	6.38	32.7	2.90	100	3.71	100

Source: Census of Agriculture 1952 and 1962

Group A : Colombo, Kalutara, Galle, Matara

Group B : Kandy, Nuwara Eliya, Kegalle

Group C : Matale, Kurunegala, Ratnapura, Puttalam, Badulla

Group D : Jaffna

Group E : Hambantota, Mannar, Vavuniya, Batticaloa, Amparai, Trincomalee, Anuradhapura, Polonnaruwa, Moneragala.

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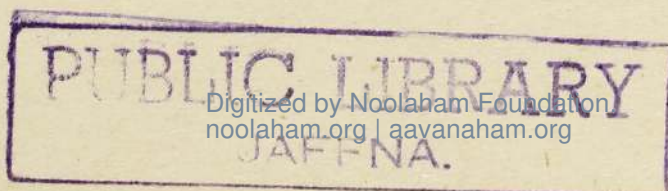


that were vested in the religious institutions and in the descendants of the feudal overlords.

Given a situation where on the one hand population pressures were mounting in the Wet Zone and land was acutely scarce, and on the other hand was plentifully available in the Dry Zone and the population thinly distributed, one might have expected automatic adjustments in the man/land relationships resulting in a spontaneous migration from the Wet Zone to the Dry Zone, and increasing exploitation of the Dry Zone land. This in fact did not occur. The exploitation in the Dry Zone had to await the massive intervention of the State which had to undertake heavy capital outlays to construct major irrigation systems and develop an infra-structure at high capital cost to establish new agricultural settlements in the Dry Zone. The development of Dry Zone land for settled agriculture required substantial capital resources which were entirely beyond the reach of peasant small holdings.

“Several factors can be identified as having contributed to this situation. First the operational unit does not always reflect the subdivision in ownership. In several districts various modes of joint ownership were in operation and helped to retain the size of operational holding. The economic limits of subdivision were already reached in the case of the land holdings at the lower end of the scale, and this would have acted as a disincentive for further fragmentation of operational holdings. Fragmentation below economic limits also resulted in the reverse process of consolidation. The owners of mini-holdings went the cycle of impoverishment, indebtedness, sale of land to the more well to do farmer, resulting in landlessness. For example, the land operated on the basis of share cropping increased from 212,000 acres in 1946 to 281,000 acres in 1962 and 336,096 acres in 1970. These trends by themselves however, should be set against the fact that holdings above 2% acres retained their share in many of the thickly populated districts.

There were several other social and economic changes which were influencing the relationship in agriculture. A mass education system which was free from the primary grade to the University was rapidly raising the educational levels of the rural workforce. A significant proportion



of the secondary school leavers were seeking job opportunities outside the agricultural sector. The formal education imparted in the school system was shaping the job aspirations of students in the direction of white collar jobs and employment opportunities in the modern sector of the economy. There has of course to be much detailed study of the interaction of these different factors before any definite conclusions can be drawn regarding their efforts on land ownership, size of holdings and other relevant conditions in agriculture. But the available data points to the conclusion that the new entrants to the rural workforce who had reached middle school or completed their secondary education were reluctant to accept a share of the work opportunities on the available agricultural land and were prepared to enter the labour market in search of new job opportunities. These changes manifested themselves in the major problem of increasing open unemployment in the rural sector which was most acute in the Wet Zone and which mainly affected the new entrants to the workforce.”\*

The programme of State-sponsored migration to the Dry Zone although it alleviated the problems of landlessness and unemployment in the village economy of the Wet Zone, did not proceed at a sufficiently fast rate and on an adequate scale to have the desired impact on the rural unemployment problem. The continuing problems of landlessness in the Wet Zone resulted in growing agitation for land reform and in 1971 the Government decided to undertake a large scale programme of land reform. This programme involves a land ceiling of 50 acres on individual holdings of tea, rubber and coconut and other agricultural land with the exception of paddy, and a ceiling of 25 acres on holdings of paddy land. It is estimated that approximately 400,000 – 500,000 acres of land would be released for re-distribution as a result of the imposition of these ceilings. This would constitute between 25 to 30 per cent of all holdings above 50 acres. The impact on paddy land where the large majority of holdings are below 25 acres would be marginal. The Land Reform Commission is addressing itself to the problems of land re-distribution. The initial plans for

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\* *Comparative Study of Population and Agricultural Change in Sri Lanka* – Report prepared by the Marga Institute for ECAFE – 1972.

the utilisation of the redistributed land includes a system of co-operative enterprise for which unemployed young persons would be selected. It is difficult at this stage to make a reliable estimate of the effects of land reform on employment, and the extent to which it would provide the rural workforce with access to land. It is to be noted that much of the land that would be available for redistribution is extensively cultivated in tea, rubber and coconut. The level of employment on tea is quite high, while the employment intensity in rubber is on an average higher than most other perennial crops that are being cultivated, with the exception of tea. The transfer of ownership of this land will not lead to any significant additional employment. In coconut however, there is considerable scope for increasing the level of employment through more intensive use of the land by interplanting, dairy development and other forms of agricultural diversification. Coconut land would therefore offer reasonably good opportunities for the co-operative enterprises that are being planned. The success of these enterprises would depend vitally on the institutional and other support they receive in the form of agricultural extension and know-how, credit, management assistant, supply of inputs such as fertilisers and seed material and the marketing of produce. In short, a well organised package of services would have to underpin the agricultural organisation that would follow on the land reform, if it is to yield benefits by way of additional employment and increased productivity.

One final comment has to be made in regard to the problems of land and employment. Although the structure of holdings both in the Wet Zone and Dry Zone reflects a general situation of scarcity, much of the high land which is not cultivated and which falls into the village economy remains very poorly exploited. The technology of farming in the peasant economy in Sri Lanka with very rare exceptions as in the case of Jaffna was based primarily on paddy cultivation. The peasant sector had not yet evolved a satisfactory technology for the agricultural use of the high land in an efficient and economical manner. At the same time, the prevailing price structure that prevailed in the country for cash crops that could have been grown in the high land, e.g. chillies, onions, vegetables and so on, did not enable the farmer to earn an income which reasonably compensates him for the labour he put in and therefore did not provide him with an adequate incentive for production. Recent developments however have altered this

situation. Imports of products such as chillies, onions, and potatoes have been banned with the result that the local market price for these products have risen very sharply providing the farmer with attractive price incentives. In the new situation there is every possibility that the poorly utilised high land would be increasingly exploited and would make demands on some part of the unemployed and under-employed rural workforce. But even here, to enable the village economy to respond adequately to the new economic situation, numerous structural changes will have to be made and institutional support provided.

**PART I**  
**THE FORMAL SCHOOL SYSTEM**  
**IN**  
**SRI LANKA**



## PART I

### I. PRE-VOCATIONAL STUDIES IN THE SCHOOL PROGRAMME

#### 1. The School System of Sri Lanka

The present position in regard to the School System in Sri Lanka could be summarily described by giving an account of its structure and some relevant data from recent School Census.

The School System of Sri Lanka contains four segments as follows:

- 1st segment – grades 1–5 — Primary School.
- 2nd segment – grades 6–8 — Middle School.
- 3rd segment – grades 9 and 10 — Secondary School (1st cycle).
- 4th segment – grades 11 and 12 — Secondary School (2nd cycle).

In the first and second segments all pupils follow a common curriculum. In the 3rd and 4th segments, three curricular streams are provided — Arts, Science and Commerce — and the pupils select one of them. The first public examination for the award of the General Certificate of Education Ordinary Level – (G.C.E. O/L) comes at the end of the third segment. This is the first hurdle in the School System and up to this point every pupil wanting to do so can stay in School. In that sense Grades 1–10 constitute the “open access span” of schooling in Sri Lanka.

As regards the compulsory schooling age, the position is as follows: Legislative provision is there for framing regulations in specific districts to make 5 to 14 years the compulsory school-going age for children. However, the practice of utilising these provisions to prosecute in courts, parents who fail to send their children in this age range to school ceased about 20 years back.

Only those who reach a certain minimum attainment at the G.C.E. (O/L) Examination are allowed to proceed to the 4th segment. At the end of this segment is held the examination for the award of the General Certificate of Education Advanced Level – (G.C.E. A/L). Selection for admission to the University is made on the results of this examination.

(School Data (Source: 1971 School Census)  
Number of Schools

State .. .. .	8,585
Private (including schools on plantations) ..	824
Total .. .. .	<u>9,409</u>
Number of schools with grades up to 10 ..	1,426
Number of schools with grades up to 12 ..	332

**Enrolment**

Number of pupils in grades 1-5 .. .. .	1,801,585
Estimated population in the corresponding age range (5-9 years) .. .. .	1,743,893
Number of pupils in grades 6-10 .. .. .	951,124
Estimated population in the corresponding age range (10-14 years) .. .. .	1,603,588

**Note:** Repetition rates are high, particularly in the earlier grades. Owing to this a fair proportion of pupils in these grades are outside the corresponding age range.

Number of pupils in grades 11 and 12 .. .. .	50,407
Proportion of pupils proceeding from the first cycle to the second cycle of Secondary Education	12%
Proportion of pupils in grade 12 selected for admission to the University .. .. .	18%

**Repetition Rates – (Percentages)**

Grade 1 .. .. .	27.4	Grade 2 .. .. .	20.4
Grade 3 .. .. .	18.2	Grade 4 .. .. .	16.3
Grade 5 .. .. .	13.9	Grade 6 .. .. .	11.2
Grade 7 .. .. .	7.8	Grade 8 .. .. .	2.9
Grade 9 .. .. .	3.9	Grade 10 .. .. .	46.9
Grade 11 .. .. .	7.5	Grade 12 .. .. .	45.3

**Note:** In Grades 10 and 12 at which pupils sit the G.C.E. (O/L) and (A/L) Examinations respectively they are allowed to sit the examinations a second time. Hence, the unusually high repetition rates in these two grades.



The three main changes that have occurred in the field of education during the last three decades are the following:

- (i) removal of the distinction between the fee-levying schools and free schools by the adoption of the Free Education System in 1945;
- (ii) removal of the distinction between the English medium schools and the Vernacular medium (Sinhala/Tamil) Schools by adopting the mother tongue as the medium of instruction for all children commencing with grade 1 in 1945;
- (iii) removal of the distinction between the State schools and Assisted Denominational schools by the State takeover of the latter group in 1961/62.

With these popular reforms pupil numbers in the school system expanded very rapidly:

		<i>Total Enrolment Grades 1/12 (in millions)</i>	<i>Enrolment in Grades 9/12 (in millions)</i>
1938	..	.80	.035
1950	..	1.36	.065
1960	..	2.23	.225
1971	..	2.80	.371
1972	..	2.62	.439

(In 1972 the age of admission to grade 1 was raised from 5 to 6 years and this resulted in a heavily reduced intake to grade 1. Hence, the fall in total enrolment in that year.)

It will be seen that there has been a very rapid expansion in the total enrolment and almost an explosion in secondary school enrolment. Rapid increase in enrolments in the secondary school appears to be still on.

Another significant development that has taken place since 1956 is the very rapid increase in numbers following the Science stream in the G.C.E. (O/L) and (A/L) classes. The enrolment in the grade 10 Science stream increased from 5,000 in 1957 to 30,000 in 1966 and to 56,000 in 1972.

The main features of the educational reforms introduced at the beginning of 1972 are the following:

- (1) age of admission to school was raised from 5 to 6 years;
- (2) the four segments in the school system were reduced to three as follows:
  - (i) grades 1 to 5 — Primary school
  - (ii) grades 6 to 9 — Junior Secondary school
  - (iii) grades 10 and 11 — Senior Secondary school

In the Primary grades too the content and methodology is being raised to bring it in conformity with the major changes that are being implemented in the Junior Secondary grades. These include an integrated curriculum heavily based on the child's environment, group work, discovery method, vertical combination of grades and a less rigid time table. It will be seen that the total span of schooling has been reduced from 12 to 11 years. Because of the age of admission to school has been raised from 5 to 6 years, this would not result in a change in the school leaving age. It will be noted that the third segment, that was there earlier, is being eliminated and it is being amalgamated into the second segment. The G.C.E. (O/L) examination will be replaced by a new examination to be called the examination for the award of the National Certificate of General Education. Pupils will sit this examination at the end of the Junior Secondary cycle, that is the end of grade 9. In grades 6 to 9 all pupils will follow a common curriculum containing the following subjects:

- (i) First Language
- (ii) Second Language
- (iii) Religion
- (iv) Mathematics
- (v) Science
- (vi) Social Studies
- (vii) Health Education
- (viii) Physical Education
- (ix) Aesthetic Education (i.e. Art, Music and Dancing)
- (x) Pre-vocational Studies.

This new curriculum has been introduced into the school system commencing with grade 6 in 1972. Prior to this, although

general science was provided in the curriculum in the middle school (grades 6 to 8), it was taught in less than 1,000 of the 6,000 schools with these grades. The percentage of pupils in the Science stream in the G.C.E. (O/L) grades is 24. What is more, this percentage varied widely from district to district – it being 55 in the highest and 10 in the lowest. This inter-district imbalance in science teaching facilities is particularly telling as it is the most sought after of the three curricular streams. With these reforms all schools will be teaching science and the regional imbalances are eliminated by this structural change. The introduction of pre-vocational studies is the other major change in the curriculum. It is expected that this comprehensive curriculum covering the four grades preceding the first public examination will ensure that all pupils receive a complete general education before they leave school.

In the new Senior Secondary State the curriculum will be streamed. This will come into being only in 1976 when the pupils of grade 6 in 1972 come on to grade 10. As already stated at present in the corresponding grades (grades 11 and 12) there are three curricular streams, namely, Arts, Science and Commerce. An attempt is being made to revamp these curricular streams so that they reflect to a greater extent the occupational opportunities that would be open to the pupils who leave school at the end of this stage. Only some preliminary thinking has been done on this problem.

## **2. Programme of pre-vocational studies**

As already noted the introduction of pre-vocational studies into the curriculum of the second segment or the Junior Secondary stage (grades 6 to 9) of the school, was an important step in the educational reforms that were discussed and finalised around mid-1971. A preliminary draft as an initial exposition of the idea was prepared by the writer, which was later refined, expanded and modified to connect the ideas into a workable plan by the Director of Education who was entrusted with the responsibility of implementing this programme. An outline of this document, annexed herewith, attempts to describe what pre-vocational studies comprise, the need for this new entrant to the curriculum, its significance in the current educational reforms, the main objectives that it is expected to achieve and tentative plans for introducing it into the school curriculum.

The present position in regard to this programme may be briefly summarised as follows. As already stated, all pupils in Grade 6 in 1972 follow a common curriculum and Pre-vocational Studies is one of the subjects in this curriculum. This common curriculum will be continued to grade 7 in 1973, grade 8 in 1974 and grade 9 in 1975. There are 5,500 schools with these grades. Out of the 40 periods in the weekly time table, 7 are allotted to this subject. These 7 periods are further sub-divided as follows:

- (1) Pre-vocational studies (I) – 3 periods per week
- (2) Pre-vocational studies (II) – 3 periods per week
- (3) Country's Natural Resources –  $\frac{1}{2}$  period (i.e. one period a fortnight)
- (4) Elementary geometrical drawing –  $\frac{1}{2}$  period (i.e. one period a fortnight).

### **Pre-vocational Studies I**

For the last 15 years or so Sri Lanka has had a programme for teaching handicrafts in schools. The subjects were woodwork, metal work, weaving, ceramics and light miscellaneous crafts. The first two were generally taken by boys and the other three by girls. However, these subjects were taught only in about 500 schools because fairly elaborate workshops, equipment and trained specialist teachers were needed for teaching them. Detailed syllabuses, teachers' guides etc. for these subjects for the Middle School (Grades 6-8) and the G.C.E.(O/L) Classes (Grades 9 and 10) were prepared from time to time. In addition to these practical subjects in almost all schools from Grade 6 upwards, Agriculture for boys and Home Science for girls are provided in the Time Table, and syllabuses, teachers' guides etc., are available for these subjects as well.

The three periods set apart for Pre-vocational studies I in the new curriculum could be utilised to teach one of these practical subjects, namely, woodwork, metal work, weaving, ceramics, light miscellaneous crafts, agriculture and home science. Commerce was also added to this list. Schools were given the option to use these 3 periods as well for Pre-vocational studies II if they so desired, thereby giving the latter a total of 6 periods. However, hardly any school availed itself of this option. Almost all schools teach Pre-vocational Studies I and Pre-vocational Studies II separately.

### **Pre-vocational Studies II**

This is the really new entrant to the curriculum. Here schools were asked to select from among the vocations obtaining in the

locality of the school one or more that could be studied by the pupils. For this purpose, School Committees for Pre-vocational Studies consisting of interested teachers, science teachers, Social Studies teachers, etc., were set up. These Committees were asked to survey the vocations found in the locality of the school. Parents' assistance was to be obtained wherever necessary in the selection of the vocations to be studied in school. The following alternatives were available to the schools in the selection of these vocations:

- (i) select one vocation in which there would be sufficient teaching content to be taught during the full three terms in all four grades of the new Junior Secondary School – Grade 6 to Grade 9.
- (ii) Select two vocations to be taught during the 12 terms that are available in the four grades. This would mean that each vocation would get a time equivalent of 6 terms.
- (iii) Select three vocations to be taught during the 12 terms in the four grades. This would mean that each vocation would get the time equivalent of 4 terms.

Schools were called upon to select their own vocations on the above basis and prepare their own syllabuses and schemes of work. They were required to send these syllabuses to the Ministry. The Unit at the Curriculum Development Centre of the Ministry in charge of this subject collated the contents from a number of such syllabuses received from schools on two popular vocations – coconut fibre industry and brick industry – and published two model syllabuses on these two vocations for issue to all schools. They were requested to take these as guidelines in the preparation of their own syllabuses and schemes of work.

During the course of the year schools have tried their hand at this task of preparing syllabuses, schemes of work etc., in the vocations they have selected. By September as many as 253 of these syllabuses had been received by the Ministry from the schools. They are of widely varying standards. A sample of the vocations involved is as follows:

Cloth printing  
Lace work  
Repairing bicycles  
Poultry keeping

Bee keeping  
 Fisheries  
 Motor mechanism  
 Electrical wiring  
 Printing  
 Fruit cultivation  
 Dress making  
 Mat weaving  
 Jaggery making (indigenous palm sugar)  
 Vegetable cultivation  
 Concrete grill work  
 Bamboo work  
 Basket weaving with fibres

In most regions this initial work of the schools is being co-ordinated by the Regional Directors of Education assisted by their Inspectors of Schools. Regional Committees set up for some popular vocations such as Fisheries, Flower Culture, Cane Work, Radio Repairs etc., consisting of the Inspectors of Schools and the teachers, are working to bring together the thinking done by the individual schools with a view to getting up improved teaching specifications in these vocations. In this process some English Directors have discovered certain patterns in the treatment of the teaching content. In one district all syllabuses conform to the following pattern:

- Part I – raw materials – their nature and procurement.
- .. II – activities and processes involved in the occupation/industry.
- .. III – management and economics of the occupation/industry.
- .. IV – research and development aspects of the occupation/industry.

Schools have been informed that they should now register with the Ministry the vocations they have selected for the purpose of the first National Certificate of Education Examination to be held in December 1975.

A Pre-vocational Studies Newsletter is being published by the Ministry of Education. Three issues of this have already come out. These carry accounts of the exceptionally high quality work done in some schools in addition to the instructions from the Ministry

pertaining to this subject and records of proceedings of seminars and discussions.

Seminars and discussions are regularly held to exchange experiences with and among teachers and also to clarify to the teachers the thinking of the Ministry design team.

### **Country's Natural Resources**

During this time allocation, the natural resources of the country are studied from an economic development point of view. Particular attention is paid to the resources available in the school district. Expected outcome of this programme are a knowledge of the potential and limitations of the country's natural resources and an attitude that would foster the conservation and the efficient utilisation of the country's natural resources.

### **Elementary Geometrical Drawing**

This has been introduced on the basis that knowledge and skills acquired in an elementary study of geometrical drawing will be indispensable to any citizen as Science and Technology advance.

### **Comments**

It will be noted that this programme has been on ground only from the beginning of this year and, therefore, it is too early to make any valid deductions from the observations so far made. However, some useful comments can be made. It would be relevant to raise the question – "What exactly are the objectives of these Pre-vocational Studies?" Are they mainly an attempt to improve on the usability and relevance of what is taught in school, demonstrate their inter relations and application to life through occupations and work situations in the environment of the student? Even if pre-vocational studies are restricted to these objectives they have a definite value in that they will relate what is learnt in school to the situations that are immediately recognisable in the students' environment, but if pre-vocational studies are confined to these objectives then they are only another method of improving the pedagogical effectiveness of formal education.

On the other hand, do the prevocational studies seek to correct the imbalance between education and existing work opportunities? If pre-vocational studies are to contribute to this objective then they have ultimately to motivate students to take to the occupations that they study. Such an objective, however, is beset with numerous

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difficulties. Many of the selected trades and occupations are pursued at present by persons with comparatively low educational attainments at a low level of technology and income and will not prove attractive to school leavers. The intention obviously is not that students should take to these occupations at their present technology and income level.

In studying these occupations the student has first to be positively oriented towards the work environment in which he lives. He examines the existing work opportunities. He is made to acquire some elementary skill in them and he is also made to study the elements of that occupation at a more sophisticated conceptual level. Such studies are intended then to enable him to identify the potential for employment and a livelihood at a higher level of productivity and income than that which presently obtains. If this element is not given due weight in the pre-vocational studies, they are unlikely to help in correcting the present imbalance between education and employment. There would be little point in studying traditional occupations which offer no opportunity for upgrading and higher productivity. If, however, prevocational studies are to be planned in this manner then there has to be careful selection of these studies themselves. The studies have to be linked to those occupations which have the potential for modernisation and improvement. The selection of the pre-vocational studies should then form part of the whole development effort in the rural and other sectors so that what the student learns of occupations within the school system can be applied positively in the total development programme that has been planned for the country. There has then to be much closer co-ordination between education and the specific programmes contained in the national plans and a more intimate relationship between the school and the community. In the programme of pre-vocational studies up to now sufficient emphasis has not been given to this aspect in the design and selection of trades and occupations.

Another aspect that deserves comment is the manner in which the nature of the organisation of the school affects this new entrant to its curriculum. This is most instructive to observe. One main problem is that teachers who are used to conventional teaching content, detailed teachers' guides, class textbooks etc., are at a loss when called upon to teach about the vocations. As already noted,



some ideas are emerging about a possible structure in the content of Pre-vocational Studies as conceived in this programme. But it will be quite some time before the teachers are able to handle this subject with the same confidence as they show in other conventional subjects of the curriculum.

The structure and the organisation of the school with its grades, subjects, time table, 35 pupils in each class etc. set serious obstacles in the way of introducing into it this unconventional new entrant. Live work situations in vocations where a class of 35 to 40 pupils can engage themselves in meaningful work for just one or two periods in the time table are very difficult to find. The situation gets worse as the number of parallel classes in the grade multiplies as is the case in large schools. Therefore, even in rural areas, the organisation of the school with its time table, classes and grades sets serious limits to the extent to which pupils can participate in real live vocational situations.

Examinations are perhaps the biggest obstacle in the way of successfully introducing a programme of this nature. However, if a subject is left out from the public examinations it will not receive the attention it deserves from either the pupils or the teachers. Therefore, examinations have to be accepted as a necessary evil that the school system has to cope with. The original idea to divide the four years into two cycles of 2 years each, as well as the modular approach to the location and development of the teaching content and the suggestion to start on the scale of a pilot project were given up because it was felt that right from the beginning if the inclusion of this subject in the all-island public examination that comes at the end of grade 9 was not stressed schools will not pay much attention to it. Therefore, right from grade 6 testability at the public examination coming at the end of grade 9 was a criterion in locating teaching content and organising teaching methods. For this same reason preparation of syllabuses of 12, 6 or 4 terms' duration had to be brought in so early in the programme.

In conclusion it may be stated that our attempt to bring the simple vocations into the school or to take the school out into the vocations has brought out in a forceful way some basic incompatibilities in the organisational structure of the two. Slowly and steadily attempts are being made to resolve these.

## Costs

A computation of the costs is difficult for a number of reasons. However, it is clear that the extra costs needed for the implementation of the new programme will be heavy. The new entrant to the curriculum, (pre-vocational studies), will need different equipment for the different vocations and trades. It is these that are available in village communities that will be taken up for study and therefore to an extent the plant available in the community can be used for demonstrations etc. Further, the extent to which the school should have its own plant for teaching the different vocations and trades can be ascertained only by experience. Doubtless, it would be a two-way process – what is needed as well as the amount of funds available will determine what equipment will ultimately be acquired by the school. Therefore, in a venture of this type it would be difficult to prepare accurate estimates well ahead.

Regarding the teaching of Science, the new programme introduces Basic Science in grades 6 to 9 in lieu of the specialized sciences – Physics, Chemistry and Biology – in grades 9 and 10. While a set of equipment for the latter costs about \$1,200, the former will cost only about \$325.

In spite of these limitations, standard sets of equipment at minimal level required for the teaching of Basic Science, Crafts, Agriculture, Wood and Metal Work, and Home Science have been worked out. A complement of such sets would cost approximately \$600. Therefore, to equip the 4,000 schools with Junior Secondary grades where these facilities are not available would cost  $\$600 \times 4000 = \$2,400,000$ . This is to be spread over 7 to 10 years.

Similarly, the construction of Science rooms in these 4,000 schools would cost about \$ 3.5 million. In this regard parents and well-wishers of schools are giving substantial support to the school authorities, and it is expected that in 6 to 7 years all the schools will have their Science rooms.

## II. THE ORGANISATION OF PRE-VOCATIONAL STUDIES

### What are Pre-vocational Studies?

The term “Pre-vocational Studies”, as has been used by the Ministry of Education refers to one area of the Secondary School instructional programme, the content of which is related to specific vocations in such a way that pupils have the opportunity of learning

about vocations but not necessarily of acquiring professional skills in them. Where the skill is complex and demands a level of maturity not attainable by the pupils the opportunity will be provided for the acquisition of some component skills to a level that is appropriate to the pupil's stage of development. Where the manual skills are relatively simple, pupils may acquire a high degree of proficiency in them through the school courses. Examples of the former would be Fishing, Carpentry, Motor Mechanics, Gemming, Nursing etc. Examples of the latter would be lace-making, Coir Work etc. Associated with each vocation there is not only a specific set of manual skills but also a body of knowledge. A fisherman must have an adequate knowledge of boats, fishing-gear, fish etc. Pre-vocational studies will include the study of *selected portions of this knowledge to a depth and in a manner suited to the pupil's stage of development*. It is a definite course of study at Secondary School level in the same way that Mathematics or Science or Language is. It will have definite objectives, carefully selected content and appropriate instructional and evaluation techniques.

While the term "Pre-vocational Studies" is not new, the studies that are to be started in school from 1972 emphasize certain aspects which have not received sufficient attention in the past. The carpentry work must not result in a few joints being made and thrown away. Simple repairs to school furniture, production of items such as tool-racks etc., should be undertaken by a pre-vocational study in carpentry. Pre-vocational Studies in agriculture should emphasise production under existing conditions available to the community at large. They should not be confined to instructions and methods of farming that are not applicable without the special facilities in the school. This does not imply that the school should merely copy the agricultural practices of the community and make no efforts to improve them. The efforts must be made to improve them and demonstrate them effectively. *What is to be avoided at all costs is to develop the belief that scientific agriculture is uneconomical*. This is what is likely to happen if the school agricultural programme is divorced from production. If the school does not have sufficient land to demonstrate the viability of the practice it advocates, it should try to adopt a co-operative neighbour's land.

What is expected is not the development of selected manual skills alone. The manual skills are important, but they should

be practised against the background of a theoretical foundation appropriate to the level of maturity of the pupil. Accordingly every pre-vocational study will include instruction in the appropriate theory. The theory will concern itself with the different aspects from which a vocation can be examined. Consider a vocation like brick-making. The raw materials, the process of manufacture and the criteria for a good brick could be studied from a scientific angle. In this way the subject matter which is appropriate for study by children in these grades can be selected.

From another standpoint pupils could study the marketing of bricks. Who are the users? What are the purposes for which clay bricks are used? Is the clay brick likely to be replaced with something else? Pupils could study whether the users buy directly from the producer or not. The commerce of brick making is another aspect which can be made for study by pupils. Hence, not only will pupils participate in producing bricks but will also be learning about it from different aspects.

Where a pre-vocational study in agriculture is concerned, pupils could be made aware of the very many decisions that a farmer is called upon to make and the managerial and organisational elements involved. They should be made aware of the kind of information on which such decisions should be made by a farmer. Scientific agriculture is not merely the development of the high-yielding varieties of paddy or the development of particular methods of cultivation but also the application of the scientific knowledge to make appropriate decisions for the day-to-day running of the farm. Hence, Pre-vocational Studies are concerned not only with manual skills but also with associated cognitive studies.

### **The Need for Pre-Vocational Studies**

Under the re-structured school system the junior secondary school will comprise grades 6, 7, 8 and 9. Under this set-up there will be a common course of study for all the pupils in those grades. For the majority of pupils this course would terminate their formal schooling.

In designing this common course, the policy makers have had to consider among others the following points:

- (i) As a per cent of its national budget, the country is spending as much as it can on education.

- (ii) The majority of pupils who leave the present school system have not demonstrated the existence of the knowledge, skills and attitudes necessary for the development of the country.
- (iii) The availability of traditional white-collar jobs cannot keep pace with the numbers seeking such jobs.

Considering the large proportion of money spent on education, there is the very reasonable demand that the output from the school system be of greater use to the country. If the current output has not demonstrated the necessary knowledge, skills and attitudes, it may be partly due to the absence of a climate in which initiative could have flourished and led to a planned exploitation of our very considerable natural resources. But it has to be conceded that the absence of the skills referred to is partly due to an education system whose major objectives are attuned to an era that exists no longer.

The majority of the present day school leavers are quite helpless and frustrated when they find that the traditional employment avenues (white collar jobs) are closed to them. As stated earlier in this study, it is an inescapable fact that the traditional employment avenues will never be available in sufficient numbers. The present education system has not equipped the school leaver to even think of possible alternatives. It has taught them to value mental work very highly and to look down upon manual labour. Workers were not associated with learning. The learned men were not workers. The development of this general attitude was supported by the fact that the content of school learning had little relation to the world of work. The pupil studying science was not taught to see any application of it to the paddy cultivation which may have been his father's main occupation. While attempts were made – notably in the G.C.E.(O/L) Chemistry teaching – to devote particular attention to home and community applications of science, they were not sufficient to displace the attitude that learning science was mainly for the purpose of obtaining a pass in various examinations, which in turn led to the traditional avenues of employment.

Remarks on very much the same lines could be made for other courses of study at the secondary level. The history, the geography and the economics studied at school have not enabled pupils to

gather adequate information about their own environment and their own country.

The traditional type of courses in the traditional subject matter fields alone cannot remedy this deficiency of the vast majority of school-leavers being quite helpless in the face of the problems that the current conditions confront them with. At the same time it has to be recognized that the educational system alone cannot solve all the problems of youth and the community. But it can do a great deal more to make the school-leaver better prepared than now. This effort requires courses of a type different from the traditional subject matter courses. The new courses should enable a planned look at the community resources. They should provide for the application of the traditional subject matter disciplines to the utilisation of resources. They should provide the development of manual skills against the background of socially useful production. The new courses should contribute to changing the current attitude that paddy cultivation, fruit-growing, carpentry, fishing etc., are for the less intelligent portion of the population. It is to meet these needs that pre-vocational studies have been introduced.

### **The major objectives of the Pre-vocational Studies**

An indication of the objectives to be achieved through these studies have been given in the last two sections. The Pre-vocational Studies that different schools will organise will in general be different. But each course of study should be designed so that pupils completing the 4-year Pre-vocational Studies programme should have the following knowledge, skills and attitudes:

(i) **Execute selected manual skills related to vocations with an appropriate degree of proficiency**

It is considered important that pupils should acquire some meaningful manual skills. They may not acquire the skills to a professional degree where a consistently high level of performance is routine. Pupils may have to perform consciously many tasks that a master craftsman is hardly aware of performing. But depending on the particular skill, such a level of performance may be the most appropriate for pupils. Teachers in consultation with parents and community leaders will have to decide the skills and the level of performance appropriate to the pupils in their charge.

**(ii) Comprehend appropriate aspects of selected vocations**

A vocation must not be treated as only a set of manual skills to be acquired. It should be recognized that either something of value is produced or some useful service is rendered. In either case there is something to be marketed. If something is produced then there is some raw material being used and there is a process of production. People engaged in various vocations will not only have problems of selling but also of buying. They should not only execute the production process, but should also be on the alert to improve it. Hence, there are many aspects from which a vocation could be studied. What aspects are appropriate and to what depth each aspect should be studied are matters for teachers to decide. But it is expected that pre-vocational studies will not be narrowly confined to the acquisition of manual skills.

**(iii) Knowledge of major vocations practised in the community**

A major objective of the pre-vocational studies is to establish closer and more fruitful relations between the pupils who leave school and the communities from which they come. The basis for this should be knowledge about the community and its resources. Some parts of this knowledge they would acquire through other courses of study such as social studies and science. Pre-vocational Studies should place the emphasis on gathering knowledge about the vocations. It is not the intention that each vocation should be presented only from those aspects which would tend to attract pupils to it. The presentation must be honest. The intention is not to deceive the rising generation but to make them better informed and more skilful. If there is no market for the output from a particular vocation pupils must be made aware of this. If they can be made to understand fully the reasons for such a state of affairs the attempt should be made to develop that understanding fully. With better knowledge, pupils are better equipped to make more rational decisions about their future.

**(iv) Awareness that knowledge gained in other studies such as mathematics and science can be applied in studying about vocations**

It is important that pupils regard school-learning as meaningful. This meaningfulness can arise in many ways. One way is to show the relevance of school-learning to such important aspects of life as vocations practised in the community. In a locality where basket weaving is done, the relevance of school mathematics can be supported by studying the designs on the baskets. The study of the raw material used in weaving gives many instances of the

use of science learnt in school. Such applications are likely to convince the pupils that what they are asked to learn in the science class has other uses besides answering the questions in the end-of-term test.

**(v) A feeling of confidence and pride in their ability to participate in the production of marketable goods or services**

To many pupils in the junior secondary school, the course of studies they are completing would be their only formal schooling. Others who continue would have further opportunities for development within the formal school system. For both groups it is essential not only to acquire certain selected manual skills as stated above, but also to acquire a feeling of confidence and pride in these skills. Then it can be expected that pupils leaving the system, being confident of the many activities they may engage in for their progress, are more likely to take suitable steps to engage in one or more of them. For those who continue to stay in the system, the feeling of confidence and pride they have acquired would lead them to value certain vocations and develop suitable attitudes to those who engage in them.

**Organising Pre-Vocational Studies – School Level**

This section sets out some of the broad guidelines that have been issued for organising Pre-vocational Studies at the different levels of the formal school system.

**The Role of the Principal**

- (i) Understanding the major objectives
- (ii) Briefing the teachers
- (iii) Conducting a survey to gather information on the Vocational Areas.

Once the Principal has taken careful note of the various viewpoints and suggestions of parents and teachers, he may find it necessary to conduct a survey of the particular vocational areas that are located in the school environment, before he organises Pre-vocational Studies in the school. The main objective of such a survey would be the collection of data on various problems relating to the particular vocation or vocations that are likely to have direct bearing on the organisation of the Pre-vocational Studies in the school. Some of the main information gathered from the survey would be on how and what facilities in the community



could be made available to the schools. Who are the personnel who should be consulted for the necessary vocational and technical expertise? How many of them have experience in teaching? What are the arrangements to be made through which their assistance could be channelled to the school?

For the planning, organisation and completion of this survey there has to be close co-operation between teachers and representatives of parents in such a manner as to suit the particular conditions prevailing in the school, its environment and the community. The assistance of senior students in the school may also be obtained, if necessary.

- (iv) Selection of Pre-Vocational subjects to be taught in the school.
- (v) Surveying the facilities available in the school.
- (vi) Briefing the parents and soliciting their co-operation.
- (vii) Soliciting the assistance and co-operation of the community and the public and private sectors.
- (viii) The appointment of Pre-Vocational Curriculum Development Committees in the School.

Obviously, the development of curricular materials on a particular Pre-vocational area cannot be successfully undertaken by any single teacher in the school. *Not only should many teachers be engaged in the development of such curricular materials, but local experts and specialists, technicians and skilled workers should also actively participate in such a venture.* A committee comprising of suitable members of the staff and representatives of the community should be appointed for the above-mentioned purpose at this stage. The Principal will be ex-officio chairman of this committee.

The main role assigned to the committee would be the development of curricular materials and teaching. Teaching sequences should be indicated separately in respect of each grade and term. There must be a clear statement of the particular manual skills that are intended to be developed and the goods and services that pupils will be required to produce. A few examples of instructional methods which may be appropriately used in the teaching of Pre-vocational subjects are – field work, excursions, group activity, discussions, team-teaching etc.

The committee could also engage itself in the collection of resource materials of the following type:

- (a) Published books, pamphlets, articles, monographs etc. on the particular vocational area.
- (b) Useful information, such as names, addresses etc. of the local experts/specialists/technicians/craftsmen etc. who are directly engaged in the particular vocation.
- (c) Information on Public and Private Sector organisations and Institutions from which useful assistance can be obtained for the school.

Besides the above types of resource materials, the school may also find it necessary to purchase various items of equipment in connection with its pre-vocational programme. It will be useful if a list of such equipment can be compiled by the committee.

### **The Role of the Community**

The community, in the context of Pre-vocational studies would form a fairly broad based unit encompassing one or more schools in the locality. Such a community will possess two categories of resources, viz. human and material. The former would include parents, local experts, specialists, skilled technicians, craftsmen, workers, farmers, public and private sector officials etc., while the latter would include contributions from public and private sector institutions, factories, farms, work places, land, estates, etc. The school, its teachers and pupils are also an integral part of the resources of the community.

The success or the failure of the Pre-vocational programme of the school will depend to a great extent on the active and collective participation and co-operation of the community. Hence, not only the Principal and his staff, but also the community at large can render yeoman service, apropos the pre-vocational programme in the school. The nature and extent of these services, of course, may vary according to the needs and the environment of the particular school. Nevertheless, the more important services that could be rendered to the school are enunciated below.

### **Some of the specific services the community may render the Pre-Vocational Programme in the school**

- (a) Extending unstinted co-operation to the Principal and his staff in the planning and organising of Pre-vocational Studies in the school.

- (b) Making satisfactory and suitable arrangements for the conducting of practical lessons, pertaining to the Pre-vocational Programme, in the particular factories/farms/work-sites situated in the community.
- (c) The local experts/specialists/skilled technicians/craftsman/workers etc. participating in the instructional programme as Instructors in the practical work involved in the vocation in lessons mentioned in (b) above. This could be done under the guidance and direction of the regular teachers.
- (d) Making an organised effort, as parents and members of the community, to provide to the school the special facilities (such as buildings, equipment and land) demanded by the Pre-vocational Programme in the interest of the educational welfare of their own children.

### **Organising Pre-Vocational Studies – Circuit Level, The Role of the Circuit Education Officer**

The Circuit Education Officer, in the course of his duties, can render invaluable assistance and service in organising and implementing efficiently the Pre-Vocational Programmes. Undoubtedly, the efficacy of the measures that the C.E.O. may adopt with regard to his circuit will, to a large extent, depend on the extent of his acquaintance with and the personal interest he takes in implementation of the Pre-Vocational Programme. The C.E.O. should find it useful to pay attention to the following aspects:

- (i) The clarification of the major objectives.
- (ii) The expeditious despatch of circulars from the Ministry of Education and other relevant documents.
- (iii) The provision of a suitable organisational set-up for the maximum utilisation of the resources available in the circuit. The C.E.O. should set up a suitable organisational network in his circuit, conducive to co-operative action, whereby the expert services of Principals, teachers and vocational specialists could be channelled to the whole circuit equitably and promptly.
- (iv) Conducting a survey of the human and material resources and other facilities in the circuit.

It is important that the C.E.O. should possess a full knowledge of the human and material resources and facilities, available in the circuit, to facilitate the organisation of Pre-vocational programmes in the circuit.

- (v) The transfer of equipment and tools to other schools in the circuit, where they can be put to a more productive use.
- (vi) Finding ways and means of supplying the schools with the special facilities needed by them.

It is the responsibility of the C.E.O. to discuss the Pre-vocational programme operating in his circuit with the Member of the State Assembly, G.A., D.R.O., Agricultural Officer and other responsible government officers, office-bearers of the local welfare organisations and community leaders, and through their good offices explore ways and means of acquiring for the schools the special facilities (e.g. buildings, tools and equipment, land, specialists etc.) needed by them.

- (vii) Responsibilities in relation to individual schools in the circuit.

Besides giving broad directions and general guidelines with regard to the efficient organisation of the Pre-Vocational Programme in the schools of the circuit, the C.E.O. should also pay adequate attention to the problems and difficulties of individual schools, and give specific advice and assistance, wherever necessary.

- (viii) Creating opportunities for the exchange of views.
- (ix) Sustaining an interest in the Programme.
- (x) Organising in-service teacher-training Seminars/Conferences.

It is useful to organise (either terminally or yearly) in-service teacher-training Seminars and Principals'/Teachers' conferences on the Pre-vocational Studies Programmes in the particular circuit. All Principals and teachers should be invited to attend such conferences. The resolution of various educational and administrative problems connected with particular Pre-vocational Programmes, the in-service training of Pre-vocational teachers, the

exchange of views and notes among Principals and teachers and the creation and sustenance of interest on the Pre-vocational Programmes are some of the goals that can be achieved through such conferences.

### Organising Pre-Vocational Studies – Regional Level

While the decision as to what Pre-vocational Studies are to be started in a particular school rests on the Principal, and the successful teaching of the chosen area depends very largely on the leadership provided by the Principal to the staff and the community, there is a very clear role to be played by the regional staff. They are the local representatives of the Ministry and their main function is to interpret the different aspects of the Pre-vocational studies so as to fit the particular local conditions. Ministry statements, concerned as they are with the whole of the country, must necessarily be of a general nature. An occasional example is meant more to clarify a locality. There are many decisions that a Principal is called upon to take, such as: What vocational area should be selected? What are the manual skills to be developed? What is the instructional procedure best suited to achieve a particular set of objectives? These decisions must support the major objectives and satisfy the requirements specified in Ministry statements. A principal takes decisions over a period of time and in a particular context. It is not possible for the Director-General of Education to examine the decision-making done by each school to assess whether it is such as to support the major policy. The regional staff has to do this for him. Different schools do different things. The regional staff has to guide the principals and support them in various ways so that the many different programmes lead to the achievement of the common objectives. Briefly described below are some steps that a Regional Office may take.

- (i) Establishing a set of schools whose working is closely studied by the Regional Staff.

The suggestion is to study very closely the working of a small number of schools so that the Regional Staff can increase their understanding of the many different problems that schools will face. The Principal of a school when faced some difficulty has to have someone who is willing to study his particular problem and suggest what could be done in the very particular circumstances in which the school is placed. It is no solution to refer the matter to the D.G.E. unless a change of policy is advocated. To discharge

this function it may be helpful to study a few schools very closely. In the selected schools, the Regional Staff may participate in the many activities that the principal and staff are called upon to perform. Some activities may be kept under observation. Some activities may be done entirely by the Regional Staff. Such involvement in a selected number of schools would prove very useful in guiding the other schools.

- (ii) Enlisting the support of other government and semi-government departments and the private sector.

Schools have to be assisted to get the co-operation they will require from other government departments, corporations and private sector organisations. It is the duty of the Regional Staff to ensure that the relevant people are knowledgeable about the Pre-vocational studies in particular. The Government Agent, the District Revenue Officers, Officers of the Agriculture Department, District Medical Officers, Officers of the Small Industries Corporation, Postal Department, Irrigation Department etc. need to be briefed about the pre-vocational studies and what kind of assistance schools are likely to ask from them. Each department may be persuaded to inform all its regional officers of the programme and need to co-operate with the schools.

- (iii) Establishing regional units to provide particular kinds of services to schools.

Schools are likely to require services such as the following:

- (a) Marketing facilities for any goods they may produce. For example, schools doing handicrafts may find it difficult to sell their produce.
- (b) Establishing contact with other schools. This may be required not only for the purpose of comparing notes with other schools engaged in similar programmes, but also for obtaining assistance. One school may help to get the raw material required by another.
- (c) Advice on the evaluation of the programmes. The general guidelines given by the Ministry are very unlikely to be sufficient. Each school may have to be helped to evolve its own programme of evaluation.
- (d) Advice on financial matters.

Where services such as the above are required, it may be useful to establish separate units to provide the service. Each unit could be composed of members of the Regional Staff, teachers, lecturers at teachers' colleges etc. Each unit could make an intensive study of the aspect allotted to it.

### **Organising Pre-Vocational Studies – Ministry Level**

The major responsibilities of the Ministry can be briefly summarised as follows:

- (i) Clarification of policy.
- (ii) Allocation of resources.
- (iii) Administrative support e.g. amendment of current rules which may inhibit the development of Pre-vocational studies.
- (iv) Support for evolving curriculum materials and conducting in-service education.
- (v) Evaluation of the Pre-Vocational Studies on a national scale.
  - (a) Supervision of schools.
  - (b) Conducting common examinations.

The Ministry is organised to discharge these responsibilities in the following manner. Items (i) and (iv) above are functions of the Curriculum Development Centre. Items (ii) and (iii) and (v)(a) will be the responsibility of the Deputy Director-General of Education in charge of implementation. Item (v)(b) will be the responsibility of the Department of Examinations.

Some of the services that will be provided by the Ministry to help in the production of curriculum materials have been referred to earlier. Publications giving information about different vocations will be published from time to time. Reports of work done in schools regarding Pre-vocational Studies will be published. Assistance will be provided so that schools in different regions teaching the same Pre-vocational area can exchange ideas. The Curriculum Development Centre will also attempt to be of help in solving the many problems that are likely to arise, particularly those in relation to the application of science and mathematics and problems regarding technical information about vocations.

### **Equipment and Material for Pre-Vocational Studies**

It was stated earlier that the current expenditure on education is at about the highest level that the country can afford. Hence,

the implementation of Pre-vocational studies must not be such as to constitute a further continuing liability on the national exchequer. The provision of useful but unessential equipment involving foreign exchange has to be ruled out. For example, it was the past practice to instal imported equipment for wood-work and home science. In the new programmes it will be expected that the workshop for wood-work is nothing more than a village carpenter's set-up. *Only the very bare essential equipment will be imported.* Sophisticated kilns for clay work will not be provided. Home Science will have to use the equipment that is generally available in the country. The initial expense will be made available in the usual way. Where this is not satisfactory the matter should be brought to the notice of the appropriate authority.

It is expected that the Pre-vocational studies would lead to the production of some marketable goods as for example in pre-vocational studies in agriculture, carpentry, coir-work etc. The income from such produce should offset some of the expenditure. The income from a pre-vocational study in carpentry should be sufficient to at least replace worn out instruments. The attitude that should be developed is one of being self-sufficient and not reliance on an apparently inexhaustible State supply. Community resources should be more fully exploited. The increased community participation referred to elsewhere in this note should be very helpful in this regard.

### **Evaluation of Pre-Vocational Studies**

The success of the Pre-vocational Studies has to be judged by the extent to which they satisfy the needs and achieve the objectives stated in the sections above.

It is very clear that the traditional paper and pencil tests only, are not adequate for such evaluation. By these techniques it is not easy to establish whether pupils take pride in their work or to find out whether they can execute the selected manual skills. Hence, the traditional written examinations will have to be supplemented by other techniques.

### **Techniques other than the usual written tests**

- (i) Observation of pupils when engaged in specific manual tasks. Each Pre-vocational study is expected to develop a set of manual skills. The manual skills could be specified in terms of certain tasks. A plan may be drawn



up where each pupil is tested for the ability to execute the selected task. Pupils who perform below the required level should be given further opportunities. In placing a pupil at the minimum level the number of attempts should not matter. But a distinction should be made when placing pupils at higher levels. For example, where coir work is concerned, pupils could be expected to be skilled in making a rope.

Hence, it is necessary that clear statements regarding the manual skills to be acquired and the grade in which they are to be acquired should be made. The observations could be carried out throughout the course, and not at the end only.

(ii) Observation of materials made by pupils.

In certain Pre-vocational studies each pupil could be expected to produce certain articles, for example, ekel brooms, trays, bricks, lace etc. The finished article may be examined and a mark or a grade given. Allowance will have to be made for the different conditions and different material that pupils may use for producing similar articles. If the attempt is to find out which pupil is more skilful or whether both are equally skilful, then both will have to be set the similar tasks under similar conditions. While for other school purposes, such as awarding a prize, it may be necessary to compare pupils in this manner, the major objectives of the Pre-vocational studies do not require such a comparison. What is required is to ensure that each pupil develops certain skills. Hence, if pupils use different materials, different equipment and work under different situations, the task concerned should be specified in terms of the particular conditions obtaining. Hence, for different groups of pupils there could well be different specifications for what may ostensibly be the same task.

(iii) Oral Tests

There are certain skills that pupils are expected to develop which are not manual skills of the type referred to earlier, but which are difficult to evaluate using written texts. For example, pupils can be expected to recognise certain types of wood in a pre-vocational study on carpentry.

In Agriculture they may be called upon to recognise certain common diseases of the paddy plant or some common weeds. In gemming they may be called upon to recognise different types of common precious stones. A test could be conducted orally to find out whether pupils have the required knowledge.

Oral tests could also be used to supplement the usual written examinations. For example, pupils may be expected to know how a particular variety of fish is caught or how certain types of fertiliser are applied. These could be tested by written tests in the usual way. They can also be tested orally. Oral tests are also very useful in the lower grades where pupils may not be able to express themselves in the written word.

### **The National Certificate of General Education**

Pre-vocational Studies would be examination subjects at the National Certificate of General Education at the end of Grade 9. The first examination will be held in 1975. The final grade that each candidate will receive at the N.C.G.E. will be a composite of Grade 9 marks and the grade he receives at the N.C.G.E. written examination. This is very necessary because associated with each pre-vocational study are components that are difficult to test by a common national examination because of the following reasons:

- (i) Manual skills are not easily tested by a common national examination. What is ostensibly the same manual skill may not on closer examination be the same.
- (ii) Each pre-vocational study is likely to have a strong local bias which could vary from school to school. In fact, one of the major objectives is related to the local community. It is difficult, if not well nigh impossible, to test this aspect of a common national examination.

Hence, a technique has to be evolved to combine the grade given by the school at the end of Grade 9 with the grade obtained at the written National Examination to obtain the final grade to be assigned to each student. The following tentative scheme is suggested:

Each candidate sitting the N.C.G.E. might offer two pre-vocational studies. Each school would grade each

candidate with respect to each study on the following scales:

- A = Excellent  
 B = Very Good  
 C = Good  
 D = Fair

At the written paper at the N.C.G.E. candidates would be graded on a similar scale. The final grade would be awarded according to the Table given below.

Written Exam Grade

A    B    C    D

School  
 grade  
 end of  
 grade 9

A	A	A	B	C
B	A	B	B	C
C	B	B	C	C
D	C	C	D	D

For each pre-vocational study a candidate will get a separate grade. If this scheme is to be put into practice each school sending up candidates for the N.C.G.E. will be required to submit to the Curriculum Development Centre descriptions of the pre-vocational studies it has selected, by the end of 1972. By the end of 1973, the Examinations Department will publish a list of the pre-vocational studies that will be examined at the 1975 examination and in subsequent years. For each study the Department will publish a syllabus and specimen questions by the end of 1973. The list of pre-vocational studies will be amended from time to time.



**PART II**  
**NON-FORMAL EDUCATION**  
**AND**  
**TRAINING PROGRAMMES**



## PART II

### FOREWORD

This part deals with non-formal education and training programmes which cover a wide range from the creation of a sense of discipline, self-reliance, civic consciousness, loyalty and honesty, to training and education in skills for animal husbandry, agriculture, mixed farming, engineering at the craft, technician and technological levels and trades. This part is divided into three sections as follows:

- A. Programmes sponsored and implemented by governmental (other than the Ministry of Education) and non-governmental agencies which have a vocational content and/or are employment oriented.
- B. Programmes sponsored and implemented by governmental (other than the Ministry of Education) and non-governmental agencies which are designed to provide education and training in social-psychological attributes which are essential requirements for development.
- C. Programmes sponsored and implemented by governmental (other than the Ministry of Education) and non-governmental agencies which are community development oriented.

It should be noted, however, that programmes of training in such fields as shorthand, typewriting, secretarial practice, book-keeping, accountancy etc. which are provided by private organisations have not been included in this study as these are of a routine character and the output of such trained persons at the present time in Sri Lanka appears to be in excess of the demand. Many of these subjects are included in the syllabi of the formal school system. The non-governmental institutions that provide tuition in these subjects on a feeder basis cater to a section of the school-leavers who have not offered these subjects in schools or have not been able to acquire these skills and now desire to improve their position in their search for jobs.

The above is a somewhat arbitrary classification made for the following reasons:

The content of Section A can be incorporated into the formal system of education. In fact, the Ministry of Education does have training schemes of a vocational and technical character. But since these programmes are inadequate in the light of the demand for such training, other government departments and non-governmental institutions have organised education and training programmes to fill at least a part of the expanding demand for such education and training.

The programmes in Section A cannot be regarded as a homogeneous group. The coverage varies from programme to programme. There is considerable variety and diversity in the objectives pursued by the different programmes and they are based at different segments of the population and different age groups. For example, the Agricultural Extension programme and the Co-operative Development programme are nation-wide in their coverage. A large part of the Agricultural Extension programme is devoted to the upgrading of skills of the adult farmers. On the other hand, Section A includes programmes run by specific institutions catering to a limited number of trainees such as the Diyagala Boys' Town and the Enderawatte Farm.

In regard to Section B, it must be emphasised that the social-psychological attributes which these organisations attempt to inculcate among the children and youth are essential requisites for any programme of development. The present study has amply demonstrated the effectiveness of the non-governmental organisations in the achievement of these objectives. Unfortunately, non-governmental organisations, due to various constraints, are unable to provide this training to cover a sufficient magnitude of the child and youth population in Sri Lanka in order to make a significant impact on the development strategies of the country. These have been discussed later in describing the respective programmes.

There is yet another important characteristic which needs to be highlighted at this stage. All the non-governmental organisations which have education and training programmes which fall into Section A or C above, have incorporated a training and education for character formation. The inculcation of a sense of discipline, self-reliance, loyalty, honesty, civic consciousness and



so on has been deliberately and consciously built into their programme. The leaders and operatives in these non-governmental agencies have worked with a sense of dedication to a cause which by and large could not be found in the governmental programmes which have been dealt with in this part.

Section C deals with community development programmes in which elements of training in various aspects ranging from home gardening, nutrition, sewing, to the development of rural infrastructure, can be found.

It should be noted that several programmes classified under each of the above three categories, do contain elements of training which have been dealt with under the other sections. In fact, some non-governmental programmes are so comprehensively organised that their content of training covers all three sections. They have, however, been classified in one of the sections in terms of their main training programmes.

These programmes which have an extensive coverage in terms of geographical distribution as well as population and those which contain important features, although the programmes may be relatively small, but which could be adopted or suitably adapted as models of non-formal education and training programmes in third world countries have been treated in detail.

Every effort has been made to make this study as comprehensive as possible. It cannot, however, be denied that there are several small-scale organisations involved in programmes relevant to this study but about which no information is available. It has also not been possible to include particulars of organisations which the writer and the Marga Institute are aware of, but which did not furnish data in response to the requests made by the writer and the Marga Institute. No assessment can be made of the magnitude and coverage of these programmes. However, it is not likely to be more than a small percentage of the programmes covered in this study.

In assessing performance and the usefulness of a non-formal education and training programme, the indicators used by the writer are the following:

1. The need for a particular programme within the social, economic, cultural and political framework of Sri Lanka.

2. The contribution the programme makes towards human development, be it subjective or objective.
3. The results achieved through the programme, assessed on social-psychological and employment bases.

The description and observations which follow are based mainly on available documents and information made available by the heads of the institutions and organisations studied, on personal interviews conducted with the heads of these organisations and on the personal knowledge the writer has of them. It has not been possible to cross-check these findings with any of the youth who have followed one or more of these training programmes. Such an undertaking will involve a much longer period of time.

Finally, in order to make the main report relatively short, only the most salient features have been embodied in the main body of the report. Additional material giving further details of each programme have been provided as annexes to this Report.

## SECTION A

### A I      THE LAND COMMISSIONER'S DEPARTMENT             YOUTH SETTLEMENT SCHEMES

The programme of settlement of youth on the land, initiated by the Ministry of Agriculture & Lands, is being included in this study for the following reasons:

- (1) The objective was to wean the educated youth from their desire to obtain white collar employment and to encourage them to take to scientific agriculture and animal husbandry, with the assurance that it would give them both social and economic satisfaction.
- (2) Although this is designated as a Settlement Programme, it necessarily must have a major educational and training content, coupled with careful planning, direction, implementation and follow-up if the above objective is to be achieved.

The settlement of youth on land was started in 1965 with a target of 15,000 youths to be actively engaged in self-employment, in agriculture, horticulture and animal husbandry over a 5-year

period. The settlement programme gained intensity in 1966 and 1967 but tailed off thereafter as indicated in Table I.

**TABLE I\***

No. of settlements established			
Year			
1965	..	..	2
1966	..	..	20
1967	..	..	10
1968	..	..	3
1969	..	..	1
1970	..	..	1
1971	..	..	4
		Total ..	41

The main reason given by Government for the very slow pace of growth since 1968 was the need to consolidate and ensure the success of the schemes which had already been started.

Governmental policy at present is not to multiply these schemes, but rather to expand the existing schemes, with more youth being brought in for this purpose.

A summary of the types of schemes (cropwise), the total acreages to be developed and the number of youth presently engaged actively in self-employment in them as at the end of June 1972 is in Table II.

**TABLE II\***

Type of Scheme (Cropwise)	No. of Schemes	Acreage		No. of youth actively engaged	
		Homestead	Culti- vable	Potential	Resident
Subsidiary Food					
Crops and/or Paddy	21	1,354	4,585	1,770	1,474
Paddy only	1	33	72	19	19
Tea or Tea and Cinnamon	5	199	1,046	398	350
Cinnamon only	2	75	217	150	103
Coconut and Paddy	2	49	912	167	153
Fruits	3	300	1,950	650	514
Vegetables and Mixed Farming	6	165	320	220	159
Animal Husbandry	1	6	2	12	11
Total	41	2,181	9,104	3,386	2,783

\*Source: Youth Settlement Scheme Progress Report, April-June 1972, Department of the Land Commissioner (mimeographed).

\*Source: Youth Settlement Scheme Progress Report, April-June 1972, Department of the Land Commissioner (mimeographed).

It would appear from the above that 2,783 youths have already been settled on these schemes which cover a total extent of 11,285 acres of land. Of this total extent, the acreage which has been developed under the different annual and permanent crops, as well as the development of poultry and animal husbandry, as at 1.4.72 is shown in Tables IIIA and IIIB.

The 'potential' for youth employment on this acreage, as shown in Table II, is what had been fixed at the time each scheme was started. The department is now of the view that the target of 3,386 youths was too high and that the actual number now in residence is adequate for this extent of land.

Originally, the government proposed that each scheme be operated by the youths on the basis of a communal farm. This has since been abandoned in almost all the schemes. Portions of the land have now been allotted to each youth, who works his own portion on an individual basis. Even the marketing of his produce is done by himself independently of the others. The only exceptions are in the case of the 7 tea and cinnamon plantation schemes and the small poultry scheme which the youth operate on co-operative principles. In the settlements with passion fruit, too, a working arrangement has been evolved to collect the produce of each individual and to centrally market it.

A spokesman for the department informed the writer that in 25 of these schemes, each youth today enjoys an average income of Rs. 250/- per month, while in 15 of these 25 the average income is about Rs. 500/- per youth per month.

A tentative assessment of the costs and benefits of this scheme has been completed, based on information available up to the end of 1968 and took into account the total number of youths resident in the schemes (2,526) and the total acreage cleared.\* The study indicated that the cost of settling youth in the different types of settlement schemes was high. The variation in costs is shown in Table IV.\*\*

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\*ILO - *A Tentative Assessment of Costs and Benefits of the Ceylon Youth Settlement Schemes*, Geneva 1971 (unpublished). The study covers 40 schemes.

\*\*Source: *Youth Employment in Ceylon - Problems & Prospects*, Srivastava & Selvaratnam - *MARGA*, Vol. I, No. 4, 1972.

TABLE III

Agricultural Performance\*

(a) Annual Crops (Acres)																					
Paddy		Chillies	Ground Nuts	Maize	Red Onions	Vegetables	Cowpea	Green Gram	Banana	Other Crops	TOTAL										
T.	P.	T.	P.	T.	P.	T.	P.	T.	P.	T.	P.	T.	P.								
486	438	1163	1170	176	36	—	—	290	181	283	180	129	89	71	06	235	223	240	155	3073	2478

T = Target. P = Performance up to 1.4.72

TABLE IIIA

(b) Permanent Crops\* (Acres)

Tea		Coconut	Cinnamon	Cardamom	Fruits				
T.	P.	T.	P.	T.	P.				
442	407	250	170	427	404	—	143	1267	197

T = Target. P = Performance up to 1.4.72

TABLE IIIB

Animal Husbandry

Poultry		Bull Calves		Pigs	
Stock Capacity	Stock up to	Stock Capacity	Stock up to	Stock Capacity	Stock up to
5000	4311	200	98	—	—

\*Source: Youth Settlement Scheme Progress Report, April-June 1972. Department of the Land Commissioner (mimeographed).

TABLE IV

(Rs. '000)

	<i>Reservoir Irrigation Schemes</i>	<i>Lift Irrig- ation Schemes</i>	<i>Coconut Schemes</i>	<i>Other Commercial Crops Schemes</i>	<i>Vegetables or Potatoes Schemes</i>	<i>Poultry Schemes</i>
National Cost	15.3	11.7	10.2	8.9	8.8	8.2
Foreign Cost	2.2	2.2	2.5	2.5	2.2	2.2
Total	17.5	13.9	12.7	11.4	11.0	10.4

The above study covered only about the first two years of each scheme at which time they had not achieved maximum performance. A more recent assessment of costs and benefits was not available to the writer to make a more up-to-date appraisal. If the average incomes at the present time, as indicated by a spokesman for the department, are valid, a cost benefit analysis at this stage is likely to reveal a more favourable situation as it exists today.

It is reported that about 40-50 per cent of these youths, all of whom joined these schemes as bachelors, are now married and have settled within the scheme with their families.

Two of the more successful Youth Settlement Schemes, the Muthu Iyan Kaddu and Ihala Hewessa Schemes, are described in Annex I. The schemes appear to contain the necessary elements which could make the agricultural occupation attractive to educated youth. The initial stages of the schemes, the selection of the land, its development, the settlement of youths, were all reasonably well planned and managed. The leadership provided by those who were in charge of the schemes was of an exceptional quality and was responsible for the level of motivation of the youths. The crops selected were capable of yielding incomes which compared very favourably with wage employment either in the government or private sector to which the youths normally aspired. The methods of cultivation, the management and organisation of the farm, marketing of produce, all made demands on the skill, enterprise and education of the young colonists. These schemes come closest to the prototype of scientific high income intensive agriculture which could satisfy the demands of the educated youth.

### Assessment

The following observations are made on the basis of the writer's personal knowledge about some of these schemes which he had

visited in 1969 and the more recent discussions he has had with government officials who are directly involved in the implementation of these schemes. These comments which cover the research, planning, implementation, organisation, personnel, training and education for settlement of youth in a new socio-economic environment for scientific farming, efficient marketing etc. are all relevant aspects of non formal education and training of youth. Due consideration of these aspects are important, because the scheme deals with a special category of youth who are educated and aspiring for a type of employment which is vastly different from that which they are being encouraged to pursue in the fields of agriculture and animal husbandry. Unless these basic issues are satisfactorily resolved in time, many of these schemes are likely to end up as failures or only as partial successes in the years ahead, and at considerable cost to government and the national economy, and create a new category of frustrated youth whose frame of mind will be more antagonistic to the existing socio-economic order than ever before.

(1) Some of these schemes have been badly sited. Either the lands were marginal and unsuited for the type of activity planned or water supply was not easily available. The youth who came into such schemes must naturally manifest a keen sense of disappointment and frustration in the new enterprise he was encouraged to venture into.

(2) The planning of the programmes in each scheme has been inadequately done at the commencement; the feasibility of starting an economic activity and an adequate cost-benefit analysis of each activity at each site for a scheme had not been undertaken.

(3) No attempt had at any time been made to project an image of the youth in his new environment and consciously strive to achieve that image.

(4) No sociological studies had been made on the most appropriate pattern of ownership of the land and the means of production, collection and distribution of the produce in the settlement. The policy direction was for setting up communal farms, but by the time this decision reached the youth, most of them believed that they were to get individual allotments. The absence of a basic sociological study and the lack of clarity in communication would have resulted in a confused youth on the one hand, and a more confused pattern of activity on the settlement on the other.

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Yet there are more aspects which must be clearly examined. For instance, if each individual youth is responsible for the marketing of his own produce, he has to spend a considerable time, away from his immediate farm activities, to find buyers, to transport (if necessary) his produce to the market and so on. This will increase his overheads and also interfere with the efficient functioning of his allotment, thereby lowering the income which he could have otherwise enjoyed. This observation is particularly relevant as these are youths who have been encouraged to take to agriculture in preference to white-collar employment. As such it is necessary to ensure that they do enjoy the maximum possible income from the land which should be higher than that of a white-collar job and through that means to demonstrate the social and economic benefits accruing to the youths.

(5) No attempt has yet been made to help the youth to develop a desirable pattern of social organisation, firstly, within their own settlement and, secondly, in relation to their neighbours in the villages around and outside their settlement in general.

(6) No attempt has been made to delegate responsibility to the youth for discussion and decision making in the day-to-day activities in the settlement and to develop leadership among them. This, in the writer's view, should have been planned and implemented at the very inception of each scheme.

(7) These schemes have been regarded as mere settlement schemes. No attention had been paid up to the present day to the fact that these are educated unemployed youth with aspirations for white-collar employment but who have to be re-oriented and encouraged to go back to the land. For instance, the conditions under which youth in several schemes live are no better than those which they were accustomed to in their own village homes; the youths do their own cooking, but no instruction and training has been imparted on cookery, nutrition, sanitation, etc; the youth have their meals not at a table, but seated on their beds in the dormitory; no organised social, cultural, recreational and relaxational facilities (both outdoor and indoor) are available to them during their leisure hours except for a few library books which have been made available recently, including a radio and a volley ball. Even the daily newspapers are not available at the settlement.

(8) The officer in immediate charge of each scheme resident on the spot, is usually one who has had training in agriculture and



animal husbandry. But he has had no training in Extension methods, in human relations, skills and more particularly in handling youth who have been displaced from their own social, cultural and economic environments for various reasons, beyond their control.

(9) Vital needs such as fungicides, insecticides, fertiliser etc. are generally not available at the site but have to be reported to the District Headquarters (Kachcheri). By the time the requirements arrive (this may be days, weeks or even months) the crop has been partially or totally destroyed. The remedial measures, in the view of the writer, are so simple that one wonders why this state of affairs is allowed to continue.

(10) The costs of settlement per youth appear to be high and the gestation period, especially in the case of permanent crops, before benefits accrue also appears to be unduly long. These two aspects need careful study and scrutiny and measures adopted to ensure reduced costs and quicker benefits. Such a strategy will permit a larger number of youth to come into similar schemes with the same capital expenditure, and benefits to the national economy will also be higher. Schemes in which cash crops have been cultivated have been proved to be more successful than those with permanent crops. The gestation period before the youths obtain a fair income has also been relatively short and varies from eight to twelve months. This has helped the youths to effect attitudinal changes and to be happy and satisfied.

(11) The magnitude of youth unemployment is so huge and the need to absorb a large proportion of them into agriculture and animal husbandry is so urgent, that it is surprising that the youth settlement scheme has expanded so little during the past four years. The impact on these two problems has been almost negligible.

In evaluating a settlement scheme, some of the more important criteria for investigation are listed below:

1. The preliminary investigations relating to the type of land available, soil conditions, sources of water for agriculture and domestic purposes.
2. The appropriateness of the agricultural crops and/or livestock to be introduced.

3. The provision of the infrastructure such as roads, medical facilities and irrigation facilities.
4. An assessment of the income an individual or a family could enjoy within the scheme, together with a careful assessment of the time lag from settlement to first harvest.
5. Provision of adequate assistance for living and working during this gestation period.
6. The appropriateness of the cultivation pattern.
7. The suitability of the youth in terms of their values, attitudes, etc.
8. The magnitude of the scheme in terms of the expertise and facilities available.
9. Cost-benefit analysis at the planning stage and as soon as possible after first harvest.
10. The capabilities of the Project Manager in terms of technical know-how, organisational and managerial ability, extension methods, training and experience in working with youth – his ability to help in developing initiative and leadership among them, and in developing appropriate social, economic and cultural institutions within a scheme.

## A II. AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH, EXTENSION, EDUCATION AND TRAINING

The Agricultural Development Proposals, 1966–70, gave no attention at all to the subjects of extension, education and training. The present Plan of the Government seeks to make commitments in the Agriculture Section for a 7-year period from 1971 to 1977 and clarify perspective for a period even after 1977\* from the areas of agricultural research, extension, education and training. Due to various limitations, the plan lacks comprehensiveness, but

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\* Draft Agricultural Development Plan, 1971–1977 – Agricultural Research, Education, Extension and Training – C.W.E.

may prove to be a gain in the intensity of understanding within a restricted field.\*\*

The proposals for farmer education and training are presented below:

- (a) to enable a farmer who is engaged in growing a particular crop, e.g. paddy, chilli, onions, or maize, to improve his techniques of management so that he obtains a higher yield. Similarly, a farmer engaged in livestock should have opportunities of learning management practices for reducing costs and increasing income.
- (b) to enable a farmer who grows a particular crop to learn the advantages and techniques of management of growing a variety of crops where possible in association with livestock on his holding. This involves teaching and convincing the farmer of the economic advantages of diversified agriculture. Diversification involves an education in the criteria of selection of the crops and animals most suitable for his holding.
- (c) To enable a farmer who is engaged in diversified farming to learn the advantages of correct mechanisation, soil and water management and in fact of all the planning and organisation that is required of a farm holding that is operated on commercial lines.
- (d) to enable farmers referred to in categories (a), (b) and (c) above to build and manage institutions such as Cultivation Committees and Co-operative Societies for purposes of obtaining agricultural supplies and marketing the produce of their farms.

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\*\* The limitations referred to are: the restricting of the proposals to those persons who are directly and immediately associated with the implementation plan. The first group are the farmers themselves, for whom considerable farmer education and training must be emphasised. The second group are the salaried functionaries who are expected to labour in the implementation of the plan. This includes a general examination of the problem of training of staff from the Practical Farm Schools, the School of Agriculture, and the University. In addition, a specific examination of recruitment and promotions in the Department of Agriculture is also necessary. Although education in the Secondary School is relevant for this general examination, it has been deleted in the plan mainly because the subject of Agricultural Education is a comparatively new one in the schools, and its scope, objectives and methodologies are still under experimentation and will necessarily take time to mature.

**Farmer education and training programmes that have so far been undertaken by government agencies directly concerned in increasing agricultural productivity.**

The Department of Agriculture has during the last two years concentrated its attention on providing one type of formal course in farmer training. These courses are each of one day's duration and have been conducted in different parts of the Island. This training programme is organised round a single objective, namely to identify one or two practical problems which are of immediate concern to the farmers of the given localities and then educating them on ways and means of overcoming these obstacles. The classes are coupled with practical demonstrations in the field. The programme also allows for conveying information on a few related topics which are subsidiary themes incorporated into the main objectives of the programme. This approach has demonstrated several advantages. It has been easy to secure farmer response because the programme is a strictly utilitarian one designed to meet problems that are worrying the farmers themselves. This approach has also enabled the Department to avoid the dangers of running training programmes which are over-theoretical and are aimed at a level above that of the farmers.

Finally, the programme has made it necessary for the extension staff of the Department to identify the more important problems that restrict productivity and to equip themselves with the knowledge with the knowledge for teaching the farmers. So far 71,000 farmers have participated in this programme which is proving popular. The organising principle of this programme can be explained by this illustrative example. In one district where transplanting rice had been practised for years, it was found that the depth of planting was too deep and was proving to be a barrier to the attainment of higher yields. This subject was the main topic around which a one-day programme of training and demonstration was organised in the area. The discussions and the field demonstrations sought to convince the farmers of the dangers inherent in deep transplanting, any remedial measures taken, and their result. This method of one-day courses in farmer training is still in the early stages of development. With greater information regarding technical problems in the field and the availability of more trained staff to broaden and intensify these programmes, the department is of the view that this method may well be consolidated as the basic method for farmer training.

In addition to this programme, the Department of Agriculture has also recently organised farmers on one-day visits to the important research stations of the Department so that there would be closer links between research and extension and a better appreciation on the part of farmers as well as research officers of their mutual problems.

The Department of Agrarian Services has a scheme of training for members of Cultivation Committees. It is a two-day training course with a fixed curriculum. Representatives from about ten Cultivation Committees are summoned at a time, for a training camp. The members are divided into several groups for purposes of discussions. The subjects dealt with are the Paddy Lands Act, the powers and duties of Cultivation Committees, construction and maintenance of minor irrigation works, crop insurance, rural credit, the guaranteed price scheme, and agricultural extension. This training programme is managed by the Paddy Lands Branch of the Department of Agrarian Services and the lectures at these training camps are given by officers of the Department of Agrarian Services as well as by officers of related Departments. The Co-operative Department also runs short courses for training farmers in the management and operation of Multi-purpose Co-operative Societies.

### **Programme of training now available to public officers working in the agricultural sector**

The Department of Agriculture runs an "In-service Training Institute" at Peradeniya which provides a two-week course of training for new recruits to the Department in the grades of Agricultural Instructor and Food Production Overseer. The Institute also provides a two-week course of "in-service" training for Agricultural Instructors and Food Production Overseers with the emphasis on specific subjects and extension methods to be adopted in the different areas of the Island. The number trained per year is over 400.

The Department of Agrarian Services has as yet no regular scheme of training for Departmental Officers except in the grade of Village Cultivation Officers who are given occasional technical training organised by the Minor Irrigation Branch of the Department. Courses are also run for Co-operative Inspectors at the School of Co-operation, on specific aspects of the Co-operative

Movement especially on the rules and regulations governing the establishment, supervision and auditing of Co-operative Societies.

### **Practical Farm Schools**

The Practical Farm Schools were established from 1942 onwards for the purpose of giving a training in practical agriculture to young men and women who wish to engage themselves in agriculture after leaving school, on their own lands or on land alienated to them by the government. By 1958 there were 19 such schools – 15 Boys' Schools and 4 Girls' Schools. The objectives for which these schools were established were not realised. Most students entering the school had land of their own but on passing out became applicants for government employment, particularly under the Department of Agriculture. Apart from the fact that only a few of this large number of students could be employed by the government, the one-year course of training provided in those schools were of such a limited scope that it was an inadequate preparation for a young man or woman to take to practical agriculture.

It was in this context that it was decided in 1965 to utilise 14 Practical Farm Schools for the purpose of giving teachers from Secondary Schools in the Department of Education, a six-months' training in agriculture. The Practical Farm Schools continued to be staffed and run by the Department of Agriculture. The Department of Education is now organising its own teacher training programmes in agriculture but it is expected that the Practical Farm Schools will be gradually released from the responsibility of training teachers. In fact, 5 of the 14 Schools will cease to train teachers this year.

It is proposed that the 5 Practical Farm Schools now run by the Department of Agriculture be maintained to provide a general training in agriculture, with emphasis on the practical aspects to men and women who desire to practise farming on their own or who wish to seek employment in the public and private sectors at the junior technical level. The present output from the schools is 250 students per year. The need for increasing output of students from schools and for opening additional Practical Farm Schools has to be examined, in the view of the Department, and in relation to availability of job opportunities for persons with this level of training. The minimum educational qualification for admission is the G.C.E.

(O'Level) with passes in specified subjects. The duration of the course is a period of two years. The content of the academic and practical training needs evaluation. In this connection some useful suggestions have been made in the report of the FAO – Ceylon Agricultural Extension Workshop held in September 1969. Qualitative improvement in the content of the education imparted in these schools will entail improvements in the numbers and quality of the teaching staff.

### **The School of Agriculture**

The School of Agriculture at Kundasale admits students with the minimum education of the G.C.E. ('O' Level) with passes in specified subjects for a two-year course leading to a certificate. In the same way that the level of technical competence expected of the village level extension worker is proposed to be upgraded to meet the demands of a village level programme, it is necessary to effect a suitable upgrading of the students passing out from the Agricultural School and to provide them with a sound training in the science and practice of Agriculture and Home Economics. Where the product of the Practical Farm Schools as now proposed is expected to function as a Junior Technician, the product from the Agricultural School should be able to function as a Technician. This objective can be achieved only by taking steps to enhance the level of education and training given to candidates passing out from the School of Agriculture. It is therefore proposed that the minimum educational attainment for admission to the School of Agriculture be raised to the G.C.E. (A Level) with passes in specified subjects, while the duration of the course is maintained at the prevailing period of two years. The content of the academic and practical training will have to be evaluated and in this instance, too, useful suggestions have been made in the FAO report referred to earlier. Here, again a qualitative improvement in the content of the education imparted at this school will entail improvements in the quality and numbers of the teaching staff.

The present output of the School of Agriculture is 150 students per year. Any increase in this number must be determined only after a careful examination of the employment opportunities that will arise in the following years. The Plan emphasises the need to provide a number of scholarships annually to promising Agricultural Instructors employed by the Department of Agriculture to entering the School of Agriculture.

## Rural Youth Programmes

The work of the Department is centred round developing effective and active Young Farmers' Clubs composed of both girls and boys. The main objectives of this programme are to orient young farmers towards scientific agriculture and the use of modern techniques, to train them in the principles of farm management and marketing, in organising and running small enterprises on business lines and in developing a community approach to agricultural development. In its totality the purpose of the programme is to foster leadership from among the youths themselves.

The youth programmes at present cover boys and girls who have left school and are between the ages of 15 to 25 years. The present strength of the movement consists of about 3,000 clubs with a total membership of about 100,000. A survey carried out by the Department in 1968, however, showed that less than half these clubs were functioning efficiently and making an attempt to achieve the above objectives. The current emphasis is to build up and strengthen the movement by improving its internal organisational structure, in making them self-dependent and self-reliant by promoting and developing leadership at the village level on which the continuity and success of any youth movement depends. The approach is not to attempt a simultaneous development of youth clubs all over the Island as was done in the past and which had led to a diffusion and waste of effort but to concentrate on selected areas. The programme will be gradually expanded as the knowledge and skills in organising and managing youth clubs develop. The responsibility for developing youth club activities is vested in the 'range' Agricultural Instructors and Food Production Officers. The District programme is co-ordinated and supervised by the District Agricultural Extension Officer. The Young Farmers' Club programmes are coordinated at Head Office level by a unit consisting of one Agricultural Officer and two Agricultural Instructors. One of the reasons why these programmes have not developed in the way that was anticipated was because the District Agricultural Extension Officer could not find adequate time to devote to this work. This year, five Agricultural Instructors who have already been trained abroad in Youth work are being posted for full-time work in five Districts with Young Farmers' Clubs. In subsequent years if this programme develops well more officers will be posted at District level, with



the ultimate objective of providing each District with one full-time officer on Rural Youth work. The organisation at the National level will also be strengthened as the need arises.

### Assessment

There are several government departments and voluntary organisations which conduct training programmes directly related to the agricultural sector. Some of the more important ones are the Government Departments of Agriculture, Agrarian Services, Co-operative Development, Forestry, Land Commissioner, Irrigation, Rural Development and the River Valleys Development Board, and non-governmental organisations such as the Lanka Mahila Samiti, the Boy Scouts' and Girl Guides' Associations, the Red Cross Society and the Sarvodaya organisation. All these departments, corporations and voluntary organisations conduct a number and variety of training programmes largely concerned with youth and which are directly related to the rural sector in general and to the agricultural sector in particular.

There has, however, been a lack of relatedness between these numerous programmes. Each of these organisations has been functioning in water-tight compartments and been organising the objectives, scope and content of their respective training programmes without any relevance to those of the other organisations. Such a diversity of education and training programmes which contain different sets of objectives, tends to confuse rather than to help the people for whom they are intended. A coordination of these programmes is undoubtedly an essential requisite, if the central purpose of developing the rural, and the agricultural sector in particular, is the common objective of them all. There must also be a regular movement of personnel both in teaching and learning between these various institutions, so that a pooling of resources is made possible. This will enable the pooling of several disciplines and specialities to be integrated into an agreed common programme for agriculture and rural development. This is all the more important as all their training programmes are directed at the peasant family which includes infants, adolescents and youth who are relevant to this study. This appears to be a necessary basic framework for an intensified and effective plan of action.

### A III

### DEPARTMENT OF LABOUR

The Vocational Training Branch of the Department of Labour has intensive training schemes which provide increased opportunities

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for the unemployed to find employment and which at the same time helps industry to obtain the required skilled personnel without much difficulty. There is also provision for unskilled persons already in employment to follow an intensive course to equip them with basic skills. The training imparted at craftsman level provides a basic training in manual and machine skills, an understanding of physical characteristics of the tools and materials the trainee will handle, sensitivity about accuracy and finish, ability to understand drawings and written instructions and subsequent extensive training to achieve high competence in either manual or machine skills.

There are two permanent training centres in Colombo and 105 mobile centres spread throughout the Island. Students for these training programmes are initially selected from those registered at the Employment Exchanges and are chosen on the results of an aptitude test. Those for the sponsored training programme and for the two Vocational Training Centres in Colombo are selected on an all-Island basis. Those following courses in carpentry, masonry and tailoring are selected from the local Exchange closest to the centre.

There are no particular educational qualifications required, apart from about 10 years of schooling, to enter into the department's training programme. The trainees are mostly in the age group 18-30 years. The trainees are each paid a stipend of Rs. 2/- per day which helps them to continue with their training.

The two main centres in Colombo hold double session classes and approximately 400 persons qualify and pass out of the Training Centres every year. The training provided in these two centres are Radio Servicing and Repairs, Electrical Wiring, Welding, Fitting, Sheet Metal Work, Motor Mechanism and Machining. The duration of these courses varies from 6 to 9 months.

There is the Domestic Helpers' Training Institute for Women and recently a hairdressing training centre for women has been started. Apart from these two, the rest of the training carried out at the centre is for young men.

The Administration Report of the Labour Department for 1969-70, which is the latest available, indicates that the total number of persons who have passed out from the training centres, since the inception of the Vocational Training Scheme under the Labour Department is 12,036. Of the number so trained, 6,764 are reported to have found employment. The remaining 5,272 persons reflected as trained unemployed, are presumed to have found self-employment

or employment under contractors without informing the Employment Exchange of this fact. No verification of this has however been possible in the present study.

The following Table gives detailed statistics of trained personnel as at 30.9.1970:

**Statistics of Trained Personnel as at 30.9.1970**

<i>Trade</i>	<i>Number of Centres</i>	<i>Number trained since inception</i>	<i>No. remaining on the Register (Unemployed)</i>	<i>Number under Training</i>
1. Barbers	20	2,589	502	61
2. Masons	29	3,278	1,802	274
3. Carpenters	29	1,908	995	282
4. Electrical Wiring	1	308	252	—
5. Radio Servicing and Repairs	1	156	51	—
6. Electricians	—	27	1	—
7. Tinkers	—	5	—	—
8. Taxidermists	—	35	—	—
9. Garden Labourers	—	44	—	—
10. Conservancy Labourers	—	142	—	—
11. Machinists	1	102	31	—
12. Welders	2	104	66	—
13. Motor Mechanics	2	259	189	—
14. Sheet Metal Workers	1	138	80	—
15. Fitters	—	517	284	—
16. Toddy Tappers	—	900	—	—
17. Tractor Operators and Mechanics	6	904	696	87
18. Draughtsmen and Tracers	—	16	—	—
19. Refresher Courses	—	35	—	—
20. Welders, Sheet Metal Workers and Blacksmiths	1	45	45	—
21. Cooks and Waiters	—	21	—	—
22. Machine Minders	—	1	—	—
23. Motor and Marine Mechanics	—	60	60	—
24. Tailors	10	—	—	140
25. Domestic Helpers	1	442	64	21
26. Mechanical Trades	9	—	—	74
	<u>106</u>	<u>12,036</u>	<u>5,272</u>	<u>939</u>

A Scheme was inaugurated to train unemployed persons, on a sponsored basis, in collaboration with the Public and Private Sectors, in Mechanical trades. The number of persons being trained under this scheme in the following establishments was 74:

1. The Ceylon Government Railway.....	23	trainees
2. Irrigation Department .....	8	„
3. Ceylon State Engineering Corporation....	11	„
4. State Hardware Corporation .....	8	„
5. Ceylon Electricity Board.....	5	„
6. Clarence Amerasinghe & Co. Ltd. ....	10	„
7. Richard Pieris & Co. Ltd. ....	3	„
8. Brown & Co. Ltd. ....	3	„
9. Walker Sons & Co., Ltd. ....	3	„

The training of tailors is fairly recent. There are 10 such Tailor Training Centres with provision to train a maximum of 15 trainees in each centre. The method previously employed in training toddy tappers is being changed. They will now be given a practical on-the-job training under the direct supervision of an experienced tapper. The reorganisation and expansion of the two centres in Colombo are in the planning, the objectives being to increase the number, efficiency and output of trainees. Funds for the Vocational Training Centres are provided by the Government and through foreign aid.

#### A IV. THE DEPARTMENT OF CO-OPERATIVE DEVELOPMENT

This is a government department which is responsible for the registration of Co-operative Societies and for the promotion and development of the Co-operative Movement in Sri Lanka. The department has its own staff for the achievement of these objectives and training and education programmes have been organised by the department, both for its own staff as well as the staff of Co-operative Societies, at all levels, in order to promote and develop Co-operation in the country. In so far as the Co-operative Movement was first sponsored by the government in 1911\* and vastly expanded in the early 1940's during World War II, it is not a movement that originated at the grass roots level as a people's movement as did happen in the developed countries in the West as far back as 75 to 100 years ago.

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\* *Co-operative Credit Societies' Ordinance, No. 7 of 1911 and Co-operative Societies' Ordinance, No. 34 of 1921*

It has therefore become necessary to provide training to co-operators at all levels in order to educate them in the principles of co-operation and in the role and functions of the officials at every level of a Co-operative Society. This requirement becomes increasingly important, as the government policy, among others, is to develop the country through the principles of co-operation.

Although the training programmes described below are of an in-service character, they are nevertheless included in this study as Co-operation is essentially a people's movement and the people need to have the necessary knowledge and know-how for the efficient functioning of co-operatives in the country. The department maintains four training institutes in Colombo, on the West coast; Jaffna in the North; Galle in the South and Polgolla in the Central Province, at which the Advanced Level Courses are conducted. There are also 24 other training centres at which the Junior and Ordinary Level Courses are conducted. Courses are conducted in these institutions, throughout the year, for officials of the Co-operative Department, officials of other government departments, particularly to field staff who have primary contact with people in the course of their normal duties, and for officials of the various types of Co-operative Societies from the level of management down to the salesman. Correspondence courses are also conducted for co-operators who are unable to attend the above residential courses. Diplomas and certificates are awarded on the successful completion of each course.

Particulars of the training provided in 1967/68 are given in Table I.

TABLE I

<i>Category of Trainee</i>	<i>Duration of Training</i>	<i>No. of Courses during year</i>	<i>Total No. trained during year</i>	<i>Remarks</i>
Co-operative Dept. Grade III Inspectors (recruits)	5 months	1	98	First Exam Certificate
Grade III Inspectors	5 months	2	94	Second Exam Certificate
Junior Co-op Employees	2 months	48	395	Junior Certificate
Ordinary Level	4 months	48	234	Ordinary Level Certificate
Higher Level	6 months	2	N.A.	Higher Level Certificate
Co-op Employees	Week-end	N.A.	179	Itinerant classes

## Seminars

1.	On Co-operative Management	..	..	1 week
2.	„ Book-keeping	..	..	4 days
3.	„ Training of Farmers	..	..	1 week
4.	Refresher Course for O.I.CC of Education Centres	..	..	4 days
5.	Training of Class Leaders	..	..	1 week

Source: Administration Report of the Co-operative Movement in Ceylon, 1967/68 (Government Press).

Particulars of the training schedule planned under the National Five-Year Development Plan (1972-76) are shown in Table II.

TABLE II

Year	Category of Trainee	Duration of Training	No. of Courses each year	No. of participants per course per centre	Total No. trained during year	Awards
1972	Advanced Level	12 months	3	40	120	Diploma
	Ordinary Level	10 months	2 x 24	30	1,440	Certificate (Ordinary Level)
	Junior Level	6 months	2 x 24	30	1,440	Certificate (Junior Level)
1973	Advanced Level	12 months	4	40	160	
	Ordinary Level	10 months	2 x 24	30	1,440	
	Junior Level	6 months	2 x 24	30	1,440	
1974	Same	Same	Same	Same	Same	
1975	as for 1972	as for 1972	as for 1972	as for 1972	as for 1972	
1976						

A summary of the training schedule for officials of the Co-operative Department for the period 1972/1976 is at Table III.

TABLE III

Year	Co-op Inspectors' 1st Exam.	Co-op Inspectors' 2nd Exam.	Co-op Inspectors' Revision Course	Graduate Courses	Courses for other departmental officers*
	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.
1972	105	—	200	175	—
1973	70	70	350	—	80
1974	70	70	350	—	80
1975	70	70	350	—	80
1976	70	70	350	—	80

\* These are officials of the departments of Fisheries, Agrarian Services, Rural Development, Land Commissioner, and Agriculture.

### Extension Work

Training classes were organised in all the Divisions in the Island to give members of Co-operative Societies a correct understanding of the principles of Co-operatives. For this purpose 104 co-operators from the various Divisions, nominated by the District Co-operative Unions were given a training at the School of Co-operation. Each of these co-operators organised at least three study groups, each consisting of about 30 members in each Division. The duration of each study circle was 4 months and the courses included 10 lessons on Co-operative Law, 2 on present economic problems and 3 on Organisation and Management of Co-operatives. The total number of co-operative employees involved in the study groups during the year is estimated at over 9000.

350 group discussions were also held during the year for committee members of Multi-purpose Co-operative Societies on co-operative principles, by-laws and management.

### General Observations

The Co-operative Movement had its beginnings in Sri Lanka over 60 years ago. It has been functioning as an agent of the government for the distribution and marketing of goods but has not yet acquired the basic principles and the spirit of the Movement. It has not yet become a truly peoples' movement.

The following extracts from the Administration Report of the Co-operative Movement in Ceylon for the year 1967/68 are relevant:

“Government has also on several occasions and in the Throne Speech declared its avowed support for the Co-operative Movement and the fact that there is a very large Government Department to develop the movement in this country shows the great emphasis the Government has placed on the Co-operatives as a means of distribution of consumer goods, as an instrument of agricultural and industrial production and also as a link between the various government agencies and farmers and the people.”

“*Weaknesses in the Movement:* At the same time the Co-operative Movement in spite of 57 years of development has not yet achieved the stage when it could manage its own affairs and stand on its own feet. It is necessary to remember that Co-operative Societies are democratic bodies with

their affairs managed by Committees elected by their members who enjoy equal rights of voting (one member one vote); and "service" to its members is the aim, not the making of profits. Therefore Co-operatives possess a special character as distinct from private enterprises. At present the Movement needs consolidation and societies which are weak should be speedily revitalised and Co-operative organisations should be oriented to serve specially the small farmer and the weaker sections of the community with efficiency and honesty. Consumer Co-operatives should give greater emphasis to "service" and indifference and inefficiency should not exist. There should be more active participation in the Movement if it is to become independent and play a more significant role in the economic development of the country. The structural weakness of the Movement due to a large number of very small societies has to be immediately rectified."

"For the proper development of any co-operative movement, co-operative education is a must and if the co-operative movement is to become a peoples' movement and be able to manage its own affairs, be free of dependence on Government and be dynamic, energetic and efficient, it must realise that extensive co-operative education is essential for the achievement of such a goal. Although the movement can boast of a long history, large numbers of societies, a big membership and a huge turnover it still depends heavily on Government assistance. Dedicated and enlightened leadership and membership is yet inadequate and management skills wanting in many organisations. Therefore, the need for an extensive programme of co-operative education is all the greater."

The three extracts briefly summarise the state of the Movement in Sri Lanka today.

Steps have been taken to reorganise the Movement in the light of the recommendations of a Royal Commission appointed in 1968.

#### **A V. THE DEPARTMENT OF SMALL INDUSTRIES**

Since Sri Lanka gained political independence in 1948, this department of government has been responsible for the promotion and development of cottage industries, rural industries and small



industries. The promotion and development of these industries, invariably involved young persons of both sexes. While some of the industries developed were traditional and involved some forms of modernisation, others were new industries which were started in order to provide new avenues of rural employment to youth and to exploit the available raw materials in the village for the production of consumer goods which could have a ready market. No fees are charged for any of the training programmes described below.

### **Handloom Weaving**

This is the industry which absorbed the largest number of young men and women, within this department's programmes. Today approximately 250,000 persons are gainfully employed in handloom weaving and its allied activities, such as spinning, bobbin and pern winding, warping, beaming, dyeing and bleaching of yarn and weaving. This industry is presently organised in Co-operative Production Societies. Annually at the present time, about 10,000 out-of-school youth of both sexes are enrolled in these societies for training, in order to replace vacancies among the workers, due to drop-outs, deaths, etc. About 90 per cent of the employees as well as the trainees are female while the remaining 10 per cent are males. There are about 100,000 handlooms registered in the country today.

The educational level ranges from Grade 6 to the G.C.E.(O) depending on the availability of suitable young persons in the rural areas. This industry is almost entirely confined to the rural areas of Sri Lanka.

The training is of 6 months duration and is on-the-job. In the 1950's and early 1960's when this industry was vastly expanded an allowance of -/75 cents per day per trainee was paid by the government as an incentive for the unemployed rural youth to participate. As sufficient numbers have already joined the scheme, this incentive allowance has been dispensed with, and each on-the-job trainee is today paid on a piece-rate basis, according to his or her output. Training is given on all aspects of the industry.

An efficient weaver, working 8 hours per day could earn an income of about Rs. 175-200 per month. However, the average income of a weaver today is around Rs. 60 per month. This is due to several constraints. Among these are the foreign exchange

problems confronting the country – the restriction of the imports of yarn which are in a large measure influenced by the barter agreements which require Sri Lanka to import 40 million yards of woven textiles per year.

About 40 per cent of the workers operate on looms belonging to Co-operative Textile Weavers' Societies; the remaining 60 per cent are employed in private workshops.

Yarn is issued to these Societies and workshops on a quota basis – a private workshop being given about 50 per cent more than a Co-operative Society. This extra 50 per cent of yarn allocation to private workshops is reported to be due to the fact that the performance is better in the private workshops than in the co-operatives. The average income of a weaver in the private workshops is therefore about Rs. 90 per month which is 50 per cent higher than in a Co-operative Society.

In passing it may be mentioned that Sri Lanka presently produces only about 5–7 per cent of the raw cotton required by the textile mills, decentralised power looms and the hand-loom industry, to meet the country's demand for textiles. A huge potential exists for the involvement of youth in cotton cultivation for the production of a vastly increased output of raw cotton, to meet most of the country's requirements. It may be incidentally mentioned that there are suitable climatic zones and soil conditions which are ideal for at least the short staple cotton to be cultivated.\*

### **Power Looms**

In 1964, the department organised power loom workshops in rural areas (where electricity was available) with 25 looms per workshop. Youths in the age group 15–25 were recruited for these. They too, were given an on-the-job training for 6 months. These workshops fell into 3 categories: those run as government workshops and those run as Co-operative Societies and private workshops.

Table I gives particulars of these.

Based on the Island's requirements of textiles and the constraints referred to earlier, no further expansion and development is envisaged up to 1977.

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\*Source: Department of Small Industries: Government of Sri Lanka,

**TABLE I**  
**Particulars relating to the Decentralised Powerloom Workshop**

	<i>Government</i>	<i>Cooperative</i>	<i>Private</i>
No. of powerlooms (target) (to be reached in 1973) ..	3002	892	309
No. of powerlooms installed and working ..	2186	796	309
No. of workshops (target) ..	69	14	6
No. of workshops functioning ..	50	9	6
<b>No. in employment:</b>			
Operators ..	1700	400	150
per shift			
Fitters ..	1500	28	15
per shift			
Officers in charge ..	70	14	6
<b>No. in Training:</b>			
Operators ..	—	—	—
Fitters ..	24	—	—
Officers in charge ..	24	—	—
Annual Production in 1971/72 (yards)	150 million	40 million	1.0 m.

**Source:** Department of Small Industries: Government of Sri Lanka.

### Other Cottage and Rural Industries

A wide range of cottage and rural industrial workshops, centres and schools have also been organised under the auspices of this department, which also cater to the young men and women in rural areas, in the age group 15–25 years.

It should be noted that in the case of Government or Assisted workshops and centres, the youth who have completed their training continue to work at these units as trained persons, while there are raw recruits who continue to be enrolled every year for training.

The relevant particulars relating to these are given in Table II.

### Assessment

The department's programme has by and large been one of social service over the greater part of its existence. This has been largely due to the political system within which Sri Lanka has been functioning since political independence was granted in 1948.

The economic aspects of these programmes have not had sufficient emphasis. Most of them have developed merely to provide a small subsidiary income to the rural family even if the individual works full time.

There has also been no effective co-ordination between the handloom textile industry on the one hand and the decentralised powerlooms and textile mills on the other.

TABLE II\*

	Operated as:			No. on Roll	No. receiving training in 1971	Duration of Training	Educational qualifications	No. completing training each year
	Govt. Centre	Co-op Society	Assisted Centre					
<b>WORKSHOPS &amp; CENTRES</b>				250,000	10,000	6 months	Gr. 6 & over	10,000**
Handloom Weaving	69	14	6	9,083†	48	6	Gr. 8 & over	48
Powerloom Weaving	50	5	6	236	123	6		123
Target	25			306	147	6		147
At present	17			450	117	6		117
Net Weaving	48			105	63	6		63
Pulp & Rag Toys	10			320	—	6		—
Reed Products	22			2,500	—	6		—
Rattan Products	107					6		
Clay Products						6		
Coir Products						6		
<b>SCHOOLS</b>								
Carpentry	52		39	340	495	3 years	Gr. 8 & over	1.1
Pillow Lace			12	147	147	2	-do-	
Wood Carving			6	68	68	2	-do-	
Palmyrah Leaf Industries			1	10	10	2	-do-	
Hemp Industries			1	10	10	2	-do-	
Traditional Clay Pottery			1	10	10	2	-do-	
Date Palm Leaf Products			1	10	10	2	-do-	
Masks			2	20	20	2	-do-	
Ivory Products			1	3	3	2	-do-	
Silver Products			3	30	30	2	-do-	
Brass Products			3	30	30	2	-do-	
Sesath (Ritual items) Products			1	10	10	2	-do-	
Lacquer Products			3	30	30	2	-do-	
Traditional Textile			1	10	10	2	-do-	
Leather Products			1	10	10	2	-do-	
Rattan			1	10	10	2	-do-	

\*Source: Annual Returns of the respective Centres for 1971, Department of Small Industries.

\*\* Approximate † Includes 3,950 operators, 5,043 fitters and 90 officers-in-charge. The Government Centres operate a double shift.

The constraints arising from barter trade agreements have further restricted the expansion of this industry. If these constraints were not present, this industry could have been further expanded, thereby yielding more opportunities for rural youth for training and gainful employment.

In other cottage and rural craft industries too, very little attention has hitherto been paid to the development of their infrastructure. In addition to an efficient training programme for imparting craft skills, well-organised servicing agencies for the provision of raw materials, improved techniques and tools of production, marketing research findings on consumer preferences – both local and foreign – and appropriate collection and marketing facilities, are some of the aspects which must be given far more consideration, if these industries are to develop and ensure a reasonably attractive income for the youth, thereby generating the incentive for more youth to participate in these rural industries.

These considerations are of major importance in view of the vital role assigned to the small scale industry sector in the Five Year Plan of the government. The Plan proposes to double the output of this sector by 1976 with particular emphasis placed on handloom textiles, wood products, light engineering, rubber products and mining and quarrying. The Plan provides for an increase in handloom textiles from 40 million Yards in 1970 to 90 million yards in 1976 and powerloom production from 15 million to 50 million yards. This alone is designed to generate additional employment opportunities for 40,000 persons during the Plan period.

## **A VI. NATIONAL APPRENTICESHIP BOARD**

The National Apprenticeship Act of 1971 provides for the establishment of the National Apprenticeship Board and an Apprenticeship Fund to make provision for all matters connected with its functioning.

The general objects of the Board as stated in the National Apprenticeship Act, No. 49 of 1971 are –

- (a) to formulate, implement and supervise a scheme of training to cover each category of apprentices;
- (b) to establish apprenticeship standards in relation to such training, to determine the periods of training for each

category of apprentices and the numbers, nature and content, or the type and level of training to be undergone by each such category;

- (c) to determine the trade tests to be undergone by each category of apprentices and their proficiency, and to issue certificates to those who qualify;
- (d) to determine, in consultation with the Minister, the amount of allowances payable to each category of apprentices;
- (e) to determine the hours and conditions of work, leave, entitlements, holidays and other conditions to be observed by each category of apprentices; and
- (f) to do all such other acts or things as are necessary for, or incidental to, the attainment of the objects hereinbefore mentioned.

The National Apprenticeship scheme was started in June 1971 in collaboration with the public and private sectors. At its beginning the number of trainees apprenticed to the various firms totalled 800. Since there was an abundance of G.C.E. (Ordinary Level) applicants of 18 years and over, the qualification for selection was decided to be at that level.

At present there are about 50 private firms in which the trainees are receiving apprenticeship, other than those in the Public Sector Corporations and other institutions. A total of 600 young men are at present receiving training under this scheme. All apprentices are paid an allowance which amounts to about Rs. 100 a month by the Board.

Apart from the course of apprenticeship training, the Board also has under its sponsorship the one-year practical training programme conducted by the Katubedda Technical College and the Hardy Institute at Amparai. The course makes provision for the training of 400 – 500 students per year at these two institutions. These apprentices receive an allowance of Rs. 5.35 per day.

The 16 defined trades at the craft level to which trainees are apprenticed are:

1. Fitter (General)
2. Fitter (Structural)
3. Fitter (Weaver)
4. Fitter (Spinning)
5. Mason

6. Carpenter
7. Weaver
8. Blacksmith
9. Automobile Mechanic
10. Automobile Electrician
11. Machinist
12. Tinker
13. Electrician – Maintenance
14. Welder
15. Moulder
16. Plumber

## A VII. REGIONAL DEVELOPMENT DIVISION MINISTRY OF PLANNING AND EMPLOYMENT

This division was established in early 1971 to accelerate the pace of social and economic development through the active involvement and participation of the people at all levels from the village to the division, district and national level. The planning and implementation of numerous projects under this programme are undertaken through Divisional Development Councils and District Development Committees. The membership of the Divisional Development Councils comprises of representatives of the village based organisations with defined social and economic development functions. These are the Chairmen of Co-operative Societies, Cultivation Committees, Village Councils (Local Government Authority), Presidents of Rural Development Societies of men and women, representatives of Peoples' Committees and three youths to represent the youth of the division. There are also representatives (one each) from the following government departments: Agriculture, Agrarian Services, Small Industries, Territorial Engineering Service, Co-operative Department, Education, Health, and Rural Development. The Member of Parliament representing the electorate within which the Council falls is also a member.

The Council will have a membership of around 25–30 persons with the representation of the people exceeding that of Government officials. Theoretically, this ensures that the will of the people will prevail in any issue of the Council in which there is a difference of opinion between the people and the government officials. The Council is serviced by a Planning Assistant who is an appointee of the Ministry of Planning.

### **Functions of the Council**

The Council meets monthly. It is a consultative body. The main functions are:

- (i) the preparation of a co-ordinated development programme for its area of operation, which it recommends to government;
- (ii) the co-ordination of popular effort and the services of government for the implementation of the programme as approved by government;
- (iii) a regular review of implementation and performance;
- (iv) recommendations on corrective action to be taken where shortfalls have occurred.

### **The District Development Committee**

The Divisional Development Councils' programmes are forwarded to the District Development Committee where they are evaluated. For this purpose, this Committee is assisted by a Planning Unit at the District level, composed of a Deputy District Development Commissioner, an Assistant Development Commissioner and two Planning Assistants, all of whom are appointees of the Ministry of Planning.

The youth are provided an opportunity to participate actively in the planning and implementation of projects at the grass roots level under this programme.

The final approval of projects, based on their feasibility and appropriateness in terms of national development is the responsibility of the respective ministries of government. The apportionment of funds and the evaluation of progress rests with the Ministry of Planning and Employment. The Development Councils and Committees were established in February/March 1971 and implementation of projects commenced in July 1971.

While mainly adults with a few youth function in these Committees and Councils, it is the youth who are largely involved in the actual implementation and operational aspects of each project.

The implementation and operation of a project has an educational and training content for adolescents and youth in so far as the youth need to acquire and develop a set of values, attitudes, habits, customs and sentiments as well as a set of skills



which are basically different from those which they have already acquired. For instance, over 60 per cent of the unemployed educated youth (G.C.E. (O) Level), have shown a preference for clerical or teaching employment.\* These are two sectors in which employment is almost saturated. Consequently, the bulk of these youths must engage in economic activities which are confined to the spheres of agriculture, animal husbandry, wage labour, rural and cottage industry etc. The education and training which are necessary to change the aspirations of young people therefore become important functions of this programme.

There are over 600 Divisional Development Councils established throughout the Island. On the basis of each District Development Council providing projects which will ensure an average sustained employment to at least 50 persons, the programme is estimated to generate employment for over 30,000 persons during the five-year period 1971/72-1975/76.

The vast majority of persons actively participating in these projects are young people in the age group 18-35 years. It ranges from around 75 per cent in such industries as quarrying, manufacture of bricks and agricultural implements to 90 per cent in boatyard and fishing industries. The balance are older persons who are skilled craftsmen through whom the education and on-the-job training are imparted to the youth. Furthermore, a fair proportion of female youth are also involved in these programmes. For instance, in garment manufacture almost 100 per cent are females; in most cottage craft industries about 80 per cent; in sand mining about 50 per cent and in some agricultural projects about 50-60 per cent are females.

The Progress Report up to 25th August 1972 of the Board, details of which are shown in Tables I and II below, shows that the programme is slightly ahead of schedule, at least in terms of employment generation.

TABLE I

Total number of Projects			
(a) Funded	..	..	646
(b) Functioning	..	..	275
Funds Allocated	..	..	Rs. 9,600,407.00
Amount spent to date	..	..	Rs. 2,909,798.48
Employment			
(a) Target	..	..	11,779
(b) Actual	..	..	5,611

\* *Youth Employment in Ceylon* - R. K. Srivastava and S. Selvaratnam, *Marga*, Vol. I - 4 - 1972 - Hansa Publishers Ltd., Colombo.

**TABLE II**  
**SUMMARY OF PROJECTS FORMULATED THROUGH DIVISIONAL DEVELOPMENT COUNCILS AS AT 25TH AUGUST 1972\***  
**Breakdown of Projects by Main Activity**

Activity	No. of Projects		Funds		Amount spent		Employment	
	Funded	Functioning	Allocated		to date	Target	Actual	
			Rs.	Cts.	Rs.	Cts.		
<b>A. AGRICULTURE &amp; ANIMAL HUSBANDRY</b>								
Co-operative agricultural farms	130	89	5,123,835.50		1,609,781.94		3,702	2,280
Poultry Farming	47	13	535,592.00		114,026.66		579	170
Dairy farming	25	11	293,932.00		98,969.75		279	150
Other mixed farming	44	—	1,052,097.00		215,914.88		1,260	402
Bee-keeping	6	3	24,230.00		8,120.00		60	34
Chillies, onions and other small crops	13	11	260,550.00		125,647.34		478	207
Passion fruit, pineapple and other fruit	12	5	297,655.00		55,568.75		288	72
Fisheries Industry	5	2	64,700.00		33,405.25		—	21
<b>B. INDUSTRY</b>								
Handloom and garments manufacture	25	7	91,095.00		22,510.21		311	77
Lacemaking	9	4	12,896.00		5,011.35		153	80
Rubber products	4	—	13,000.00		—		62	—
Poultry products	6	2	32,117.00		8,218.85		227	66
Treacle and sugar manufacture	24	12	122,187.00		69,005.82		271	157
Lime quarrying and processing	10	2	39,893.00		2,423.95		107	3
Metal quarrying	62	27	183,641.00		38,959.68		1,025	554
Sand mining	6	—	8,758.00		—		53	27
Brick-making	107	42	485,350.00		115,194.28		1,178	595
Paper bags, envelopes, slates and other small industries	7	4	12,321.00		5,373.45		82	57
Roads, irrigation work, building etc.	7	5	234,750.00		104,669.20		179	38
Heavy industry - (Boatmaking, cement, concrete, plywood, paper and ceramic manufacturing)	18	10	442,299.00		238,932.08		672	224
Coir products, ekel brooms & other coconut products	26	6	94,939.00		—		—	—
Carpentry - cane bamboo etc.	46	18	151,860.00		32,555.94		705	346
Others	7	2	22,710.00		5,509.10		108	51
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>646</b>	<b>275</b>	<b>9,600,407.00</b>		<b>2,909,798.48</b>		<b>11,779</b>	<b>5,611</b>

\*Source - Progress Report up to 25th August 1972 - Regional Development Division, Ministry of Planning and Employment (mimeographed)

## Finance

Out of a total of Rs. 70 million earmarked for this programme, Rs. 35 million has been voted by government for the 1971/72 programme. Of this amount Rs. 9.6 million has been allocated for the projects approved, of which Rs. 2.9 million has already been spent.

On the projects approved, it has been estimated that 11,779 will find sustained employment and 5,611 have already secured employment on those projects that have been implemented.

Financial assistance in the form of grants, is given by government for each project, the benefits from which accrue to the youth engaged in the project. This grant is also supplemented with a loan from the People's Bank. For instance, for the development of poultry industry, a grant of Rs. 5 per bird is provided under this programme. A loan of Rs. 8 per bird is also given by the People's Bank to enable the youth to rear the birds up to point of lay. This loan is repayable in 12 monthly instalments with interest, commencing 6 months after the loan is granted. All projects under this programme are organised on the principles of the Co-operative Movement in Sri Lanka.

## General Observations

It is yet premature to assess the success or failure of this programme. The Regional Development Division of the Ministry of Planning maintains that most of the agricultural projects have already proved to be viable and that the youth are happy and have settled down to their new pattern of economic activity.

There are nevertheless other aspects we have to be mindful of. While most of these projects, in the short term, are likely to prove successful, in so far as employment is generated and the output is readily marketed at a reasonable price, the consequences of excess production in at least some of the commodities in the long term, might result in the failure of these projects and a fair number of the youth being again thrown out of employment.

For instance, poultry farming has been expanded vastly under this programme. There is already self-sufficiency in egg production in Sri Lanka both in the context of existing income levels and consumer demand. A surplus of eggs in the market is likely to depress egg prices to a level which is uneconomic. This can result in the small farmer winding up his business and losing his only source of income,

These problems and hazards exist, as this programme has been launched and projects approved, without adequate consideration being paid to the requirements of manpower in the years ahead, in relation to the various fields of economic activity. On the other hand, the manpower requirements cannot be easily estimated mainly due to the lack of adequate basic data in the country. If such assessments had to be made before this programme was launched, it would have resulted in undue delay in implementing this programme, during which period the problems in relation to youth and productivity would have been further aggravated and intensified. Against this background the policy adopted in this programme appears to be feasible and applicable to most developing countries in the region.

There is, however, at least one facet of this programme which needs to be strengthened. The extension services which are of paramount importance for the success of this programme are grossly inadequate. The numerical numbers involved in extension work may be fairly adequate, but in terms of the quality of their work, there are vital gaps which need to be filled. The extension staff do have the required technical knowledge in their respective fields of specialisation, be it agriculture, animal husbandry, cottage and small industry etc. But almost all of them lack even a basic knowledge and training in human relations and in working with young people. Nor do they have a training or even an awareness of the need to develop cohesive social organisations, especially among youth who are brought together for common participation in a project or are being settled in the various types of settlement schemes.

It should be noted that young people under this programme are being motivated to pursue new forms and types of economic activity, the know-how which they are acquiring for the first time. Sustained extension services at a high level of efficiency need to be maintained over a fairly long period of time, if the youth are to acquire the expertise in all aspects of the activity in which they are engaged and the various projects are to develop satisfactorily.

In the absence of an efficient extension service, projects which in every respect appear feasible are likely to end up in failure. In such an event, a youth will lose his source of income and become even more frustrated than before and government funds would have been wasted. Early steps need to be taken to

make good the above deficiencies in order to avoid a widespread failure of this programme.

## **A VIII. THE SRI LANKA HOTEL SCHOOL & SCHOOL OF TRAINING**

This institution which functions under the Sri Lanka Tourist Board was inaugurated in 1967. It started as a School for Hotel & Catering Operations and has since expanded its services to include craft courses in cooking, restaurant, bar service, hotel reception and house-keeping as well as refresher courses for hotel employees. Relevant information pertaining to these courses is given below:

### **The 3-Year Diploma Course in Hotel and Catering Operations**

This is a full-time residential course. An applicant should have passed in 6 subjects at the G.C.E. (O) Level obtained at not more than two sittings. Mathematics, Science and English are considered as preferential subjects. Apart from the subjects taught in the school, an in-service training period of 6 weeks in selected hotels in the Island forms part of this course. It is confined to males between 18-21 years of age.

Tuition is free, but a registration fee of Rs. 25/- and a hostel fee of Rs. 100/- per month is charged. After the successful completion of the course, a Diploma is awarded.

The intake ranges from 20-25 per year and the present enrolment is 70.

Up to September 1971 a total of 63 students have passed out. Of these, 17 are in European countries on scholarship for further training. The remaining 46 have already secured suitable employment in the several hotels and restaurants recently established to meet the demands of tourism.

### **Six-Month Craft Course in Cookery**

This is a full-time non-residential course.

An applicant should have reached the J.S.C. level (Grade 8) and should be between 18-25 years. Both sexes are eligible. A registration fee of Rs. 10/- and a tuition fee of Rs. 35/- per month are charged. Enrolment per course is 20. Two courses are conducted each year. After successful completion of the course a Certificate is awarded.

### **Six-Month Craft Course in Restaurant & Bar Service**

This too is a full-time, non-residential course. Educational and age qualifications and fees are as for the Craft Course in Cookery. Enrolment per course is 20. Two Courses are conducted each year.

### **Refresher Courses for Hotel Employees and other Shorter Courses**

These courses are designed to upgrade the quality of those now in employment in hotels and restaurants. There is no age limit. The duration of the training is 3 weeks.

## **A IX. DIYAGALA BOYS' TOWN, TEWATTE, RAGAMA**

This institution has been set up under the Sri Lanka Technical Institute Project by the Brothers of Christian Schools (Ceylon) Trust. "It has been developed since 1959 and is a vocational training institute in industries, agriculture and farming for the manufacture of carpentry goods, wooden structures for buildings, for production of screws, nails, treatment of metal, chromium and the manufacture of goods out of metal, etc., and also electricity and electric installations." The first year of enrolment was 1963/64 when 24 boys were admitted, some of whom were resident at the Boys Town while the others travelled from their homes. There has been rapid development since then both in terms of enrolments as well as in the variety and quality of training programmes provided.

**The Objectives** of Diyagala Boys' Town are:

1. To provide proper training in agriculture and farming through the establishment of a modern farm, an agricultural division and a school of agriculture.
2. To train apprentices in a variety of skills, according to individual aptitudes through well-equipped workshops.
3. To provide all facilities on the site for trades, sport, music, drama, residence etc.
4. To develop an Extension Programme for the benefit of outsiders (especially young agriculturists and farmers) utilising the facilities available at Boys' Town.

The Motto of Boys' Town is "Deeds not Words".

Since the inception in 1963 till 1971 a total of over 600 boys have passed out of Boys' Town, all of whom are in gainful employment today as mechanics, welders, fitters, drivers, electricians, farmers etc., both in the public and private sector institutions.

About 100 of them are in self-employment, either running their own garages or workshops or their own farms. Sixteen of them have grouped together in units of 5, 7 and 4 and have started co-operative ventures, such as owning a tractor which is hired out to farmers. The Director makes the following observation in a recent report (unpublished) "... the lads trained at Boys Town are so heavily booked that even the friendliest firms find it difficult to get their requirements of skilled workmen and farmers, except if their bookings have been done much earlier".

### **Admission etc.**

Boys' Town had a total enrolment of 280 boys in 1971, all of whom are in residence. No fees are charged, although a few boys are sponsored by individuals or societies, but each boy earns his board and lodging by the work he does in Boys' Town. The annual intake is 75 boys and the duration of the training is 4 years. The number passing out each year is about 60. The drop-out is about 10-15 boys per year – specially during the first year of enrolment. Even these drop-outs have had more than 3 months' training in one or more skills.

Admissions are restricted to the age group 16-20 years. A minimum educational qualification is not insisted on as opportunities are provided even for an illiterate boy to acquire useful skills which will help him to gain employment or earn a living. Broadly speaking the boys have had an education ranging from Grade 6 to Grade 10 (G.C.E. "O"). Almost all the boys are from the working and peasant classes with very low family income or no income at all. In a report on the Development of Diyagala Boys' Town (unpublished) the following observation has been made by the Director: "Boys' Town" is truly a significant show of what is needed mostly to face successfully the youth problem of the day. On that account there is a great attraction to get into Boys' Town. Hundreds have to be disappointed daily." ".....It is a heart-rending business," says the Director, "to have to say, 'no' to so many deserving cases."

### **Fields of Training**

The enrolment in 1971 stood at 280 and several fields of training were provided under three sectors – agriculture, technology and trades. Under agriculture, courses are provided in general estate work, covering coconut, rubber and rice cultivation; mixed farming; and animal husbandry which includes poultry, piggery, dairy, sheep, goats and rabbitry.

Under technology, in addition to the basic training, courses are provided in machine shop work, welding, smithy, carpentry, electricity, electronics, foundry, metal work, motor mechanism, tinkering, metal sheeting, plumbing, garage work in general, and maintenance of pumps and motors.

Under trades, courses are provided in masonry, brick-laying, cooking, bakery, tailoring, hair dressing, gardening, driving, tractor operation, vegetable farming, meat processing, fisheries, planting, music and art.

During the first two years an all-round basic training is imparted. This includes both bench work (theory and practice) and basic agriculture (theory and practice).

During the next two years, there is specialisation in one branch of technology or agriculture. It is also compulsory for every boy to continue to do farm work during these 2 years. A boy can learn a trade also, while undergoing his major training in agriculture or technology. Private firms engage some of these boys (after the basic 2 years' course) as 3rd or 4th year apprentices. These boys continue to remain in the register of Boys' Town and return to it after each day's work as to their home, unless they work too far away, in which case they come back once or twice a month.

### Hours of Work

Lectures, instruction and practical work according to each boy's aptitudes, education and preferences are conducted between the hours of 9 a.m. – 12.30 p.m. and 1.30 p.m. to 3.30 p.m. daily. In addition, the boys are also required to engage in farm work, bakery, playground activity, road and building maintenance etc. during the hours of 6 a.m. – 8 a.m. and 3.30 p.m. – 4.30 p.m. It should be noted that the above pattern of training is designed not only to help a boy to acquire a skill for gainful employment but also to give him self-reliance and confidence to undertake a variety of tasks around his home which will greatly assist him to enjoy a decent standard of living and to be civic conscious, disciplined and a useful member of society.

### Certificates

On the successful completion of the basic training during the first 2 years, a certificate is awarded. On the successful completion of the training in the 3rd and 4th years, a final certificate is



awarded. Every year there have been capable and talented boys who have qualified and received certificates in 3 or 4 branches of specialisation (e.g. certificates in welding, carpentry, bakery, poultry and so on).

### Organisation

Diyagala Boys' Town functions on a democratic basis with responsibility and leadership vested in the boys themselves. The boys are divided into two Houses and each House elects a House Master (who is usually a young staff member) and a House Captain (who is usually one of the senior boys). They also elect a House Secretary from among the boys whose main function is to keep the House Accounts. There are other House Officers also elected, such as the Captains for Sports, Debating Society, Points System and so on.

Each House meets every Saturday in a Plenary Session to provide opportunities to the members to express their views on any activities they deem fit to comment on. This is followed on the next day by a meeting of the House officials to select those topics commented on at the Plenary Session, for submission to the Administrative Body.

Each House is given the full responsibility to run Boys' Town every other week. For this purpose, the House has to make available an Officer-in-charge, an Assistant Officer-in-charge, Duty Officers, Safety Officers for supervision, a Gate-keeper, the "Police", a night supervisor and an officer for each section of activity on the premises. During the week their House Flag is hoisted on the premises. Every evening this groups prepares a "Report for the Day". If all activities have been functioning smoothly during the day no action is taken on that report. If, however, anything of a serious nature has occurred, the report is forwarded to the Director of the Institute who decides whether it should be referred to the Tribunal.

The Tribunal is composed of a Chief Justice (a young teacher), a jury of five (a staff member and 2 boys elected from each House) together with a Prosecutor and a Defence Lawyer. The Defence lawyer is from the "offenders" House and the Prosecutor from the other House. The Tribunal may hear the case in public or in camera, depending on the nature and gravity of the offence. The findings, together with the recommendations of the Tribunal, are forwarded to the Director for approval. The Director may approve

the recommendation or vary it, as he deems fit. For instance, if the Tribunal has found an "offender" guilty and recommended that his normal vacation be reduced by two days, the Director may reduce it to  $1\frac{1}{2}$  days. Or if the recommendation is for 3 cuts with the rattan on the buttocks, he may reduce it to 2 cuts and so on. In the recent past, it has been the experience that there have been very few or no offences. Several have been settled amicably with the "offender" admitting his fault and agreeing voluntarily to perform an additional task in lieu of any punishment the Tribunal might recommend.

### **Corporations**

For every sphere of activity in Boys' Town (Technology, Agriculture, Farms, Road, Supplies, Lights, Water, Food Department, Bakery, Entertainment, Sports, Athletics and so on), a group of 5 boys is organised into a 'Corporation'. One of the group is elected Chairman and the other 4 in that group assist him. For instance, in the Food Department, the Chairman is assisted by one boy to obtain the food, another to store it, a third in preparing the food and the fourth in distribution of food. Each such group is in the charge of a Staff member who is responsible for the supervision, guidance and assessment of the output of each boy in that group.

There are 18 such Corporations in Boys' Town.

**The Administrative Body** comprises the Director, 2 Staff members, the House Officials (2 House Masters and 2 House Captains) and the 18 Chairman of the Corporations, making a total of 20-25 persons. This body meets about once a month to ensure that Boys' Town is functioning efficiently and smoothly and the boys are making the best use of the facilities provided. This organisation provides ample opportunities for the development of leadership and for all the boys to develop their total personality to the mutual advantage of all.

**The Points System.** The work done by the boys is estimated at the rate of 50 points per hour. The staff member in charge of each group is responsible for estimating the quantum of work performed by each boy each day and for the awarding of points. A boy can earn extra points for any additional work he may be called upon to perform, such as the transport of a tractor load or travel to Colombo on official business. At the end of each

month, a balance sheet is prepared for each boy, showing the number of points he has earned. These points are converted into rupees and cents at the rate of one cent per point. Of the amount earned each month (which averages about Rs. 80/-), a sum of Rs. 40/- to Rs. 50/- is set off to meet the cost of board and lodging of the boy. Any advances drawn by him during the month for travel, medicine etc. are deducted and the balance is placed to his credit.

Once in two months, each boy is permitted to spend between 30 - 40 per cent of his earnings during that period, at the shop located within the premises. He is given a purchase card with the list of items available at the shop and their prices, together with an endorsement specifying the maximum amount he could spend. The value of these purchases is also deducted from the balance lying to his credit. At the end of the 4-year training, a boy has an average of Rs. 600/- to his credit. This amount varies from about Rs. 400/- to as much as Rs. 1,500/- depending on the efficiency with which a boy has performed his duties during the training.

Points are also awarded monthly to the House whose members have earned more than those in the other House. Similarly, the debts incurred by boys and the rate at which repayments have been made are computed and the House which has the better record of repayment earns a point. This system of rewards to individuals and Houses has helped to inculcate thrift, a healthy team spirit and a sense of achievement.

### **The Director and Staff**

The Director enunciates the policies which are discussed at meetings with the Staff members. The Staff ensure that these policies are implemented through constant contact and communication with the various officials of the Houses and Corporations. The Staff function as teachers and instructors and mainly as guides and helpers to the boys. In order to achieve these goals, residence of the Staff within Boys' Town becomes essential and is therefore insisted upon.

Training for the staff is provided, firstly within Boys' Town itself; secondly, in private industrial and engineering firms in Sri Lanka and, thirdly, in institutions abroad.

### Follow-Up After Training

The Director and Staff of Boys' Town maintain contact with the alumni. Financial assistance in the form of interest-free loans has also been provided to a few boys who had planned to establish themselves in agriculture, mixed farming and in trades, but were unable to do so, for want of capital.

The Institute is presently handicapped by the lack of a fund to assist boys who desire to launch out on self-employment projects. The Director is at present organising a scheme through which advances in the form of stock (heifers, cows, chicks, etc.) are given to such boys. His ambition is to establish a revolving fund for this purpose in due course.

### Extension Programmes

Two extension programmes have already been started. The first is at Nuwara Eliya in the mountains and is described as the "highland extension programme". At present this is a nine-acre farm on which mixed farming along with cultivation of seed potatoes\* and vegetables is carried on. This farm is to be expanded shortly. The other is described as the "lowland extension programme" and is located at Ekala, about 8 miles away from Boys' Town. Here the emphasis is on rice cultivation.

At both these extension centres facilities are provided to train local boys in each area. Members of Diyagala Boys' Town too, do some of their practical work at these centres. There are extension projects also aimed at reaching the teachers, village leaders, co-operative leaders etc. in the region. Seminars on specialised fields of agriculture and animal husbandry are also conducted at these centres for young farmers on an Island wide basis.

Diyagala Boys' Town also functions as an Extension Centre at which persons desirous of starting similar projects elsewhere are given a training.

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\* Potatoes formed an important component of the poor man's diet mainly because it was cheap. But potatoes were never cultivated in Sri Lanka. In order to conserve foreign exchange, a ban on potato imports was placed a few years ago. Potatoes were therefore a new agricultural crop which had to be introduced into Sri Lanka. The emphasis on the cultivation of seed potatoes in this programme is therefore to facilitate the expansion of potato cultivation in Ceylon and to conserve further foreign exchange by producing the seed potatoes locally, thereby avoiding the need to import seed potatoes.

These extension programmes, though started are still being further developed.

### Finance

The development of Diyagala Boys' Town has been financed by individuals and organisations, both local and foreign. But the running costs are met from three main sources:

- (a) The income generated within Boys' Town itself, from the industrial and engineering workshops and the agricultural and livestock farms.
- (b) The grant paid by the Department of Social Services at the rate of Rs. 35 per month for each handicapped or orphan boy placed at the Institute by this department.
- (c) The grant paid by the Department of Probation and Child Care Services at the rate of Rs. 35/- per month for each delinquent boy referred to the Institute by this department.

While the food requirements of Boys' Town are largely met from their own produce, the surplus is sold outside. The engineering workshop earns an income as they undertake numerous repair jobs for various firms and organisations on contract and the boys receive an on-the-job training under expert supervision.

The expansion of this Institute, in order to increase the present enrolment of 280 to 300 will be possible only if additional funds in the magnitude of Rs. 24,000/- per year can be found to meet the extra running costs on account of the higher enrolment. If this is possible, the Director is confident that by 1977, he will be able to run Boys' Town without loss. The cost of maintenance of a boy is assessed at Rs. 1,200/- per year. This includes board, lodging and instruction. The religious Brothers on the Staff receive no salaries, but their cost of board and lodging is borne by Boys' Town. The lay staff are mainly retired persons and some former students of Boys Town who serve voluntarily as instructors and teachers and for most of whom only an allowance is paid. The wages and allowances amount to Rs. 3,500/- per month.

The Director keenly feels the need for expanding this Boys' Town in order to increase the enrolment and also to start similar projects in other parts of the country. He also needs more finance to establish a revolving fund to assist boys to establish themselves on their own, after the training.

The net assets in land, buildings, machinery, equipment etc. have been estimated at over Rs. 5 million.

A description of a typical day and a special day at Boys' Town is given in Annex 2.

### **Assessment**

Boys' Town has certain important characteristics. While the capital development has been and continues to be financed by local and foreign aid, the working and maintenance costs are borne mainly by the productivity of Boys' Town itself.

The boys earn sufficient during their period of training to pay for their board and lodging and even have a substantial saving lying to their credit at the end of the training.

All the boys have been able to obtain gainful employment or to set themselves up in gainful self-employment.

The training is of a comprehensive character – imparting to the youth a sense of honesty, loyalty, discipline, self-reliance and mutual co-operation as well as a variety of technical skills which will enable him to enjoy a decent standard of living and to be an efficient and useful citizen of Sri Lanka.

The training is also designed to bring out the best in youth and to develop his talents to the maximum. The opportunities afforded to the youth in the fields of leadership, through active participation in the varied activities of Boys' Town, including its administration, are a fine example of training techniques and strategy for producing good citizens.

The success achieved at Boys' Town can be attributed to the careful planning of the entire programme, the efficiency of the organisation and the dedicated service rendered by the founder Director and his staff.

### **A X. YAHAPATH ENDĒRA FARM (The Good Shepherd Farm, Hanwella)**

The Good Shepherd Congregation in Sri Lanka set up, in 1960, a vocation training centre for girls, located about two miles away from the present premises. In 1965, they organised the present farm on a 200-acre estate – about 110 acres of which are under mature coconut and rubber. The Farm is on the remaining 90 acres.

They started with providing training in agriculture as a therapy for girls with social handicaps due to a faulty education. They included delinquents as well. Twenty-five girls in the age-group 16-25 years were enrolled at a time.

By 1972, the programme has developed and expanded considerably.

Admission is restricted to girls in the age-group 17-25 years, who have reached at least the G.C.E. ('O' Level) and have chosen agriculture and/or animal husbandry as a vocation.

The full training is of two years' duration, but shorter crash programmes of 3-6 months' duration are also provided for girls who desire an intensive course in one or two aspects of the total training. This is specially designed for those already engaged in farming but lack the knowledge and training. The annual intake is 30 girls and the enrolment is 60. In addition, there are 4-5 religious sisters in training and a further 8 girls living in cottages (the target is to have three cottages with 8 girls per cottage) following a specialised training in cultivation and preservation of fruit such as pineapples and passion fruit; mulberry cultivation for sericulture is also included in this special programme. Co-operative farming procedures are emphasised through the above types of small controlled projects. The objective of this special programme is to train these girls to become leaders of co-operative farms when they go back to their homes after training.\* In December 1971, a pilot programme has been started for boys too in the same educational age group. At present there are 4 boys undergoing the same basic training in agriculture and animal husbandry as the girls. The training is residential and there are no barriers of religion, caste or race.

The learning process is through lectures, demonstrations and practical experience.

The subjects offered for the full two-year course are -

**Majors:** Poultry-keeping, dairy farming, pig-rearing and agriculture.

**Minors:** Personality development, English, Nutrition and Food, Food Preservation, Needlework I, Needlework II, Child Care, First Aid, Household Management, Laundry and Physical Training.

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\* This special programme was started only in 1972.

**Optional Subjects:** Music, Dancing, Art, Swimming, Weaving.

To illustrate the content of the training in this type of institution for girls, the detailed syllabus followed at this Institution is in Annex 3. On successful completion of the two-year course, a diploma is awarded.

The average drop-out rate at this institution is relatively low. Last year, for instance, 7 girls left within the first six months of joining. Of these, 3 went back to school to qualify for the G.C.E. (O.L.) certificate. The other four had had training in at least one major field before they left.

Payment of fees for board, lodging and training is not compulsory. But parents who can afford to pay may do so. Of the girls presently enrolled, only 15 pay fees ranging from Rs. 5 to Rs. 50 per month. The entire staff is composed of religious sisters who draw no salary.

From 1965 to 1971, a total of 175 girls have passed out after training. Contact is maintained with all these girls either through visits to their homes or at the Annual Agro-Animal Exhibition organised at a scientific level and held at the Farm at the end of each year. This exhibition also serves as a refresher course for the past pupils and is designed to help create a new image of the land-girl, thus giving her status and authority in her village and the Village Development Society.

The general consensus of the staff is that almost all these girls are either in wage employment or self-employment in agriculture and animal husbandry. Even girls who have since got married are likewise in employment. A few of those married practise their agricultural and animal husbandry skills in a very limited way or are unable to do so due to the lack of facilities (e.g. land).

### **Extension Work**

This Farm also provides a useful extension service to the peasant farmers in the ten villages surrounding it. Recently, the Government has set up an artificial insemination sub-station on this Farm. This is not only for use on the Farm but to serve the surrounding villages. A religious sister trained in A. I. performs this service function free of charge.

In August 1972, a symposium was also held on the Farm for 50 unemployed youths (boys) from the 10 surrounding villages on Agricultural Co-operation.



### Future Plans

As the fruit cultivation programme develops, fruit canning is to be introduced.

A hatchery is proposed to serve not only the needs of this Farm but also of the 10 villages around it.

With the development of the mulberry plantation, silk weaving is to be introduced.

It is also proposed to set up a revolving fund (hopefully with aid from abroad) to assist passed-out trainees to establish themselves in farming – such financial assistance being repaid (free of interest) in two or three years.

### Finance

The estate belongs to the Good Shepherd Congregation and the income from the coconut and rubber plantations meets part of the maintenance costs. Additional income is also derived from the agricultural and livestock enterprises in which the students are involved. This Institution is self-supporting and functions at a high level of efficiency, mainly due to the careful planning, budgeting and self-sacrifice of the staff. The capital development (buildings, furniture, equipment, including the generator, cold room etc.) have been financed by grants from Roman Catholic organisations outside Sri Lanka.

### A XI.

### NAVAJEEVANAM

The name of the above settlement means “The New Life”. It was started in 1959 with a membership of 10. The membership is 80 today. Although it is a small project, it is being described below, for the following reasons:

1. The entire programme of settlement, education, training development and rehabilitation is motivated by a total surrender to the Will of God.
2. The programme is designed for balanced material and spiritual development. This project was started within a Government Resettlement Scheme in the North of the Island by an Anglican priest of the Church of Sri Lanka on a 10 acre extent of land. This has now expanded to 180 acres, almost the entirety of which is either leased from Government or from friends. A Fellowship of 7 persons is responsible for the operation of the project.

The chief office bearers are in the age group 48 – 71 years. This Fellowship is assisted by an Advisory Council of 6 men and women.

3. Projects such as this can be duplicated in all parts of the Island, with dedicated leadership drawn from all religions, thereby making a significant social, economic, mental and spiritual impact on the population as a whole and on children and youth in particular.

The youth are in the age group 18–30 years and have had an education up to the G.C.E. (O) Level. In addition, 31 children largely from broken homes and underprivileged conditions and foundlings, are resident on the premises and attend the nearby primary and secondary schools. They too derive all the benefits from the training and experience at Navajeevanam.

Nominal fees for board and lodging are charged only from those boys attending the Government schools, whose parents can afford to pay. More than half the number are provided all the services without any charge.

Of the 8 active workers only 3 are paid wages. The remaining 5 perform voluntary service. The factors inducing voluntary service are described by the Director priest as “Christian fellowship, dedication and a keen sense of interest and genuine kindness to make everyone feel his worth and importance and not make him feel relegated to the position of an unwanted”.

Navajeevanam, as the name implies, is a new life for all living and working on the project. It also provides a happy home for those from underprivileged and broken homes, foundlings and the mentally handicapped. For the normal child and youth, it is a new experience inculcating desirable changes in values and attitudes and teaching them new skills which equip them to live happily together, irrespective of caste, creed and race and to engage in productive economic ventures in their own and in the national interest. The importance of working in the national interest is consciously planned and built into the entire education programme.

Navajeevanam affords facilities for training of apprentice farmers, tractor drivers, carpenters, masons, for the housing of the homeless, and accommodation for children attending state schools in the neighbourhood.

The breakdown of the population as at December 1971 is given below\*.

Boys attending the primary school in the neighbourhood (1½ miles away)	..	16
Boys attending the secondary school in the neighbourhood (1½ miles away)	..	15
Boys attending special educational classes at Navajeevanam	..	6
Boys being trained in poultry farming	..	2
Boys being trained in dairy farming	..	2
Boys being trained in carpentry	..	3
Workshop apprentices	..	4
Youths engaged at the tractor unit	..	4
Youths engaged in cultivation of subsidiary food-crops	..	3
Youths in rice cultivation	..	10
Youths engaged in kitchen and dining hall	..	3
Youths engaged in office work and stores	..	2
Members of the Navajeevanam Fellowship (resident)	..	5
		<hr/>
	Total community	.. <u>75</u>

The training combines workshop and work and study in their day-to-day activities in addition to the education provided for the boys in the State schools. Vocational training which would equip them to earn their living by honest labour is also provided. This "family" of 75 people is a microscope of the religious and ethnic composition of Sri Lanka and includes Hindus, Buddhists, Muslims and Christians as well as Tamils, Sinhalese, Muslims and Burghers drawn from the length and breadth of the Island.

The daily routine of activities at Navajeevanam is a blend between the social and economic development of the individual and the nation on the one hand, and the mental and spiritual development, on the other. It is a programme designed for balanced material and spiritual development.

### The Daily Routine

The day starts at 5.00 a.m. when one of the senior boys walks round the settlement singing a song to awake the others. From 5.00 – 5.45 a.m. all the boys perform allotted tasks, such as sweeping

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\* *Navajeevanam* 1971, American Ceylon Mission Press, Manipay, Ceylon.

the various rooms and compounds, fetching water, preparation of tea and so on. When these duties are completed, the boys gather under a shady tree and tea is served to them by one of the boys, at 5.45 a.m. At 6.00 a.m. everyone assembles in the Chapel for 10 minutes for meditation and prayers. Thereafter, the pattern of work for the school-going population and the workers is as follows:

### Workers

- 6.30 – 8.30 a.m. – The workers go out to work after muster, at which each worker is allotted the day's tasks.
- 8.30 a.m. – Breakfast
- 9.00 – 11.30 a.m. – Work
- 12.30 p.m. – Lunch and rest
- 2.30 p.m. – Tea
- 2.45 – 5.30 p.m. – Work
- After 5.30 p.m. – Joint participation with the rest of the community.

### School-going Population

- 6.30 – 6.50 a.m. – Gardening
- 6.50 – 7.00 a.m. – Wash-up, tidying of beds etc.
- 7.00 – 7.45 a.m. – Studies
- 7.45 a.m. – Breakfast
- 8.00 a.m.–2.30 p.m. Attending the Government schools which are  $1\frac{1}{2}$  miles away. The boys walk this distance daily.
- 2.30 – 3.30 p.m. – Return from school and rest.
- 4.00 – 5.00 p.m. – Games 3 days per week and field work 3 days per week (the boys are paid for the field work).
- 6.00 p.m. – Assembly at the Chapel.
- 6.00 – 7.45 p.m. – Study
- 7.45 p.m. – Dinner
- 8.15 p.m. – Juniors go to bed.
- 8.15 – 9.00 p.m. – Study (for the seniors only).

When the Seniors adjourn to their hostels for the night, one boy walks round the settlement singing a lyric or a hymn such as, "Abide with me" or "Now the day is over". At the daily Chapel services at 6.00 a.m. and 6.00 p.m., the whole population at Nava-jeevanam is given an opportunity for active participation. Each

boy takes a turn to say the prayers, the devotional reading and an appropriate Bible reading. All these Chapel services are trilingual (Sinhala, Tamil and English).

Only on Fridays, does the Director Priest conduct the services. The address at this service generally contains a moral, ethical and philosophical theme which will cut across all religious beliefs and yet be applicable to them all. These addresses are designed to infuse high ideals among all, irrespective of religion.

On Sunday evening a music class of one hour's duration is conducted. Navajeevanam is reputed to have a good choir.

The Director's wife plays the role of mother. She also works in the kitchen and the classroom and functions as organist and choir master.

A fully equipped First Aid Unit has been established and is run by a volunteer.

The hostel life is disciplined under the supervision and guidance of two volunteers. Recreational facilities, both indoor and outdoor, are available.

### **Administration**

There are three hostels (Senior, Junior and Workers). Each hostel elects five from among them to the Panchayat (a Council of 5). The Director nominates one of the five as leader or prefect. This leader wears a badge as a symbol of his office. The Panchayat is responsible for the cleanliness, tidiness, proper conduct of the hostel members and for the settlement of all minor issues and disputes relating to the hostel and its members. The Panchayat has authority to impose fines up to a maximum of -/50 cents. All major issues and disputes are referred by the Panchayat to the Director.

During the school holidays and after school hours, the boys work on the Farm. They are paid at the rate of -/40 cents per hour per head for the work done. These earnings are placed to the credit of each boy in the National Savings Bank. The expenditure from these savings is wisely controlled by the Director.

The boys and the workers are free on Saturday afternoons and full day on Sunday. The workers may visit the cinema using their own savings subject to the following stipulation.

Those who have over Rs. 100/- lying to their credit in savings may visit the cinema daily. Those with less than Rs. 50/- may

visit the cinema only twice a month and those with less than Rs. 30/- only once a month. The money which they require for this purpose is paid on the previous Friday.

The boys are permitted to visit the cinema twice per term, using their own savings. In the case of boys under 10 years, they are taken to the cinema once per term accompanied by the Director and his wife.

The Director states that these stipulations have had a beneficial effect both on the workers and the boys. It has inculcated thrift among them. Furthermore, he states that those who have saved over Rs. 100/- and have the facility to go to the cinema daily are the very people who are already thrifty and have no desire to avail of this liberal concession. On the other hand, those who have saved much less but are anxious to go to the cinema more frequently than permitted are induced to save more in order to enjoy this facility. But when he has got into the habit of saving and finds his credit balance increasing he acquires the habit of saving more, rather than spend it wantonly at the cinema.

Of the boys attending the Government school those in Grade VIII and above are given the opportunity to work and learn under instruction, in the different departments at Navajeevanam – e.g. in masonry, carpentry, poultry, dairy, highland cultivation, lowland cultivation (paddy), and in the kitchen and refectory. All the boys falling into this category undergo training in one or more of these skills.

There are also some boys under 14 years of age who do not attend school. They are boys who had grown up in their own homes but had not attended school and had come to Navajeevanam in their teens. These boys are taught to read and write at Navajeevanam itself and given every opportunity to acquire skills and to become useful and productive members of society. The Director states, "We do not dispense charity at Navajeevanam. Rather, we provide boys and young people with every opportunity with our limited resources, to acquire an education and training which he could not have had if he lived in his own home environment, to enable him to work and lead a happy and balanced life."

### **Finance\***

About 18 per cent of the gross income for the year ending December 31, 1970, was derived through donations and a further

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\* *Navajeevanam* – 1971.

3 per cent from boarding fees. The balance was derived largely through the agricultural, livestock and industrial activity within the settlement and the Income from the hire of the tractor.

### Needs and Future Plans

Funds are urgently needed to develop the 180 acres of land so that it will yield sufficient to make this settlement self-supporting at the present level of population. The capital expenditure for the development of this land is met from loans for which interest has to be paid. Under these conditions, the net returns available for meeting the recurrent expenditure at the settlement are inadequate. If an outright grant of Rs. 50,000/- is available, the Director is confident of developing the land fully in a few years' time and even expanding the programme to enrol a larger complement of deserving lads in due course and to include a wider field of training in vocations other than those presently provided.

### Assessment

This is a relatively small project. Nevertheless, it is one which has grown under a dedicated leadership, with very little financial outlay, into a haven for the under-privileged. The life at Navajeevanam is simple, yet it is disciplined. It is a type of project which is within the scope of both clergy and laity of all religions to undertake in all parts of the country with beneficial results to the individual, the family and the nation. The capital outlay is relatively small and the training period is also relatively short.

In the light of the very low level of incomes of the peasantry, most of whom live below subsistence levels, and the caste structure, most of the children from these peasant homes can be classified as under-privileged. Institutions such as Navajeevanam if organised by enlightened and dedicated persons in other parts of the country can make an impact on a considerable population of children and youth from under-privileged, depressed and deprived homes.

## A XII. RADIO AND ELECTRONICS LABORATORY

This is an Industrial Training School primarily meant for the systematic training of young men within the ages 18 and 21 in all branches of technology necessary for the development of our country. The basic methodology in teaching is to impart the theoretical background through practical applied knowledge and experience.

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The output is about 75 persons a year. The Institution tries to harness the talents of those who for either financial or social reasons are being frustrated. It is the brainchild of a Roman Catholic Priest who continues to function as its Director.

The Technical Training Centre was in 1948 in a 20' x 20' room with a minimum of equipment, tools and radio components and an enrolment of 10 boys who were considered misfits in the academic curriculum.

By 1951, 35 young students were on roll. They included "dropouts" from schools in Colombo and outstations. By 1962 there were 60 on roll. With donations of land and money from local and foreign organisations additional class rooms, laboratory and workshop accommodation were provided and equipped. Consequently out of 200 applicants that year, 60 were chosen for admission bringing the total on roll to 120. The institution was further extended with donations, as the demand for admission was steadily rising and the demand for young men with engineering skills was also rising.

By 1968 the number seeking admission had risen to 600, but application forms are issued only to 300 on a first come first served basis every August. All applicants are called for an aptitude test to assess each student's potentiality and character formation. A fair knowledge of Arithmetic and language is a pre-requisite. On the results of the aptitude test, those showing promise (usually about 45 per cent) are called for an interview to further test the candidate's fitness. Special attention is paid to the applicant's social outlook. Since 1968 the annual intake is 70, which is only around 12 per cent of those seeking admission. The Director of the Institute is deeply concerned of his inability to increase the enrolment further as the demand from employers cannot be met.

### **Training System and Method of Approach**

Students are given ample opportunity to take part in strenuous but ordered activity in their chosen subject under the supervision of trained instructors. This period lasts for six months during which the students come across problems which cannot be solved satisfactorily without a background knowledge of theory. If a student fails to become aware of this problem (which is very rare) his instructor points it out. This realisation is the motivating actor which starts them on their theoretical studies. Theory



classes on a regular basis are conducted making them as relevant as possible to their problems, thus arousing an interest in theory through a practical course and making class room work successful. For example, failures in Mathematics in conventional examinations have in these courses proceeded to differential and integral calculus. The technicians turned out are conversant with the practical aspects of their trade and also have a fairly good knowledge of the theory involved.

A sense of social obligation based on Christian charity is fostered. Manual tasks are done in groups of three or more and each department is in charge of maintenance of machinery and tools allotted to it. Damages, except normal wear and tear, are made collectively.

### **Level of Training**

There are two types of courses – technical and technological. Those following the former are trained to be efficient technicians in their chosen field. The theory is kept down to a minimum and emphasis is placed on the application of theoretical principles on actual on-the-job undertakings. These courses are held during normal working hours and the duration varies from 3 to 5 years, depending on the content in each course. The total number attending these at present is 223. A monthly fee of Rs. 10/- is levied mainly to meet the cost of instructors.

The courses at the technological level are reserved for those with a more advanced level of education. Classes are held after normal working hours. These courses lead up to the examinations held by the City & Guilds Institute in London in Telecommunication and Electrical Engineering. There is also a course in which the Institute's diploma is awarded. There are 43 students in the "City & Guilds" course and 23 in the Institute's Diploma Course at present. The fee is Rs. 25/- per month. This is to pay for the lecturers working after hours.

This was the only private institution in Sri Lanka approved for training students for examinations formerly conducted by the Institute of Electrical Engineers, London. In 1969 these examination courses were replaced by the examination courses of the Joint Council of Engineering Institutions, London. These are University level and are temporarily suspended due to lack of classroom space and laboratory equipment. Classes will be resumed as soon as these facilities become available. Applications for

the courses are numerous. A summary of the courses presently available together with a socio-religious curriculum is given in Annex 4.

### **Equipment**

All electronic equipment is reported to be up to date. The quantity of equipment is, however, not sufficient. Equipping the Machine workshop is considered the highest priority just now.

### **Administration & Staff**

There are 8 persons in the Administrative Staff, 8 on the Teaching Staff and 15 Workshop Instructors. There is a Board of Advisors consisting of 8 persons.

### **Finances**

The development of this Institution has been financed through donations of land, equipment and money by both local and foreign individuals, organisations and Foundations. The Institution is run on commercial lines and the working expenses are met from contractual jobs executed for private firms and companies, and public corporations, and from fees paid by the trainees. A copy of the Income and Expenditure Statement for the year ending 31 December 1971 is in Annex 4. The programme of improvement and expansion of facilities and the curriculum are also at Annex 4.

### **Assessment**

A total of 478 young men have had their training at the Institute since its inception in 1962. Everyone of them is gainfully employed. The wages they earn range from a minimum of Rs. 230/- per month at the technician level to Rs. 970/- per month at the technological level.

The fact that this training programme caters in the first instance to those who were considered "misfits" in the academic curriculum, but have since proved their interest and ability to conceptualise abstractions in order to understand the theoretical principles on which their operational exercises had to be based, points out to at least two important facts. First, it focuses attention on the inadequacy of the content and methodology adopted in the formal educational programme in order to bring out the latent ability and talents of a child. Secondly, it demonstrates the potential that is available among the adolescents and youth of this country to launch out on a rigorous programme of development if only they can be handled and moulded in the way this Institution has done. There is no doubt that the sincerity and dedication to a cause of the originator of this Institute and his staff have contributed in large measure to the success this Institute and its alumni have achieved.

**A SUMMARY OF OTHER EDUCATION AND TRAINING PROGRAMMES OF A VOCATIONAL CHARACTER FOR ADOLESCENTS AND YOUTH**

<i>Name of Institution</i>	<i>Year of Commencement</i>	<i>Field of Training</i>	<i>Age-group of Trainees M. F.</i>	<i>Duration of Training</i>	<i>Present Enrolment</i>
Sri Lanka Youth Welfare Home, Moratuwa (R.C.)	1961	Needlework, Lacemaking, Home Management, Cookery and Agriculture	16-30	2 years	30
Convent of the Cenacle (R.C.)	1968	Dressmaking, Embroidery, Home Science, Agriculture and Farming	17-30	2 years	40
Muttukumaru Home, Puttalam (R.C.)	N. A.	Home Science, Mixed Farming, Agriculture, Weaving and Religious Instruction	N.A.	N.A.	27
St. Euphrasia's Re-Education Centre, Nayakakanda (R.C.) 1	N.A.	Home Science, Religious Education, Typewriting	15-25		200
Marist Brothers' Farm & Training Institute, Ja-Ela (R.C.)	1956	Agriculture and Animal Husbandry, Poultry, Religious Education and Sports	15-21	1-3 years	15
Unmarried Mothers' Residential Creche, Nayakanda (R.C.)	N.A.	Weaving, Commercial Subjects, Home Science, Montessori Training Course for Girls and Montessori Method for Small Children	15-25 0-5 (Both sexes)		N.A.
Good Shepherd Convent - House Mothers' & Nursery Training Course, Nayakakanda (R.C.)	N.A.	Home Science, Montessori Methods	17-25	2 years	N.A.
Maria Nirmala Centre, Negombo (R.C.)	1961 (for daughters of poor fisherfolk)	Commercial dressmaking, Needlework, Screen printing of fabrics, Religious education, Leadership	17+ rarely 15-16	2 years	60 girls
Good Shepherd Convent, Kongodamulla (R.C.)	N.A.	Beedi-making, Marriage Guidance and Service	15-25	3½ months	100
St. Euphrasia's Re-education Centre, Nayakakanda (R.C.) 2	N.A.	Handicrafts, Small Industry and Marriage Guidance	N.A.	N.A.	200
St. Euphrasia's Re-Education Centre, Nayakakanda (R.C.) 3	N.A.	A course of training to qualify as Instructors for total personality development of deprived children from Nursery to Secondary education	Religious Sisters and Lay Women	2 years	N.A.
Trinity College Farm (P)	1908	Agriculture and Animal Husbandry	18-35	N.A.	35*
Mahalpe Sericulture Project (R.C.)	1971	Training in Mulberry Culture, Rearing of Silkworm and other Activities related to the production of silk	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.

R.C. = Roman Catholic; P = Protestant; N.A. = Not available

\* This figure represents only the number of youth who are in residence on the Farm and following a full-time Course of Training. In addition several hundreds of boys in Grades 8-12 from Trinity College attend orientation courses in agriculture and animal husbandry regularly at the Farm.



## SECTION B

## B I. THE NATIONAL YOUTH SERVICE COUNCIL\*

The Council has been established by an Act of Parliament.\*\*

**Role and Functions**

The National Youth Service Council, functioning under the direct supervision of the Prime Minister and "subject to the general or special direction and control of the Government," is the national level policy-making, planning and co-ordinating body on youth services in Sri Lanka. Generally, the Council does not assume direct service functions that would duplicate or overlap the activities of already established direct-service agencies. On the other hand, the Council aims to support and co-ordinate the functions and programmes of all such existing agencies to enable them to act in concert in the wider context of national objectives. Wherever a significant sector of youth needs is found not covered by any existing agency, the Council will arrange the setting up of a direct service agency to cater to that sector.

**Range and Scope**

The National Youth Council is concerned with each and every youth in the country – both male and female – coming within the age group of 14 to 25 years. The range and scope of activities are not confined to a residual group such as the unemployed or the non-school going. It will perform its role and functions in such a manner as to benefit all youth without exception and devoid of any sort of discrimination.

Youth service programmes focus attention on three basic processes, namely: (a) involvement in activities beneficial to themselves and to the nation; (b) training and education to equip them for competent and responsible adulthood; and (c) integration into economically active society.

The National Youth Organisation is the agency designed to cater to the needs of young persons of both sexes. The programmes and projects initiated must create the necessary conditions and opportunities that will give the youth a purpose in life, social and vocational competence and reasonable

\* For the general objectives and further details of this programme, the reader's attention is drawn to Annex 1.

\*\* The *Voluntary National Youth Service Act*, No. 11 of 1967, as amended by Act No. 52 of 1968.

avenues of gainful employment. The National Youth Organisation implements the national service programme through two components which function concurrently – (a) a residential training scheme and (b) youth in national development schemes.

### **National Service – Residential Training**

The object is “to foster among persons in Sri Lanka in general and among the youth in particular a spirit of national consciousness, a sense of discipline, an awareness of social and economic problems and a sense of the dignity of labour”.

Two types of organisations are utilised for this residential training. The first is through work camps, with semi-permanent buildings for residence. These camps are based on development projects of sufficient magnitude to permit the participation of 100–200 youths at a time over a considerable period and also of such widespread utility and demonstrable significance as would promote a spirit of service to the nation and a sense of achievement among the youth. The second type is based on agricultural farms, acquired estates etc., which are extensive enough to provide residential facilities and work opportunities to at least 200 youths at a time.

### **Eligibility**

Youth who have just completed their secondary education and are about to enter the employment market and those seeking admission to institutions of higher education may join this training. The age range for admission is 16–18 years.

### **Enrolment, duration and content of training, etc.**

The period of training is three months, and admission is in batches of 200 at a time to each camp.

The training comprises 4–5½ hours of manual work and 4 hours of classroom work which includes hobbies, basic skills etc. and lectures, discussions, film-shows etc. Sundays and Full Moon days are devoted exclusively for religious and cultural activities.

The training curriculum is in Annex 1 A.

### **National Service Credit Card**

Every youth participating in this training programme is given a credit card. A youth earns one credit for every 5 days of national service. It is hoped that those who have earned these credits will

be given preference others, for vocational training, employment, gaining admission to institutions of higher education, etc.

### **National Service – Youth in National Development**

The objects are –

“To enlist the continuous and active participation of the youth of Sri Lanka without regard to class or race or religion in national development schemes by means of all forms of voluntary service;

To organise and implement on a voluntary basis national service projects of every description and, in particular, projects directed towards social welfare, social rehabilitation and the economic development of Sri Lanka.”

This programme has been designed to provide substantial opportunities to as many youth as will respond to the call for “National Service” to participate directly and actively in national development activities, particularly those projects which would develop national resources, strengthen the economic and social fabric of the country and eventually generate more employment opportunities.

### **Eligibility**

There is no “recruitment” or “enrolment” as such. Instead the youth are motivated, encouraged and invited to participate voluntarily in selected development work projects. The motivation comes from the acceptance of National Service by the youth as a *duty by themselves and the nation*. There is no contractual obligation such as an employer-employee relationship between the Council and the youth participants. The youth participating in National Service reside with their parents in their own villages. Generally, they participate in development work projects in their own areas so that they are the direct beneficiaries of these development work projects when completed.

Priority is given to those closer to the upper age limit of 25 years. It is generally 17–25 years.

### **National Service Credit Card**

As in the residential training, every youth participating in this programme is given a credit card. Credits are earned on the same principle of one credit for an aggregate of 5 days’ national service. Each national service credit entitles the youth to a cash bonus of

Rs. 20. Of this amount Rs. 12.50 is paid direct to the youth for his meals, incidental expenses and for supplementing the parental family income. The balance Rs. 7.50 is deposited directly by the Council in a savings account in the Bank to the credit of the youth concerned.

Insurance coverage against accidents and personal injury while engaged in National Service is also provided.

### **National Service Work Projects**

Work projects selected by Project Committees including youth of the area are representative of the "felt needs" of the people in the area, and directly contributory to social and economic development. In the initial stages short-term projects that can be successfully completed and produce quick and visible results, directly benefiting youth are given priority. In the rural areas they are generally in support of agricultural production, community development and strengthening of rural infrastructure. Examples are:

- Minor irrigation works.

- Restoration and de-silting of village tanks.

- Construction of roads.

- Construction of Community playgrounds.

- Construction of Community wells.

- Re-afforestation of stream reservations.

- Replanting climatic reserves.

- Construction of community village buildings such as classrooms in schools.

### **Participation**

The size of the work project will determine the number of participants. However, economy, manageability and the atmosphere to be generated at the National Service work-sites require the number to be not less than 50 and not more than 150. When more than 150 have volunteered from the same area it is necessary to have more than one work-site in the same locality. Late arrivals are not allowed to participate but asked to report in time for work the next day. There is no commitment to provide for the same batch of youth to participate day after day to the exclusion of others. At the work-site the day's programme commences at 7.30 a.m. when their attendance is marked. At 8.00 a.m. the National Flag is hoisted and work commences and continues till



1.00 p.m. (with a tea interval from 10.15 – 10.45 a.m.). The youths return to their homes thereafter.

As it is important to create, an atmosphere conducive to the dignity, discipline and patriotism at the work-site, which should be a characteristic of National Service, provision is made to give the youth an awareness of national aspirations and nation-building tasks, through the good offices of the Sri Lanka Broadcasting Corporation. Each worksite is provided with the necessary radio equipment.

### **Vocational Training and Apprenticeship**

These programmes aim at giving the youth skills and abilities that will enable them to integrate successfully into the economically active society, particularly those skills and abilities that are in demand at present or are likely to be in demand in the near future consequent on the national development process. The programmes are continuously developed to be an effective means of bridging the gap between the education and training possessed by the youth at present on the one hand and the new skills and abilities demanded by the national development process on the other.

“The trades and vocations in which training is to be imparted are not being standardised or exclusively fixed. Such flexibility would enable not only catering to a wider group of youths, but also help the development of a wider range of skills and abilities that will be in demand from time to time. Even so, major emphasis is placed on those vocations that assume importance in the light of the basic characteristics of the national economy. The Council makes every endeavour to assist youth who participate in its programmes to obtain gainful occupations and settle as self-supporting and useful members of society.

“Vocational training and apprenticeship programmes that are inaugurated are fully co-ordinated with the existing technical and vocational training programmes conducted by other governmental agencies and the private sector and take advantage of existing institutions and facilities. They will be progressively developed to constitute an integrated human resources development plan within the framework of the overall National Development Plan.”

### **Evaluation**

The above is largely a reproduction of what the newly reconstructed National Youth Service Council hopes to achieve through its varied programmes. While these appear to be most desirable

and worthy of implementation as a matter of urgency with the least possible delay, it is necessary to evaluate the programme as it functioned before the General Elections in May 1970 and as it exists and functions at the present time.

The National Youth Service Council was first established in early 1969. The first National Service Project was inaugurated in April of that year. By March 1970, the programme had progressed according to the planned targets. During the year, about 200 work-centres had been established at which over 40,000 youth were enrolled – with about 27,000 reporting for work on any particular day\*. This programme during its first year of operation had realised Rs. 2.9 million worth of development while the expenditure was Rs. 2.2 million. The bulk of this expenditure included mainly the bonuses paid to the youth. The cost of staff, materials etc. was a relatively small percentage of this expenditure.

General Elections for the election of members to Parliament were held in May 1970. A new government was elected. In May 1970, the work of the National Youth Service Council was suspended, a new Council appointed and the programme of work re-formulated. In the meantime, the 40,000 youth who had been enrolled in the pre-1970 programme have been laid off.

It is unfortunate that the National Youth Service Council came into existence hardly an year before the General Elections in 1970. From a political viewpoint, the new government of 1970 tended to be suspicious of the loyalties of the young participants under the original scheme and consequently they desired a reorganised scheme. This reorganised scheme is fundamentally the same as the original scheme with the following differences:

- (a) The programme of National Service in the original scheme was the first stage through which a youth had to graduate to become eligible for admission to the residential training programmes, which were oriented towards employment and increased national productivity. Under the reorganised scheme, the residential training of youth in national development programmes proceeds concurrently, with the youth in one of these programmes having the facility to participate in another as well, and

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\* *Youth Employment in Ceylon – Problems and Prospects*: R. K. Srivastava and S. Selvaratnam – *MARGA*, Vol. I, No. 4 (1972).

- (b) there is no assurance so far that those who earn credits under these programmes will be given priority for admission to vocational training institutes, institutions for higher education and for employment.

It is premature to assess whether this is a strength or a weakness in the new programme which was inaugurated only in August 1972, which is only two months before this report was prepared.

The first project started under the reorganised programme is at Walawe under a new re-settlement scheme. It is a residential training programme in which 110 youths are enrolled at a given time. The first item of work undertaken was the construction of a main irrigation channel, half mile long, which was completed within the first month. At the end of the first month's operation, a new batch of youth has replaced the former, and the work continues.

The second project which is due to commence shortly will be for 200 youths who will reside on two tea estates for training in the tea industry, crop diversification, and co-operative farm management techniques and procedures.

This reorganised programme has been commenced twenty-seven months after the earlier programme was suspended. Much valuable time has been lost, while in the meantime, the magnitude of youth problems has been aggravated.

A massive youth mobilisation scheme as proposed must necessarily involve detailed short-term and long-term planning, carefully worked out, co-ordinating strategies among the governmental and non-governmental youth programmes and in the vocational training fields. Suitably trained staff in adequate numbers should also be available for the organisation, supervision, management and co-ordination of projects and programmes.

Presently, the Council's staff is grossly inadequate for these varied duties. The Council relies at present on the availability of the staff of other government departments for the performance of these tasks. One doubts whether the desired results can be achieved under these circumstances. Nor have suitable arrangements yet been made for training this staff for their new responsibilities and functions.

A more firm commitment with comprehensive short and long-term planning must be made if the Council's programmes are to

have the desired massive impact on the youth and the economy of Sri Lanka.

The National Youth Council has not yet assumed a distinct role as an agency which co-ordinates the various youth programmes in the governmental and non-governmental sectors. Its activities have been largely confined to specific programmes of youth mobilization and training undertaken directly by the Council. In terms of its objectives, however, the Council can play an important role in co-ordinating the numerous programmes that cater to the needs of the young age-group in the population. This would require comprehensive assessment of these needs, a study and evaluation of the relevant programmes that are related to these needs and identification of the gaps and the formulation of a co-ordinated programme of action in this field. It cannot be said that NYSC has as yet embarked on a programme of this nature.

At this point it would be pertinent to comment on the large number of Pre-vocational and vocational programmes that are undertaken by different agencies, both governmental and non-governmental. The earlier sections of the study have described the programmes undertaken by the Departments of Labour, Small Industries and Rural Development. These programmes overlap in many areas. The NYSC and the Rural Development Department concentrate on the training programmes which are oriented to the development of leadership skills and civic consciousness. They are not specifically employment-oriented, although the NYSC in the latter stages of its programme provides for in-training in specific basic skills. As described in the relevant section, the Small Industries Department undertakes training programmes devoted to the formation of skills and the basic training in arts and crafts such as masonry, carpentry, hair dressing, sewing and so on, while the programmes under the Department of Labour caters principally to the engineering trades and the upgrading of skills in these trades. It could also be said that the programme of training of the Small Industries Department is rural-oriented, while the Department of Labour directs its attention mainly on the urban industrial workforce. The programmes in vocational training undertaken by the Government Departments are, to some extent, co-ordinated at the level of the government budget and the Ministry of Planning. When funds are appropriated for these programmes the supervising agencies in the Ministeries of Planning and Finance evaluate the proposals in relation to the needs for the

different skills, and the supply of these skills from other institutions such as the Junior Technical Institutes of the Education Department. As a result, the Government is able to effect some measure of co-ordination in the implementation of these programmes. The government has recently established a national co-ordinating body for technical education and training. This body is vested with the responsibility of co-ordinating the vocational and technical training programmes, both in the governmental and non-governmental sectors. However, the programmes undertaken by such agencies as the Rural Development Department and the NYSC in so far as they do not have a specific vocational or technical content will not fall within the scope of the activities of this agency.

All these comments would indicate that while the problems of co-ordination have been broadly identified and attempts have been made to develop institutions to undertake the necessary co-ordination, this task has as yet not been performed as comprehensively and as effectively as required.

## **B II. THE LANKA MAHILA SAMITI (THE SRI LANKA WOMEN'S ASSOCIATION)**

This organisation had its beginnings in 1930 when adult suffrage was available for the first time in Sri Lanka to all men and women over the age of 21 years. A small band of dedicated women formed a Central Board of Women's Institutes and a few Mahila Samitis were formed in villages in the outlying areas around Colombo. Since then their activities in rural parts of the Island have been developed and expanded. In 1947, the Lanka Mahila Samiti was made an incorporated body.\* By 1955, there were Mahila Samitis in 850 villages scattered over many parts of the Island with a membership of 55,000. Today, the organisation has penetrated into many of the districts in the Island and organised as many as 2,301 Mahila Samitis with an estimated membership of over 200,000. Since 1948, the Association also runs a residential Institute for Training for their paid and voluntary workers. The Lanka Mahila Samiti is affiliated to the Association of Country Women of the World.

The objectives of the Samiti are:

1. To help in establishing Mahila Samitis in the villages of Sri Lanka, with the object of furthering concerted work

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\* Ordinance No. 45 of 1947 passed by the then State Council of Ceylon.

- among the women for their educational, sanitary, social and economic progress, and generally for carrying out through them a vigorous propaganda for the progress of women in Sri Lanka.
2. To act as a Central organisation of the Mahila Samitis throughout the Island and to further their interests.
  3. To take steps to appoint Provincial Committees whose special duties shall be the promotion of the following aims and objects of the Mahila Samiti:
    - (a) Social intercourse irrespective of caste and creed.
    - (b) Agricultural pursuits.
    - (c) Homecraft and Mothercraft.
    - (d) Cottage Industries.
    - (e) Co-operative enterprise and mutual help.
    - (f) Thrift.
    - (g) Social hygiene.
    - (h) Interest in local institutions, such as hospitals and welfare centres.

These objectives are achieved through the organisation of Mahila Samitis in villages which seek the parent organisation's assistance. These village Samitis function on democratic lines with office-bearers elected annually and planning and implementing a programme of education, training and village development under the guidance of the trained Sevikas (paid workers) and trained Sweacha Sevikas (voluntary workers). The village Samitis meet regularly for discussion of their activities, problems etc. and records of proceedings of meetings are properly maintained. The field staffs of government departments such as Health, Agriculture, Education, Rural Development, and Small Industries are invited to participate at their meetings in order to make the village women aware of the activities which could be organised for the benefit of themselves as well as for the village. This contact between village women on the one hand and the trained workers of the Lanka Mahila Samiti and the government officials at regular intervals, on the other, serves as a means of informal education and training for village women in order to make them better and more efficient mothers, housewives for the achievement of balanced development of the family and the village. These

programmes have also helped young persons to secure gainful employment.

As a consequence of the awareness for change through the new knowledge and guidance provided through the above contacts, village women have organised a wide range of activities for their own betterment. A broad spectrum of the types of activities undertaken by them is given at Annex 6.

At the functional level the following information is relevant. The request for the organisation of a village Samiti must be made by a signed request from at least 10 women in that village. The parent organisation sends its trained personnel to explain the objectives and to organise a village Samiti. The Samiti is thereafter organised and is usually confined to women in the age group 15-50 years, with a predominance of young married and unmarried persons in the age group 15 to 25 years.

The village Samiti prepares a programme of work covering as many items as possible of those listed above.

When a village Samiti is organised, a request is made to the parent organisation, signed by at least 20 members of the Samiti for a nominee of theirs to undergo a course of training at the Training Institute. This training is of  $3\frac{1}{4}$  months' duration, after which she goes back to her village to function as a Sweacha Sevika (voluntary worker). The details of this training will be described in a subsequent section.

The nominee of a village society should usually have reached the G.C.E (O) Level. But in the more remote parts of the country, where educational levels are lower, a lower educational level (even 5th grade) is accepted. They should be unmarried and in the age group 18-30 years. The Lanka Mahila Samiti also maintains 24 model centres throughout the Island at present. At each of these model centres the following activities are organised: 1. Agriculture; 2. Needlework and sewing; 3. Food preservation and canning; 4. Creche.

The creche is in charge of a worker (sevika) trained by the parent organisation. She also has a voluntary assistant to prepare the midday meal. The facilities available at each creche are: tables and chairs, crockery etc., see-saw, swing, mat-slide, building blocks, letters and other playthings made out of local raw materials--such as rubber seeds and coconut shells, waste cloth, reels etc. In

addition to the training through play, teaching of religion, obedience to parents and elders personal hygiene and songs are also taught.

The infants remain at the creche from 8 a.m. to about 2 p.m. each day. They are provided with a biscuit and a glass of milk at about 10 a.m. and the midday meal. After lunch they sleep for a few hours or until their mothers fetch them after their work on the adjoining estates or on their own lands.

The Department of Social Services pays a grant of Rs. 10 per infant (0-6 years) per month for 45 centres run by the Lanka Mahila Samiti to provide these meals.

A trained supervisory worker (Parikshana Sevika) is based at each model village and supervises the work of the District. In addition to the 45 creches assisted by the Department of Social Services, the Lanka Mahila Samiti maintains a further 8 with their own resources and 5 village Samitis too maintain a creche each with their local resources making a total of 58 creches.\* The average daily attendance at a creche is about 30 infants.

In 1958, the Association established the 25th Model Centre which was mobile. The gift of a vehicle from the Asia Foundation and equipment comprising a canning unit, sewing outfit, First-Aid Box and films from UNESCO, and bottles, lids etc. from CARE and NOVIB, enabled them to set up this mobile unit. The vehicle travelled throughout the country as the 25th Model Centre to conduct demonstrations, publicity and propaganda in the varied aspects of Samiti work. For the past 2 years, this unit has not been functioning as the vehicle is no longer roadworthy. This service will be resumed when a new vehicle is available. They expect it as an overseas gift, but no final arrangements have been made.

The Association has also received the gift of a car from the Asia Foundation which is used by the headquarters staff to travel to villages on Samiti business.

### **Training**

The Association maintains a fairly well equipped Training Institute for the purpose of training its own paid personnel as well as nominees of Village Samitis. This Institute has facilities to accommodate and train 30-35 persons in a single course. It is staffed by a resident warden and 4 handicraft instructresses and the minor staff.

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\* *Forty-first Annual Report - 1970/71 - Association of Women's Institutes in Ceylon (Lanka Mahila Samiti).*



There are 4 different courses of training provided.

### **Voluntary Village Workers (Sweccha Sevikas)**

These are nominees of village samitis who will go back to their respective villages after training to function as leaders. The educational level of a nominee should be G.C.E.(O) Level but a lower level is accepted for nominees from the more remote villages.

The training is residential and the entire cost is borne by the Association. 30-35 trainees are admitted to each course. Three courses are conducted each year. The annual turnover is around 100.

The training lasts 3½ months and has 2 components:

- (a) During the first three months, the following theoretical and practical aspects are dealt with: agriculture, handicrafts, embroidery and needlework, cutting out garments and sewing, pillow lace work\* and creche work.
- (b) Talks and discussions on agriculture, health, thrift, co-operation, rural development, small industries, nutrition, family planning, conducted by officials of the respective government departments.
- (c) Training in public speaking.

Each trainee must make with her own skills certain household requirements such as an ekel broom, coir broom, winnowing fan, coconut milk strainer, lace, bags, mats, tea cosy etc. which she takes back to the village to illustrate the type of articles which Samiti members themselves can produce for their use.

The land on the Training Centre premises is cultivated with cash crops by the trainees.

- (d) During the last 2 weeks, the trainees practice role play on organising a village samiti, conducting samiti meetings, programming etc.

A creche for children living around the Training Centre is also maintained and is in charge of a trained worker. The trainees receive practical training in creche work here. On passing out, each trainee carries with her, samples of the articles made by her and a report of the work done during the training for the information of her village Samiti members.

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\* Pillow lace work is a cottage industry. Fine open fabric in the form of lace, is woven by hand on a platform which is in the shape of a pillow.

### **Creche Sevikas**

This is a short training of about 4 weeks for girls who are in charge of creches run by village Samitis.

### **Grama Sevikas and Parikshana Sevikas**

These are the paid workers of the Association. Short refresher courses of 1-2 weeks duration are conducted for them as and when necessary. They are chosen and appointed from among the Sweccha Sevikas who have proved to be effective and efficient workers.

### **Members of Village Samiti**

Short courses of 2-4 weeks' duration are conducted for office-bearers of village Samitis. Enrolment is about 30-35 per course. The training includes duties of office-bearers, how to run a Samiti and practical training in handwork. Members pay Rs. 15 per head for the course to cover the cost of raw materials required for their work and for educational tours. They bring with them their rations of rice for the duration of the course. All other expenses incurred are met by the Association.

### **Other training and demonstrations**

At the headquarters of the Association in Colombo, classes and demonstrations are conducted for members and non-members, most of whom are adolescents and young women up to about 25 years, in cookery, bottling of fruit juices, batik work and pillow lace making. A nominal fee is charged from each participant. In 1971, about 15 classes were conducted with an attendance of about 2,000 in all.

For the structure of the Central Organisation see Annex 6.

### **Finance\***

In 1970/71, the activities of the Association were financed from the following sources:

(i) Government grants:

(a) block grant Rs. 150,000 from Department of Rural Development

(b) block grant Rs. 15,000 from Department of Health

\* *Forty-first Annual Report - 1970/71 - Association of Women's Institutes in Ceylon (Lanka Mahila Samiti).*

(c) creche grant	Rs. 99,201	from Department of Social Services
(ii) Donations	Rs. 1,675	
(iii) Subscriptions	Rs. 875	
(iv) Affiliation Fees (received)	Rs. 2,005	
(v) Annual Flag Day	Rs. 1,186	
(vi) Film shows, finance campaigns, sale of handbooks, till collections, interest, on fixed deposits bring-and-buy sales etc.	Rs. 10,050	
	<u>Rs. 279,992</u>	

In 1969/70, the total revenue from the above sources was Rs. 320,000. The shortfall is due to a reduction in the Creche grant from Government, and reduced collections from donations, Annual Flag Day and other fund-raising campaigns.

### Assessment

This association has the potential for effective work among infants, children and female rural youth and adults. Although the personnel at the headquarters are dedicated workers, they are handicapped by several constraints.

Firstly, the trained permanent staff is inadequate to cope with a programme which is islandwide.

Secondly, the bulk of the financial support comes in the form of grants from Government. Their own sources of revenue constitute hardly 10 per cent of the total. It cannot be denied that public support to voluntary organisations in Sri Lanka has been diminishing during the past 2-3 years, contributory factors being the high cost of living and the high levels of taxation in the country. Even earlier, when these constraints were not present, the Association was largely dependent on the financial assistance it received from Government.

If this Association is to continue and develop its programmes in the future, it is important to ensure that it can do so with its

own resources through fund-raising campaigns both locally and abroad, with the minimum dependence on government support. This is particularly so, as heavy dependence on government support could pressurise the Association to give it political support as well which is not in the best interests of the Association. Alternatively, government assistance could be withdrawn, as has happened on more than one occasion in the past, thereby paralysing the Association's activities.

The Association should make a concerted effort to develop its own fund-raising campaigns without heavily depending on government assistance. This is not an impossible task if it is carefully planned and launched in order to fire the imagination, sympathy and support of everyone.

If this is achieved, the Association will be able to launch a more effective campaign for the advancement of rural infants, children, young girls and women.

### **B III. MINISTRY OF SPORTS**

This is a new Ministry established by the Government in 1970 for the encouragement and development of sports activities and the provision of recreational facilities.

The **major functions** are:

1. To provide assistance and encouragement to sports organisations, schools, local government authorities and the Public for
  - (a) the development and propagation of sports,
  - (b) obtaining greater participation of the public both as active players and as spectators,
  - (c) the provision of facilities for sports.
2. The organisation of sports, sports seminars and coaching camps.
3. To co-ordinate participation in sports with foreign players.

The programme covers the the entire Island.

The organisation, headed by a Director of Sports and 2 Assistant Directors is supported in the field by 22 District Sports Officers (one in charge of a district), 175 Sports Officers (one in charge of a Divisional Revenue Officer's Division) and 22 Lady Sports Officers (one per district).

## Types of Activities

(a) Sports Drives – In order to provide facilities to as wide a population as possible, this Ministry has assisted in the establishment of 1,600 new Volley Ball Courts and 160 new Netball Courts in rural areas where these were not hitherto available\*.

(b) Coaching Camps – in athletics, volley ball, wrestling and football are held regularly once a month in each district.

Coaching camps in other sports, such as swimming, gymnastics, hockey and cricket are held regularly both in Colombo as well as in the headquarter towns in the 22 districts of the Island. It has been estimated by the Ministry that about 50,000 children and youths avail themselves of these services annually.

(c) Competitions – regular competitions are organised and conducted at the level of the Grama Sevaka Division which covers an average population of about 4,000 and at the level of the Divisional Revenue Officer's Division which covers an average population of about 80,000 persons.

For the first time in 1972, Provincial\*\* Sports Festivals were held in athletics, volleyball and football. The champions at these Provincial festivals competed at an Inter-Provincial Sports Meet at the national level in Colombo. A significant feature of the competitions at the Provincial level is that those who had represented the country in football and volley ball and those who had been placed in athletics at the national level competitions previously, were not eligible to participate in these sports meets. This stipulation had been made, to provide an opportunity for the talented youth, particularly from the rural areas of Sri Lanka to participate at sports meets and festivals at the national level. A senior Ministry official reports that this strategy has demonstrated that there is a wealth of sporting talent in the rural areas which can be harnessed for the improvement, expansion and development of sport in Sri Lanka.

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\* It was not possible to obtain statistics of the numbers of volley ball and netball courts, playgrounds etc. in the country prior to 1970. The writer estimates that there may have existed in the Island about 4,000 volley ball courts, 300 netball courts and about 200 playgrounds before 1970. This does not include the numerous open patches of land and paddy fields which are used as playgrounds in villages, when they remain uncultivated during parts of the year.

\*\* A Province includes 2-3 districts.

This is substantiated by the fact that the achievements of the rural youth of both sexes at these Inter-Provincial sports festivals compared very favourably with the achievements at the Amateur Athletic Association Championships which are held in Colombo annually. For instance, at the Inter-Provincial Meets, a few of the achievements selected at random are given below:

1. In the women's high jump event, those placed first and second at this meet would have secured 2nd and 3rd places at the Amateur Athletic Association Championship Meet.
2. In the 5,000 meters, the champion at this Meet could have secured second place at the Amateur Athletic Association Championship Meet.
3. In the 1,500 meters, the champion could have secured second place at the Amateur Athletic Association Championship Meet.

### **Other Benefits**

Apart from providing opportunities for the development of sporting talent in the country, this programme provides other benefits. For instance, the coaching camps and competitions enable children and youths from all parts of the country to assemble together and to get to know each other and to live together and establish healthy social relationships. At the coaching camps in particular, every effort is made to inculcate among the participants such values as fair play, team spirit, letting the better side win and not taking revenge.

### **Special Project**

With a view to further intensify and develop sports throughout the country, a special project has been launched recently. A Senior Secondary School has been selected in each district, where the basic facilities of playgrounds for track and field events and for volley ball are already available, but where sports activities have not yet developed.

At these premises, training and coaching camps are conducted for games masters and games mistresses, nominated by the Headmasters of each school from among the respective staffs, in the district. Compulsory training is provided in Athletics and Volley Ball for the boys and in Athletics and Netball for the girls. They could also choose any two other optional games. These options

as chosen by these games masters and games mistresses are:— hockey, football, basketball, badminton and table tennis for the boys and hockey, badminton, table tennis, volley ball and basketball for the girls. These games masters and games mistresses are also provided with an in-service refresher course of one week's duration in Colombo. At this refresher course, a programme of training for each school is prepared and the equipment required to start the training in each school is provided by the Ministry.

These Senior Secondary Schools selected for this purpose in each district, are designed to serve as a nucleus for other schools in the district to avail themselves of and benefit from these facilities at the present stage of sports developed and promoted in the country.

### **Controlling Bodies**

There are at present 34 controlling bodies for the various sports at the national level in Sri Lanka. In addition, there are 7 School Sports Associations for Athletics, Badminton, Basketball, Boxing, Cricket, Football, Hockey and Gymnastics at the national level.

### **Finance**

Out of a total budget of Rs. 2.97 million provided in the Government Estimates for 1973, a sum of Rs. 2.1 million has been allocated as capital expenditure for sports development. These funds are allocated to the Government Agents and Divisional Revenue Officers, (who are the chief executives and their immediate assistants respectively), throughout the country, on an equal basis to conduct tournaments and coaching camps. Funds for capital expenditure for the provision of playgrounds, pavilions, stadia etc. are also allocated to Local Government authorities and schools according to their needs. Grants are made to controlling sports bodies for conducting coaching camps and organising national tournaments.

Funds are also provided up to about 50 per cent of the costs incurred for participation at the Asian Games tournaments. Full costs are met for the delegation participating at the Olympic Games.

To start a sports programme, the funds provided include the capital costs (where necessary) and the basic sports materials required. The replacement of materials thereafter is the responsibility of the local organisation.

#### B IV. THE BOYS SCOUT ASSOCIATION OF SRI LANKA

The Boys' Scout Movement in Sri Lanka was inaugurated in 1912 – 60 years ago. It started with a membership of 24 boys. Since then, the Movement has spread to every part of the Island and has expanded its membership to 18,025 members.

The following data is taken from the Association's Annual Report for 1970:

H. Q. Officials – Commissioner and members of the				
Scout Council	..	..	..	173
Commissioners	..	..	..	128
Lay Officials	..	..	..	124
District Scouters	..	..	..	51
Invested Scouters in Training Colleges	..	..	..	1,020
Scouters	..	..	..	1,179
Rover Scouts (18–26 years)	..	..	..	394
Senior Scouts	..	..	..	3,471
Scouts (11–15 years)	..	..	..	8,074
Cubs (8–11 years)	..	..	..	3,461

The boys are basically divided into two groups. All those attending school fall into the "School Troop" and those not attending school into the "Open Troop". The membership from the Urban Sector is around 40 per cent and the remaining 60 per cent is from the rural sector.

Recently, the Boys' Scout Association of Sri Lanka appointed a Special Committee comprising experienced scout workers and lay members to reorganise the structure of the Boys' Scout Association to suit the local conditions and to cater to the aspirations of Sri Lanka. This Committee studied the training programmes of the Movement and produced a Forward Plan after 3 years of study. The "Forward Plan" which comes into operation from this year will bring about changes in the Uniform, Badge system and the scope and content of their training programmes, while retaining the international character of the Movement. These



changes will also help to promote the spiritual and cultural aspirations of the country. The activities in general are designed to develop character, good citizenship, training them in habits of observation, obedience and self-reliance – inculcating loyalty and thoughtfulness for others – teaching them services useful to the public and handicrafts useful to themselves and promoting their physical, mental and spiritual well-being.

The Association has four Divisions – Southern, Northern, Central and Western. Each of these has 3 to 5 Training Colleges where their Scout Training is conducted. The number of trainees who underwent Scout Training at these Colleges in 1970 was 1,015. In addition, the following training was also carried out by the Training Department in 1970:

	<i>Cubs</i>	<i>Scouts</i>	<i>Rovers</i>	<i>Total</i>
<b>Wood Badge Preliminary</b>				
Number of Courses ..	2	3	—	5
Number of Trainees ..	42	85	—	127
<b>Wood Badge – Part I (Theoretical)</b>				
Number of Trainees ..	15	25	—	40
<b>Wood Badge – Part II (Practical)</b>				
Number of Courses ..	1	1	—	2
Number of Trainees ..	30	36	—	66
<b>Wood Badge – Part III</b>				
Completion ..	3	8	—	11

Training Camps are held regularly, the main purpose being to give practical experience and knowledge in Campcraft, Outdoor activities, Nature Study and the Patrol system.

Scouting in Sri Lanka has been introduced among the handicapped boys in the General Hospital Colombo, and the institutions for destitutes. Scout training has also been imparted to the prisoners serving life sentence and long terms. The programme has been so successful that during the last 20 years of its existence in the prisons, the young men (18 to 24 years) have been taken out on camps and to national gatherings without the supervision of prison officials, with great success. In 1970, their Annual Camp was held at one of the Open Prison Camps. Prison Scouting in Sri Lanka is reported to be the first of its kind in the world.

Under the re-organised scheme, the Association has expanded the scope of its activities last year by including Community Development in their programme. The objective is to provide a training for community service and development and to assist the government in its national development activities. Already a third of the 34 scout districts are engaged in this programme.

As a preliminary project the scouts co-operated with the Health Department in their blood donation campaign. They were given lectures by the department and their scout master on the need to donate blood and also to dispel any fears they had as to the ill effects of blood donation. Apart from the older boys who donate blood themselves, the scouts organise groups of volunteers from around their area for blood donation. Encouraged by this response, the scouts have also undertaken to improve sanitation in rural areas. The scouts are given instruction and training on how a sanitary latrine and drain are constructed.

The scouts have taken the initiative to set an example by keeping their own schools clean and tidy. They are given a training in First Aid and make use of this knowledge for first aid duty in their schools. They have also assisted the Education Department by clearing a backlog of accumulated pension papers of retired teachers.

In order to help the government's drive for greater food production, the Boys' Scout Association has stipulated that, to qualify for the coveted President's badge, a boy scout must obtain, among other badges, a food and agriculture badge. To qualify for this badge the scouts in the age group 8-18 must cultivate a plot of land with a subsidiary food crop such as chillies or onions and get this appraised and certified by his scout master.

This year the scouts have started a farm of their own in the Kurunegala district. It is a small farm and can train only about 8 scouts at a time. They get a training in agriculture over a 6-12 month period.

The scouts also take part in work camps organised by the Department of Rural Development and also participate as a group in their community development projects. They also actively help the Forest Department in the conservation of forests.

In Kandy, the scouts are given a training in the techniques of fire fighting and have been actively helpful to the Kandy Municipal Council Fire Brigade Department. The Association hopes to extend this activity to other districts as well.

In addition to the above, the scouts are also trained to look after and respect public property.

## B V. THE GIRL GUIDES ASSOCIATION OF SRI LANKA

Girl Guiding was introduced into Sri Lanka in 1917. The Movement has grown during the past 54 years.

The Annual Report of the Association for 1971 gives the following statistical data:

	Commissioners	..	..	82	
	Secretaries	..	..	15	
	Guiders (17 years and over)	..	..	699	
	Adult Leaders (17 years and over)	..	..	305	
	Rangers (17 - 21 years)	..	..	234	
	Guides	..	..	9,472	
	Little Friends (7 - 11 years)	..	..	3,440	
Handi- capped	{	Rangers	..	..	40
		Guides	..	..	62
		Little Friends	..	..	45
	Total	..	..	<u>14,394</u>	

The Movement is spread throughout the Island and about 99 per cent of the membership is in government and private schools, of which about 45 per cent are urban and around 55 per cent are rural schools.

The membership is roughly 50 per cent urban and 50 per cent rural.

Only 3 secretaries and 1 executive who are full-time workers at the Headquarters, are paid. The others are all voluntary workers.

Girl Guiding is a worldwide Movement with a uniform pattern of organisation and activities designed for the development of character, good citizenship, self-reliance, loyalty, thoughtfulness

for others; teaching services useful to the public and handicrafts useful to themselves, and making them capable of keeping good homes and of bringing up good children. Since these activities are well known, they will not be dealt with in this case study.

Attention, is, however, focussed on the following programmes and activities which have been developed or adapted to meet specific problems and needs in Sri Lanka:

1. Sri Lanka is a multi-religious society cutting across several ethnic groups. There are Buddhists, Hindus, Roman Catholics, Protestants, Muslims and Zoroastrians among the Sinhalese, Tamils, Moors, Malays, Burghers and Parsees. The Movement in Sri Lanka has focussed attention on the relevance of each of these great religions to Girl Guiding and the need to appreciate and respect another's religion.
2. Their badge work programmes have been adapted to suit local conditions.
3. Programmes for the physically and mentally handicapped including delinquent girls, have been integrated with those for normal children and youth. The social psychological effect of working together on common programmes is reported to be of mutual benefit to both the handicapped, as well as the normal person.
4. Members actively participate in community development projects, living in a village for several days at a time.
5. A large number of girls who were involved in the insurgency of 1971 have been placed in camps. At the request of the government, the Association organised a rehabilitation programme for them. Among others, vocational training, drama and teaching of English were included.
6. A significant feature of the Movement in Sri Lanka is the large number of young people who have been enabled to assume positions of leadership and authority at the highest levels of the organisation.

## B VI. THE YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION

This is one of the oldest organised youth movements in Sri Lanka with over 90 years of service.

Its objectives are:

1. To develop in men and to instil in young people, a faith by which to live.
2. To develop character and prepare youth for good citizenship.
3. To discover and train potential leadership.

The movement continues to serve the people and the country irrespective of caste, creed and race.

There are 19 Y.M.C.A.s spread over 9 of the 22 Districts in the Island. They are managed through local Boards of Directors, elected by the members and their work is strengthened and co-ordinated by the National Council of the Y.M.C.A.s in Sri Lanka. The total number of individuals which it serves through its varied programmes is estimated at around 2,000 per year.

### Types of Training Programmes

1. Training Programmes for:
  - Lay Leaders of the Y.M.C.A.
  - Programme Leaders of the Y.M.C.A.
  - Camp Leaders Seminar.
  - Citizenship Training for children and youth through a variety of programmes conducted daily.
2. Forum – for art of public speaking.
3. Lectures and Seminars on current issues.
4. Training of Hostel and Restaurant waiters.
5. Training Camps.
  - (i) Boys' Camp (started in 1956) with an annual involvement of 100 boys.
  - (ii) Athletic Coach Camp (started in 1964) with an annual involvement of 100 boys and girls.

- (iii) Y.M.C.A. Family Camp (started in 1968) with an annual involvement of 10 families.
- (iv) Teachers Seminar (started in 1969) with an annual involvement of 40 teachers.
- (v) Music Camp (started in 1969) with an annual involvement of 70 boys and girls.
- (vi) Sunshine Camp (started in 1969) for handicapped children.

Each of the above training programmes is conducted annually and is of one week's duration.

The objectives of Y.M.C.A. Camping are:

1. Each camper should have an opportunity to develop self-confidence and appreciation of his own growth as an individual.
2. Each camper should have an opportunity to develop a faith for daily living, that he may achieve his highest potential as a child of God.
3. Each camper should have an opportunity to appreciate that health of mind and body is a sacred gift and that physical fitness and mental well-being are conditions to be achieved and maintained.
4. Each camper should have an opportunity to recognize the worth of all persons and work for interracial and intergroup understanding.
5. Each camper should have an opportunity to develop a sense of world mindedness and work for world-wide understanding.
6. Each camper should have an opportunity to develop his capacities for leadership and use them responsibly in his own groups and in community life.
7. Each camper should have an opportunity to develop an interest in, a knowledge and a respect for, the natural world and its ecology and work for its conservation.

Enrolment of campees is irrespective of educational qualifications, but the age limit for each type of camp is specified and the most important qualification is the interest shown by an applicant. The Camp fee is Rs. 40/- per course payable by the campee, the local Y.M.C.A. or the schools. In cases of real need, the assistance of a Service Club or the Headquarters Y.M.C.A. is sought to meet the fee. The National Y.M.C.A. subsidises most of these camps.

**Camp Sites:** A permanent camping centre is available at the Y.M.C.A. - Youth Centre at Welimada in the hill country. If this site is not available at any time, a school with hostel facilities situated in the hills or away from Colombo is chosen.

For these training programmes, 25 Y.M.C.A. Secretaries, trained in Sri Lanka and abroad and who are in the permanent staff, are available.

**Citizenship Training:** All Y.M.C.A. training programmes include a citizenship training designed to develop the total personality of the individual. Through these programmes friendship and mutual fellowship are planned and actively encouraged and developed. Consequently, all barriers of a social and Socio-psychological character are broken down and a feeling of belonging to a big family is developed among the participants. The strategy adopted is to involve the participants in the planning, organisation, direction, execution and the evaluation of each programme, through committees and arriving at decisions through a general consensus. In this process, the members pool their resources for the maximum benefit of the group. The participants are also given a training in planned spending since they have to prepare their own budgets for each programme. While this gives them a sense of responsibility and self-reliance, it also provides a training for leadership, through presiding over the various discussion sessions and at group meetings, proposing votes of thanks, receiving guests and so on.

**Magnitude of involvement:** The 19 Y.M.C.A.s in the Island have various programmes enumerated earlier which are designed to achieve the objectives listed above. The number of children and youth involved in these programmes during 1971 is given below\*:

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\* Y Director, National Council of Y.M.C.A.s of Ceylon.

Number		Annual Fees	
<i>Children</i>	<i>Youth</i>	<i>Children</i>	<i>Youth</i>
700	445	Rs. 1.00 to 15.00	Rs. 2.50 to 20.00

In addition to these figures, there were 231 children and youth of 3 Y.M.C.A.s whose breakdown between the two age categories have not been given. The total number of children and youth activity involved in Y.M.C.A. programmes in 1971 was therefore 1376.

There are many voluntary workers and helpers at Camps. For every 10 campers there is a voluntary leader. There are also several voluntary leaders who actively assist in the training programme numbers 1-4 given in page 141.

The impact of a training programme on the aspirations and feeling of achievement of a participant was described by an Organising Secretary in the following terms:

“It has been our experience that most of our participants come to have a good time – to meet and make new friends. Some come through curiosity and leave at the end of the Camp as better persons. They often say that it has been a wonderful experience of fellowship and fun. They learn the art of mixing freely, acquiring skills and team spirit in outdoor and indoor sports etc. The Track and Field Coaching Camp is one of our Skill Camps; here they leave the Camp having learnt the techniques of athletics”.....

**New Programmes for National Development:** The National Council of Y.M.C.A.s has shown a concern for national problems and has already launched development projects in the following three fields:

1. Training of 500 Athletic Coaches on an All-Island basis from 500 rural schools. This is a request made by Principals of rural schools as a consequence of the Athletic Coaching Camps conducted by the “Y” since 1964 for boys and girls. This is done in close collaboration with the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Sport.



2. A Music Project to teach the youth music. Music festivals and competitions on an inter-district basis have been planned.
3. A Pilot Project for self-employment of rural unemployed youth in mixed farming which has high priority in national development plans. This project is being launched under the National Y.M.C.A.s programme of Self-Employment Promotion in Rural Areas (SEPRA). This project has been launched with the co-operation and support of the Ministries of Planning, Agriculture and Public Administration.

It should be noted that only the programmes involving education and training of children and youth have been described above and that there are several other projects and programmes of the Y.M.C.A. which are concerned with adults.

**Observations:** Although an objective evaluation cannot be done in this brief study, at least three conclusions can be drawn. Firstly, these programmes are carefully structured and directed by trained personnel, in order to inculcate desirable values such as discipline, fairplay, team spirit, honesty, self-reliance etc. Secondly, the magnitude of participation in these programmes points out to the fact that however desirable these programmes are from the point of view of social development, their impact is on a relatively small fraction of the child and youth population in Sri Lanka. Unfortunately, the Y.M.C.A. is handicapped by a lack of resources, mainly financial, from expanding their programmes as fast as they would wish to cover the entire Island effectively. Thirdly, the National Council has entered a new field of development activity, which is different from the traditional Y.M.C.A. role. The four development projects which have been launched recently, to assist in the national development effort, are most commendable.

## **B VII. THE YOUNG WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION**

Like the Y.M.C.A. this is also one of the oldest organised youth movements for young women in Sri Lanka with 90 years of service.

The aim of the Y.W.C.A. is to meet the needs of women and girls, to help them to become fully developed personalities physically, mentally, and spiritually and educate them to be responsible citizens of their community, their country and the world.

Their organisation is similar to that of the Y.M.C.A. There are 17 Y.W.C.A.s and Fellowship Groups spread over 9 of the 22 districts in the Island. They are managed through local Boards of Directors elected by the members and their work is strengthened and co-ordinated by the National Council of Y.W.C.A.s in Sri Lanka.

The total membership in 1972 was 1708 made up of 1162 Seniors, 258 adolescents, and 288 Junior girls benefiting from Y.W.C.A. programmes at Community Centres etc.\*

### **Extension and Development**

Six of the 17 Y.W.C.A.s and Fellowship Groups had been formed during the past three years. Regular programmes catering mainly to the underprivileged groups have been started by them. These include the following:

#### **At the National Level**

1. As a follow-up of the Leadership Training Conference held in 1968, an Urban Community Development Programme was started in Colombo through which 40-50 girls from underprivileged homes benefit. Regular classes are conducted in sewing, handicrafts, crochet, pillow-lace, cookery, first aid, conversational English etc. The objective is to train girls for employment as home-aides, nurse-aides or to earn a living through self-employment. Two paid teachers are employed to conduct these classes.
2. Family Life Education Programme. Following a conference on the Role of Women in Nation Building, which was the theme at the 4th Annual Leadership Training Conference at which over 100 delegates from 13 National and Voluntary Organisations participated, a Leadership Seminar on Family Life Education was organised in October 1971. This was followed by a Family Life Education Week in June 1972 on an Islandwide basis. A Special Brochure

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\* 8th Triennial Report of the National General Secretary — 1969-1972.

was compiled in English, Sinhala and Tamil and distributed to all interested Ministries, Departments and Organisations. The interest stimulated during this special Week, has resulted in several new Fellowship Groups being formed in various parts of the Island.

3. The following are among the Leadership Training Leaflets prepared and distributed by the National Y.W.C.A.
  - (a) "Turn Ideas in Rupees" – a booklet with vivid ideas for fund-raising efforts for Voluntary Associations.
  - (b) Have You Tried?
  - (c) Leadership Responsibilities.
  - (d) Running a successful meeting.
  - (e) Responsibilities of Boards of Directors.
  - (f) A few Aids to effective Committee Work.
4. The Annual Youth Leadership Seminar in 1971 had, "Youth In National Development" as its theme.
5. Several *Yuvati* camps were also conducted at different venues lasting 2-3 days each. These are designed to help young girls to get together for a useful and enjoyable time. At all these camps special coaching sessions in cookery and handicrafts such as block printing, leather work, fabric painting, toy-making etc. are conducted.

#### **At the Local Level**

1. Almost all the local Y.W.C.A.s maintain libraries for the benefit of the community at large. At the National Headquarters, a lending library is maintained for the use of members and others.
2. The Colombo Y.W.C.A. has inaugurated a Career Guidance and Training Centre. The training includes Retail Selling and Marketing. Classes are conducted in swimming, nylon handbag-making, screen printing, art and cookery. Workshops are also held for home-makers.
3. The Jaffna Y.W.C.A. has a Finishing School with a 2 years training programme. There are 100 girls on roll and 4 full-time teachers.

4. The Panadura YWCA has a home-makers institute, weekly class on hair-dressing, conversational English classes, a Day Camp for Young Adults and a Kiddies Day. They also organised a Seminar on Leadership with the neighbouring YWCA groups. They have a full-time General Secretary.
5. The Matara YWCA conducts special classes for 40 girls in sewing, needlework, cookery, hygiene, conversational English and handicrafts.
6. The Kandy YWCA has a club for girls and young mothers and a Young Adults Group.
7. The Moratuwa YWCA has classes in flower-making, sewing, cookery and a Rainbow Club for the 18-25 year old girls.
8. The Galle YWCA has a Youth Club, Home-makers' class and a Sewing class for underprivileged girls.
9. At Bandarawela, which is a holiday resort in the hills, a YWCA Holiday Home is maintained for working girls.
10. At Moratumulla, a six-month's training course has been organised for 45 girls in scientific dress making. A nominal fee of Rs. 10 per month per student is charged. A Play Centre has also been organised here, 3 times a week to cater to the young boys and girls. A full-time worker is in charge of these. The YWCA hopes to adopt this village for a Pilot Project in family life education. A gift of 10 sewing machines and 10 needlework kits from CARE, has helped them to equip these sewing and needlework classes.

Only those programmes relating to children and youth have been described. The Y.W.C.A.s have many other activities for the benefit of older persons which do not fall within the ambit of this study.

### Finance

This organisation has made a commendable effort to raise sufficient funds through their own enterprise to finance their projects

and programmes. The most significant of these enterprises is the "Nearly New Shop" which the Association established a few years ago in Colombo. This is run on commercial lines. In 1971/72, the Association derived a profit of Rs. 23,075.00 from this venture. This constitutes about 66 per cent of the expenditure incurred by the Association in that year. The balance came from donations (Rs. 6,166.00), subscriptions and affiliation fees from local Y.W.C.A.s (Rs. 5,029.00), the Mutual Service Grant (Rs. 9,234.00) and other miscellaneous services including the Women Students' Hostel (Rs. 2,247.00). The receipts and expenditure statement for 1971/72 shows that there was an excess of income over expenditure amounting to about Rs. 9,500.00.

Although the magnitude of the programmes is relatively small, the fact that this Association has been able to execute them with income derived largely from their own efforts is a noteworthy feature.

In 1972/73, their proposed budget shows an estimated expenditure of Rs. 39,120.00 which is nearly Rs. 2,200.00 in excess of the actual expenditure in 1971/72. This additional expenditure is to be met entirely from the increased profits from the Nearly New shop.

### **THE YOUNG MEN'S BUDDHIST ASSOCIATION**

This organisation is 75 years old. There are today 50 Y.M.B.A.s in the country in both urban and rural areas.\* All of them are affiliated to the Y.M.B.A. headquarters in Colombo.

The objects of the Association are:

- (a) to provide facilities for and to foster, the study and the propagation of the Buddha Dhamma;
- (b) to encourage the practical observance of the Buddha Dhamma;
- (c) to promote unity and co-operation among buddhists;
- (d) to advance the moral, cultural, physical and social welfare of buddhists;
- (e) to promote the interests of Buddhism.

The membership consists of Honorary Members, Active Members which include both Ordinary and Life Members and Associate Members.

The Board of Management consists of the office bearers of the Association – the President, five Vice-Presidents, the Hony. General Secretary and the Hony. Treasurer – and 24 active members.

Provision to set up branch committees for Religious Activities, Religious Examinations, Social Service, Literary Activities, and Sports and Drama is provided, with powers to increase the number of such committees if necessary.

The membership of the Headquarter Association in Colombo stood at 899\* in 1972.

Hitherto this organisation has concentrated mainly on such programmes as religious education, the provision of hostel facilities to working men, and indoor and outdoor recreational facilities for its members. Most of the Y.M.B.A.s have organised libraries, in addition to the religious education classes. Pilgrimages to places of religious and historic significance are also regularly organised.

The main activity of the Y.M.B.A.s during the past 50 years has been the organisation and conducting of classes and discussions on Buddhism for children and youth. The religious schools which were conducted weekly with about 500 students at the inception, had an attendance, of around 450,000 students in the age group 5–20 years, supported by a voluntary staff of teachers numbering about 75,000 in 1970. The Association conducted a series of examinations for the various grades annually, and certificates were awarded. They had also enlisted the services of about 15,000 examination supervisors and invigilators on a voluntary basis. In 1970, with the election of the new government, this function was taken over by the Ministry of Cultural Affairs.

The Y.M.B.A. Headquarters in Colombo has recently become more directly concerned with national development and a programme for establishing a vocational training institute in a

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\* It has not been possible to obtain a breakdown of this membership in terms of age groups.

suburb of Colombo is at an advanced stage of planning. The land for this purpose is available and the building will be completed by December 1973. By March 1974, the machinery and equipment, will be installed and classes are scheduled to commence in March-April 1974.

Five courses of instruction to train carpenters and polishers, masons, fitters, tinkers, motor mechanics and light engineering craftsmen have been provided for. Each course of training will be of 3 years duration with an enrolment of 10 students per course. Those over 16 years of age with an education up to Grade 8 or above are eligible for enrolment. The total enrolment at this institute will therefore be 50 for the three-year period of training. Hostel facilities are also available to these trainees.

The total capital cost, inclusive of the buildings, machinery, hand tools and equipment is estimated at Rs. 400,000/-. A paid staff is employed to conduct the training.

The training is mainly for the benefit of adolescents and youth from destitute and deprived families.

Other programmes organised by the Y.M.B.A. headquarters which are mainly cultural in content are the following:

- (a) Weekly music and drama classes - to train youth in vocations related to the arts.
- (b) Weekly classes in folk dancing. The average attendance is 40.
- (c) Weekly classes in singing. The average attendance is 50.

A literary programme has also been started in 1972 to develop latent talent in literary composition and public speaking both in Sinhala and English.

Under the Sinhala programme, a competition was organised in 1972 for children, adolescents and youths under 21 years of age in the composition of verse. Both prepared and impromptu items are included. About 100 persons have entered and the finals are being worked out.

In the English programme, elocution contests have been organised irrespective of class, caste and creed. These are organised through the government schools, for junior boys and girls and senior boys and girls. 275 contestants participated (junior boys 90, junior girls 112, senior boys 13 and senior girls 60) and the finals were held in January 1973.

### Finances

The headquarters Association has been generously endowed by benefactors. For the year ending December 1971 their income was Rs. 741,830.93. Eighty per cent of this income (Rs. 596,196.00) was derived from the rent of floor space of the large modern building belonging to the Association in the commercial centre of Colombo.

Other sources of income were:

	Rs. cts.
Rent of hostel rooms ..	64,475.00
Hire of fans, visitors' fees, income from investments etc. ..	10,254.00
Hire of hall etc. ..	36,707.00
Donations and other sundry incomes ..	14,100.00
Membership subscriptions ..	13,222.00
	Rs. 138,758.00

The Association does not have to depend on other outside sources to finance its programmes.

### Observations

The Young Men's Buddhist Association of Sri Lanka has up to now exerted all its energies toward the development of the religious or spiritual aspects of life. It has in addition organised services of mercy in the recent past – services which non-buddhist organisations had organised as far back as 75–100 years ago.

It is only in the last year or two that this Association has focussed its attention on education and training of persons for national development. The potential for a broad-based programme of training for national development exists within this organisation. Enlightened and dedicated leadership within this organisation will be able to focus attention on national problems and issues and to



formulate projects and programmes to accelerate the pace of development of the peasantry in Sri Lanka who constitute the backbone of this country. As this organisation has already sufficient assets which yield a substantial annual income, it is hoped that the recent start made in the sphere of vocational training will gain momentum in the near future, with the inauguration of many more projects and programmes designed to help children, adolescents and youths in the countryside to become useful and productive citizens, both in their own interests and in the interests of the nation.

## SECTION C

### C I. THE DEPARTMENT OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT

This is a Government Department functioning under the Ministry of Public Administration, Local Government, Home Affairs and Justice.

The Department was inaugurated in 1947 when Sri Lanka emerged a politically independent state, for the achievement of the following objectives:

1. To bring about closer liaison between the people and government officials.
2. To co-ordinate the activities of government departments at the village level.
3. To harness the enthusiasm and voluntary efforts of the people for their own and for village development.

Under the programme, Rural Development Societies for men and women were formed in all rural parts of the Island. They function democratically and although in the early stages of the Movement, the older members of the community held positions of office in these societies, today the office bearers are more in the age group 20-35 years. Since these young office bearers can influence decisions in a society's activities, they constitute an important formal organisation, through which youth acquire a certain non-formal education and training and can influence the pace of change and development in rural Sri Lanka.

At the present time, there are 8,176 Rural Development Societies, of which 6,676 have a membership of men only or of men and women and 1,500 have a membership of women only.

A senior Government spokesman estimates that 30–35 per cent of the Societies are active and doing good and sustained development work in the village; a further 30–35 per cent are partially active – plunging into activity when a village need or problem is manifested, resolving the problem and then slipping into inactivity until such time as the village is faced with another need or problem. The balance 30–40 per cent are said to be inactive. We accept this as a very fair assessment of the Movement as it exists today and compares favourably with a United Nations Report of the Evaluation of the Rural Development Movement in Ceylon (Sri Lanka) conducted in 1962\*.

### **The Rural Development Society**

This is a voluntary organisation of the people of a village or group of small villages whose objectives are to resolve the felt needs of the village on the principle of self-help. Projects of a technical nature involving some financial outlay, receive such technical and financial assistance from the Department. The membership fee is ten cents per member, but this is not compulsory. The society meets at 2–4 month intervals generally, to discuss village problems and needs and to formulate and implement a plan of action. In the case of active societies, the Committee of the Society meets at least monthly.

The men's societies and mixed societies engage in the construction of access roads to the village, community buildings to serve as meeting halls, dispensaries, libraries, schools, sinking of wells, participation in transplanting of rice fields, clearing of irrigation channels and desilting of irrigation reservoirs, organisation of rural industries, construction of houses for homeless peasants, preparation of burial grounds etc.

The women's societies as well as the women in mixed societies set up home gardens, health programmes, needle work and sewing centres etc.

### **Better Family Living Programme**

Since 1972, the department runs 147 needlework centres. These are of one year's duration and in addition to the training in sewing and needlework, training in cookery, nutrition, population

\* *Report of a Rural Development Evaluation Mission in Ceylon, United Nations.* TAO/CEY/12 – 18th October 1962.

planning for both married and unmarried women, budgeting, food preservation, laundry, health, First Aid, child care, sick nursing, personal and environmental hygiene and sanitation are also provided. In addition to the field staff of the Rural Development Department, the local staff of the related departments assist in conducting these classes. Those attending these centres are generally in the age group 16–35 years. 4,281 young girls participated and benefited from these activities in 1972.

### **Pilot Project**

The department has recently initiated a Pilot Project to develop 500 villages on an intensive scale. Approximately 3 such villages fall within each electorate. The selection of these villages is done by the Divisional Revenue Officer, who is the chief executive of the central government in the Division and the Rural Development Officer, serving in that area, on the following criteria:

1. The selected village should have a fairly active Rural Development Society.
2. It should be easily accessible.
3. It should have no major problems of a social, economic or political nature.

These two officers select 6 villages which are submitted to the Divisional Development Council which recommends three of them to the District Development Council, for approval. When this recommendation is approved, each of the selected villages chooses 10 young men and women in the age group 18–35 years who undergo a two-weeks' training at one of the training institutes of the Department. When the trainees return to the village after training, the Rural Development Society convenes a meeting of the whole village at which the village needs are discussed in the light of a village survey they have conducted, a 3-year programme is phased, and an annual implementation programme prepared. At this meeting, an Implementation Committee of 10–15 persons is selected by general consensus. They are usually young persons. Sub-committees of this Implementation Committee are set up for the implementation of the respective items of this plan for which different groups of individuals in the village volunteer or are selected. An evaluation of the progress is done at the end of each year with

the assistance of government officials. At the time of reporting 300 village plans have been prepared and the target of 500 village plans is expected to be reached soon.

Unfortunately, no information was available at the time of writing.

### **Training**

The department runs 10 Training Centres spread through the Island. At the present time, the training is confined to those who are drawn from the 500 Village Pilot Projects.

Residential facilities are available for 30-35 trainees at each training centre.

The duration of the training is two weeks.

A senior Rural Development Officer is in charge of each centre, assisted by a panel of lecturers from related government departments. Twelve such courses are conducted per year at each centre. In 1971/72, a total of approximately 3,500 young persons underwent training.

The cost of board and lodging for the trainees is met by the government. The training covers, among other subjects, methods of conducting a village survey, programming and implementation.

The above training is followed by a 1-2 day Seminar in each village. This is made to coincide with the day on which the village discusses their 3-year plan of development. The officer-in-charge of the Training Centre also attends this village Seminar. During 1970/71, a total of 230 such Seminars had been conducted.

Attached to each Training Centre are 4 villages in the vicinity which serve as Demonstration Villages for those coming to the Centre for training. The Officer-in-charge of the Training Centre is responsible for organising the development programmes in these 4 villages.

Refresher courses of 2 weeks' duration are also conducted at these Centres for the field staff of the department. One or two such courses are conducted each year for 30 officers at a time.

### **Shramadana** (Voluntary labour)

In addition to the Community Development programmes which village people undertake for the benefit of themselves and the village, they also undertake programmes of Shramadana. A shade of difference is drawn between these two. In the former, people contribute their self-help and mutual help to achieve better conditions of living for themselves and their village. In the latter, people of one or more villages will get together to implement a project which will not necessarily benefit either the participants or their respective villages. The project may be in an entirely different village, e.g. participating in the construction of a road to that village, or the construction of a house for a homeless and destitute person in that village.

### **Funding**

Government funds around Rs. 1.6 million are annually apportioned to the department for capital expenditure. These are used (1) mainly for effecting improvements on the self-help projects undertaken by village societies – such as construction of culverts along roads built by the people, building up a well constructed by them, providing cement and a permanent roof for a community building erected by them, etc. and (2) for the training programmes of the department.

Food Aid from the World Food Programme is made available for those participating in Shramadana projects.

Aid is also provided by the Institute for International Partnership of the Adenauer Foundation of the Federal Republic of Germany, to meet part costs for training and village development, for which funds from the votes of the department are not available. This aid amounted to Rs. 750,000 in 1972.

### **Staff**

This programme is supported in the field by the following full-time paid staff:

- 22 Supervisors of Rural Development (one for each District);
- 11 Inspectors of Works (one for 2 Districts);
- 12 Needlework Supervisors (one for approximately 2 Districts);

- 145 Rural Development Officers (one for each Division and one for each training centre);
- 147 Needlework & Home Economics Demonstrators (one for each Needlework Centre).

In addition, there are 400 Community Development Workers who are trained volunteers drawn from the villages, to function as catalysts and agents of change in their respective villages. They are generally in the age group 25–35 years and are paid an out-of-pocket allowance of Rs. 30 per month. Schedules of the work done by the Rural Development Societies and the training facilities offered by the Department in 1971/72 are in Annex 5.

### **General Observations**

This islandwide Movement affords an opportunity for the youth to play an active role in social and economic change and development in his village. It also provides to the youth of both sexes an awareness of village needs and problems and how to resolve them, and also an awareness for better family living. The programme also provides ample opportunities for all age groups in the village to participate jointly, through self-help and mutual help, for the improvement of living conditions in the village. This is particularly so, in the urban, semi-urban and the relatively more developed regions of rural Sri Lanka where educational levels are relatively high, economic activity is diversified and the traditional structure of the extended family is in the process of change. In the more remote rural regions on the other hand, where traditional patterns still persist, the participation of youth in decision making for change and development is still not effective; but the education and training which are available to them through the Rural Development Movement, the Lanka Mahila Samitis and the Divisional Development Councils, are likely to provide opportunities for the youth to take a more active role in the years ahead, in spite of the resistance they will encounter from their elders.

Social and economic change and development is a process which is very slow in traditional societies, but which can be accelerated with enlightened leadership and the youth playing a more positive role in decision making at the village level.

This movement was started 25 years ago, but the impact on youth and development has been somewhat slow. One of the

important factors contributing to this, is the fact that the department's resources in terms of personnel and finances were limited. Since the entire rural countryside had to be covered by this Movement, the Department had no alternative but to spread the resources thinly throughout the country both in terms of its personnel and financial resources. The recent pilot project of 500 villages which have been selected for intensive planned development, is indicative of a major shortcoming of the programme in the past. The objective appears to be to concentrate the training programme for the development of these 500 villages. The pilot project itself is well structured and integrated with national plans. But this pilot project covers only 2½ per cent of all the villages in the Island. If this project proves a success, the resources of this department must be vastly expanded as soon as possible, so that the impact of the programme can be felt throughout Sri Lanka, with the youth playing a dominant and enlightened leadership role in rural development.

Another contributory factor is the political system obtaining in Sri Lanka. With parliamentary elections every 4-5 years, and a consequent change of government, the newly elected government is generally suspicious of the loyalties of village level organisations like the Rural Development Society. Consequently, the new government extends lukewarm support or even denies support to these village organisations, however well and effectively they may have functioned for the development of the village. As a result, these village organisations and the members in them, feel frustrated and disappointed and lapse into inactivity. With a subsequent change of government, the revival of these village organisations become difficult and time consuming, and is invariably at the expense of development at the village, regional, and national levels.

This highlights the urgent need for alternative socio-political institutions which will ensure a sustained continuity in social and economic change which will in turn result in sustained development and growth.

## C II. LANKA JATIKA SARVODAYA SHRAMADANA SANGAMAYA\*

A transliteration of the above reads, "The national harnessing of the goodness of all, for the awakening or liberation of all in Sri

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\* The general principles, objectives, together with a clarification of these as well as details relating to management etc. are at Annex 7,

Lanka". This organisation which was founded in 1958 has launched out on a Movement for Sarvodaya (harnessing of the goodness of all for the awakening or liberation of all). It has since been incorporated by an Act of Parliament and is a Government approved charity.

The organisation has gained considerable international recognition partly on account of the contribution it has made in national development and more particularly on account of the philosophical content of its programme.

The Movement has therefore been examined in detail and depth both in relation to its main objectives and achievements as well as its relevance to other Third World countries.

At present there are 428 members out of a total of 1,172 persons who applied for membership, comprising of:

- |                           |  |
|---------------------------|--|
| (a) Students (67)         | - paying a membership fee of Re. 1/- p.a. (18-21 years).                                   |
| (b) Others (241)          | - paying a membership fee of Rs. 5/- p.a. (over 21 years, or employed and under 21 years). |
| (c) **Sampath Dayaka (40) | - paying a membership fee of Rs. 15/- p.a. (no age limit).                                 |
| (d) Life Member (47)      | - paying a membership fee of Rs. 100/- p.a. (no age limit).                                |
| (e) Hony. Member (25)     | - no fee - Clergy of all religions.  |
| (f) International (8)     | - Those who have participated in Sarvodaya programmes.                                     |

The following is the breakdown of this membership by ethnic groups:

Sinhalese	..	383
Tamil	..	23
Muslims	..	8
Burghers	..	3
Others	..	11

There are 306 members classified as coming from rural areas while the remaining 122 are from urban areas.

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\*\* The English equivalent is "Donor of Wealth".



The organisation of the movement at the village level is described below.

### **The Group Formation at the Village Level**

There are seven categories of group formation at the village level. Some of these groups have already been formed in most of the villages in which the movement operates while the other groups are in the process of being formed. In three of these villages all seven groups have been formed. These groups are briefly described below.

#### **(i) The "Singithi Hamuwa"**

"*Singithi*" refers to the infant age group up to about 7 years. It is the age at which much love and fondling from the whole community is desired. In community organisation this has a strong cohesive value among the adults, because from every family an infant can be enrolled in this group. "*Hamuwa*" means a place where infants can freely congregate though they do not have the capacity or ability to organise themselves. At the functional level, this group is divided into two – those below the age of  $3\frac{1}{2}$  years and those in the age group  $3\frac{1}{2}$ –7 years. Those in the lower age group are closely associated with the mothers' group or *Mau Haula*. Those in the age group  $3\frac{1}{2}$ –7 years meet at the pre-school centre where they spend at least 3 hours daily under the care and guidance of a trained pre-school helper. The programmes designed for this age group are for the physical, mental and psychological well-being and the development of the sociability of the child.

These infant groups were first organised in 1971 and to date, there are 60 such *Singithi Hamuwas* in as many villages, with female helpers, trained at the Sarvodaya Institute, to organise the activities at each *Hamuwa*. The average daily attendance at a pre-school centre is around 45 infants while the enrolment is between 60 and 80 infants per centre.

#### **(ii) The "Singithi Haula"**

This formation includes all children in a village in the age group 7–14 years. "*Haula*" means a group that is capable of organising themselves, as opposed to the "*Hamuwa*". This age-group are of school-going age and in fact most of them are

attending school. Nevertheless, in the more backward regions of Sri Lanka, where the Sarvodaya Movement is operating, the number of children of school-going age who are actually attending school, is much lower than the national average. These children do not attend school because they do not have the resources to purchase clothes and books for the purpose.

### Objectives

The following five objectives are consciously emphasised:

- (a) to organise the attitudinal characteristics of the child to think in terms of a world community of children, irrespective of class, caste, religion, race, colour etc.;
- (b) to enable the children to become conscious of their rights in terms of the United Nations' Children's Charter – ensuring the love and protection from parents and elders; ensuring also a balanced diet, personal cleanliness, educational facilities, play, recreation, leisure and rest;
- (c) to make them conscious of the historical and traditional values such as the cultivation of good habits, spiritual values, respect for elders, and the protection and cultivation of those traditional habits, customs, values, beliefs and sentiments which are aids to the building of a Sarvodaya Social Order;
- (d) to enable the child to appreciate his traditional culture by helping him to understand important historical events particularly through art, music, song, dance and drama.
- (e) to help them to discover their latent talents and potentialities and to make them concerned and activate them to assist less fortunate children both in their own country and abroad.

These "*Haulas*" were first formed in 1968 and today there are 160 of them with an enrolment of over 30,000.

### Functions of the Singithi Haula

These include the following:—ensuring the ideal of 100 per cent attendance at school by helping the needy with clothes and school books; organising medical services and other programmes for

the physically and mentally handicapped, utilising the available governmental and voluntary facilities; organisation of children's farms and assisting home gardening projects, not only with educational and hobby motives, but with economic incentives too; organisation of a weekly hour for narration of folk tales and folk songs by a village elder, in order to provide a continuity in cultural, social and economic change and development; organisation of indoor and outdoor games – specially traditional children's drama, musical evenings with folk song and folk dance; promotion of activities to ensure neat handwriting; essay composition, song and poem recitals etc.

Classes are also organised to help children in school subjects in which they are weak, to make toys, collection of items of interest and in environmental studies.

Educational tours and exhibitions, cinema shows, a children's day, Shramadana activities, religious classes and daily religious practices are also functions of this *Haula*. These activities are closely allied with those of the infant group.

A traditional custom which is being consciously revived within the Sarvodaya programme, is that young children in every home are trained to put aside, a handful of rice into an earthen vessel each day, from what is to be cooked. When the vessel is full, it is brought to the meeting place in the village and sold at least at the prevailing market price. The proceeds are utilised for further Shramadana projects in that village and for the provision of clothing and school books to the needy in the village. Similarly, a child persuades the parents to set aside at least one coconut tree in his garden, the proceeds of which are utilised for village development.

This "*Haula*" is reported to be the most influential and capable of influencing all the other "*haulas*". This group has also the largest enrolment. It has successfully eradicated such vices as gambling, illicit distillation of liquor etc. from their villages. The strategy adopted by the group is to appeal to their elders to abstain from these vices, or the group may surround the premises of an illicit distillery or a gambling den and sing aloud Sarvodaya songs which refer to the evils befalling those addicted to these vices. This strategy has proved effective, as resistance is seldom shown, since the adults cannot and will not attack children. In

the few cases where this strategy had failed, the Movement had solicited Police assistance without involving the village groups.

### (iii) Yovun Haula

This formation comprises 15–30 year olds of both sexes in the village. These were started in 1969. There are 120 of these formations today with a provisional enrolment of 12,000. Of this number 845 have so far been enrolled as members after a training at the Sarvodaya training institute. This training and enrolment is continued. The enrolment is slow as the Sarvodaya Movement wants to be certain that the Sarvodaya principles have been accepted by each youth before full membership is granted.

#### **Objectives**

- (a) to create unity among the youth;
- (b) to develop the personality of the individual;
- (c) to provide educational and vocational training and guidance and to help them to find employment;
- (d) to develop leadership among the youth;
- (e) to make them aware of their rights through education, training, employment and participation in the organisational life of the community.

Personality development involves self-discipline, a scientific attitude and a historical perspective in examining problems. Vocational training and guidance (e.g. providing management skills for the village level co-operative, the Stores Society, Farms, rural industries and other economic ventures such as metal work, wood work, batik printing etc.) is provided through involvement in pre-school activities, services for children, library facilities, adult education and further education at the village level as well as at their training institute at the Headquarters.

This youth group is said to be the most dynamic force which motivates all other groups for development planning and implementation. The efforts of Sarvodaya are said to bear the maximum results when this group functions effectively. They also participate in joint projects with their counterparts in nearby villages, thereby bringing about mutual friendship and co-operation.

Youth of exceptional ability are given opportunities for participation in projects in more distant places, which are organised by the centre.

#### (iv) Govi Haula

This is the farmers' formation. They were first organised in 1969. There are 42 such formations with an enrolment of 5,800 members.

#### Objectives

- (a) to effect unity among rice farmers in particular and all farmers in general;
- (b) to bring about an awareness among farmers about the realities of their social and economic situation and to win freedom of participation in agricultural policy making;
- (c) to help farmers to increase their income through higher efficiency and to improve their education and health;
- (d) to revive customs, traditions, ceremonies and the language of song and dance which are connected with rice farming.
- (e) to win the lost recognition and rights of the farmers.

Traditional practices which were associated with agricultural activity and rice cultivation in particular are being revived under the Sarvodaya programme. The following are some of the traditional practices which are being revived and implemented:

- (1) the cultivators jointly decide on the auspicious day and time to commence cultivation;
- (2) they decide on the basis of sharing the work of cultivation, clearing of irrigation channels, transplanting, weeding, gathering the harvest and of sharing the produce;
- (3) they decide on the subsequent ceremonies to thank the gods.

Traditionally, the cultivation season commenced with the king going into the field at the auspicious time and actively participating in the work with the peasants. This symbolised the principles of equality, sharing of labour, right speech and constructive activity. This practice is yet to be revived.

**(v) Mau Haula**

This formation is for the mothers. They were first organised only in 1972. So far there are only two groups with 16 members.

**Objectives**

- (a) to bring the mothers together with the common objective of emphasising the importance of motherhood;
- (b) to help the mother to develop her personality in accordance with the needs of the nation and the world, our culture, peace and progress in the family, family welfare and the bringing up of children;
- (c) to organise programmes for the moral and spiritual development of the family and for the education of children;
- (d) to train mothers for enlightened leadership and to inculcate in them and the family the principles of Sarvodaya;
- (e) to strive to achieve by non-violent means the rights of mothers to participate as equals with men, in village, national and world development efforts.

**(vi) Samadun Haula**

This comprises the general elders group who do not belong to any of the other formations (e.g. teachers, craftsmen, labourers, government servants working in the area etc.). These have not been organised.

**Objectives**

To ensure that no one in the village is left out of the organisational life of the community. In village development plans and programmes their services are solicited and obtained. At present they participate as individuals – but will do so as groups once they are organised into the formation.

**(vii) (a) Gramodaya Mandalaya** is the village awakening council. In the early stages it was an ad-hoc body selected from among the most enthusiastic Sarvodaya workers in the village. When it begins to function satisfactorily the various active “*haulas*” in the village will elect members to this Council so as to represent all the different interest groups in the village. This is a non-statutory

voluntary body composed of Sarvodaya workers. This body is responsible for the initiation of development projects and programmes through Shramadana camps, the selection of suitable persons for training at the Sarvodaya Institute and at the other field training camps, assisting the Sarvodaya personnel with the help of the present organisation in village socio-economic surveys, formulation of short and long-term village development plans, organising the productive capacity of the village for maximum productivity, to ensure that every worker receives his due share for his labour and regulating and developing the cultural life of the people.

Of the 400 odd villages in which the Sarvodaya development scheme has been started, 260 have already set up these village awakening councils. However, mainly due to the lack of finances for capital development, the majority of these councils have not been able to function at maximum capacity as envisaged.

**(b) Grama Swarajya Mandalaya.** This is a council for village self-government which is the final objective of the Sarvodaya Movement. It is expected to emerge as a natural development from the village awakening council. In three Sarvodaya villages these self-governing councils have already come into being. The organising secretary states that in these three villages even the political awareness and organisation have already been achieved. For example, in the village of Uruwela, their *Swarajya Mandalaya* has on their own initiative organised under its wing, 13 sub-groups with specific functions assigned to the following:- communications and roads; sanitation, health and medical care; pre-school education; formal education; functional literacy; irrigation; agricultural production; rural industry; co-operative development; savings and credit; sport and recreation; children's and adults' libraries; spiritual and religious affairs.

The village of Uruwela with a population of 90 families is reported to have been very backward about 5 years ago. Today the village had developed through the Sarvodaya programme and the people are proud of their own school, community hall, temple, dispensary, sanitary toilets for every home, sufficient community wells, an industrial workshop, burial ground, co-operative stores society and a road frontage to every house. The village is also free of crime.

A sum of nearly Rs. 30,000 has been spent on the development of this village with aid received from the 11-11-11 Campaign in Belgium. The total value of the developments is estimated at Rs. 120,000, the balance representing the contribution of the village, through the donation of land, labour, materials, cash etc.

All members of the seven village formations (haulas) assemble together once a week, as a general rule. This assembly is called the *Gami Pawul Hamuwa* (the village family gathering). This assembly is designed to convey the idea that the whole village population are members of a single family.

This weekly get-together is functional in character. For instance, the able-bodied men and women participate in a physical activity which is of common benefit to the village; or they may render assistance to a family or a group of families who need to resolve a pressing problem. This assembly is also availed of to communicate to all, the different activities and programmes that are being decided upon by the respective "haulas". This get-together is also a cultural and a ceremonial occasion with items such as a children's play, a bana preaching (religious sermon), a lecture by an outsider, a film show etc. being organised. Through all these activities, the attention of everyone is focussed on the joy of living. It is consciously emphasised and kept up.

On an inquiry as to why financial assistance was not sought from the District Development Councils established by the government, we were informed that these Councils are of recent origin and in some districts have hardly reached the stage where financial aid and expertise would flow from them to the village. Furthermore, the programme of the Development Councils had not specified the Sarvodaya organisation as an agency through which development could be channelled into a village. On representations made, this omission is being rectified by the government.

Nevertheless, two Divisional Development Councils in the Anuradhapura and Galle districts had requested Sarvodaya to organise and run a co-operative agricultural farm in each instance with joint participation of the government and Sarvodaya. These farms are reported by the Organising Secretary to be the most successful projects in those divisions.\*

\* It has not been possible, for want of time, to visit this project and to assess its achievements in relation to comparable projects in non Sarvodaya villages in the same District.



Most of the activities undertaken through the Sarvodaya movement fall into the category of community development programmes, such as the construction of school buildings, village roads, sanitation, health and medical care, wells, libraries, burial grounds, development of agricultural and rural industries, etc. These programmes come within the ambit of functions of the central government or the local government authority. The co-operation of the local government authority or the local officials of the central government (as the case may be) is generally sought to ensure the maintenance of the projects. Where the co-operation of the government's extension services is readily forthcoming, the movement has been able to achieve the maximum results.

The foregoing description of the Lanka Jatika Sarvodaya Shramadana Sangamaya is what we have been able to gather from the several interviews we have had with the President, the Organising Secretary and others of the Executive Council of this Movement. It has, however, not been possible, due to the very early date for the completion of this study, to visit one or more of the villages in which the Movement is claimed to have been developed and to conduct a research inquiry relating to the extent to which the basic philosophy of the Movement has permeated among the people of these villages.

The Marga Institute has plans to conduct a study of the Sarvodaya Movement at the village level, the findings of which should become available in due course. Such a study will involve an examination of the extent to which the Sarvodaya principles have been understood, accepted and internalised by the leaders of the several group formations at the village level, as well as by the members who constitute these groups.

There are, however, some areas of Sarvodaya activity which need to be spotlighted on the findings of the present study. Firstly, the Sarvodaya principles are designed to create a new social order in which hate, acquisitiveness, avarice and competition, are replaced by love, respect, sharing, total community and participation. Nevertheless, the rate at which these principles can be diffused through the nation—not only through the peasantry but also through the elite and the intelligentsia—in the face of major social and economic problems and competing political forces, will be a determining factor for the success of this Movement. As a movement, the

programmes have been introduced only into about 400 odd villages out of a total of over 22,000 villages in Sri Lanka. This hardly constitutes 2 per cent of the total population. Secondly, the Sarvodaya organisation, as at present, will not be able to spread its influence over a wide population in a reasonably short period of time. Thirdly, the movement is not adequately geared to an extensive programme of employment creation and for increased productivity. The rapid expansion of employment opportunities and increased local productivity are twin problems which must be resolved with the least possible delay if change and development are to be effected in an orderly manner. The magnitudes of these two problems are indeed enormous. The Sarvodaya movement by itself will not be able to tackle these major challenges. If it is to succeed, it is increasingly important that the programmes for generating more economic activity, particularly in the rural sector, and for increasing productivity, initiated both by governmental and non-governmental organisations, should be closely linked. Furthermore, the Movement as it functions today, has to be strengthened by an institutional framework, closely associated with Sarvodaya, to spearhead a programme to generate more rural employment coupled with increased productivity.

In the context of the prevailing political climate in the country, it is not possible to hazard an expert guess on the extent to which governmental and non-governmental organisations will co-operate fully with the Sarvodaya programme. Nor will Sarvodaya by itself be able to initiate a viable programme for increased employment and productivity on a national scale. Such a programme will entail the setting up of a major organisation manned by personnel, not only inspired and motivated by Sarvodaya principles, but also possessing a wide range of specialised knowledge and skills in the fields of management, agriculture, animal husbandry, large and small scale industry, and so on. A separate organisation, closely aligned with Sarvodaya must come into existence quickly, if this movement is to be an effective and successful instrument for social, economic, and political change and development. Fourthly, the membership in the organisation indicates that out of a total of 428 members, there are as many as 235 who can be classified among the intelligentsia. They include lecturers and teachers (94), lawyers (5), doctors (10), clergy (25), public and private sector administrators (27), Industrialists (21), Engineers

(5), research officers (4) and business assistants (44). Although over 50 per cent of the membership fall into this category, the movement has not as yet made a significant impact on the general body of intellectuals in the country. Its influence at the secondary and tertiary levels of education, both among teachers and students, is also hardly significant at this stage.

### C III. THE JAYCEES AND THE LIONS CLUB

These two organisations were introduced into Sri Lanka about 20 years ago. Their activities are centred round leadership development. The Jaycees have 10 Chapters with a membership of about 500. They engage in Community Development projects, Family Planning projects, Export Promotion projects and Management Training projects in which both members and non-members can participate. It is mostly young persons who participate in these projects. While community development and family planning projects are designed to help both urban and rural communities, the export promotion and management training projects assist the English-speaking youth in urban centres. It should be appreciated that the latter training provides skills in two fields in which trained and experienced personnel are not available in adequate numbers in Sri Lanka and as such they meet an urgent and important requirement in the country's development.

The Lions Clubs which were started in 1958, organised Leo Clubs in 1968 as a consequence of the expansion of their activities. Membership in Leo Clubs is for the 15-24 year age group. There are 12 Leo Clubs today with a membership of 300. A few of them are in urban schools. Their activities include Community Development projects, Social Service projects, Emergency Relief projects, Educational projects such as conducting English classes, Shramadana and Seminars for members and non-members on subjects relating to national problems and national development. Most of these projects are for the benefit of the poorer sectors of rural and urban youth.

Considering the magnitude of the young population in Sri Lanka, the impact of these two projects is relatively small. The impact on rural youth is smaller still.

These are young organisations in this country, but considering the varied types of expertise and other resources their memberships possess, they should be able to engage in a wider field which will benefit a larger segment of the young population, particularly in the rural regions.

#### C IV. THE SRI LANKA RED CROSS SOCIETY

The Society had its beginnings in Sri Lanka about 35 years ago. For the greater period of its existence, its activities centred around the larger towns and cities. In 1968, a conscious effort was made to introduce the Red Cross into rural areas.

There are today over 10,000 members, most of whom are young persons. About 60 per cent are rural youth. The juniors are organised into 66 links of which 20 are in urban areas and 46 in rural areas.

First Aid and Home Nursing are the two main fields in which training is provided for its members. Over 1,500 members are already qualified in these two fields.

A Red Cross training is also provided to school teachers attending some of the residential teacher training colleges. The intention is that when these teachers go back to their schools, they will be able to organise Red Cross Links among their pupils.

At the request of several industrial institutions and government organisations, training classes in First Aid have been conducted for their representatives. This has enabled them to set up their own First Aid Posts manned by trained personnel.

With the co-operation of the Ministry of Health, a practical training is provided to those qualified in First Aid and Home Nursing, by being given an opportunity to work in some government hospitals in Colombo and elsewhere, as nurse aides, in a voluntary capacity.

The Society's detachments establish First Aid Posts and provide emergency services during national disasters caused by floods, cyclones, tidal waves etc. They also provide First Aid services at all religious and national events at which large gatherings congregate.

In introducing Red Cross into rural areas, new elements which were considered useful in the context of present day problems in Sri Lanka, were also included.

For instance, sewing and needlework centres were established in villages. Sewing machines and the training of instructresses were provided by the parent society.

Weekly cookery classes are conducted at the Headquarters for the benefit of both members and non-members. The average attendance is 25 and a nominal fee is charged. A milk centre has been started in a village occupied by 30 working class families. The Society has also organised the cultivation of a two-acre plot of paddy in order to interest its members in scientific farming.

### **Finance**

The Society's main sources of revenue are from membership fees, an annual flag day, benefit performances, donations from the mercantile sector, contributions in kind from sister societies abroad and a grant from the government to meet part costs of a malnutrition clinic run by the Society at the premier Children's Hospital in Colombo.

## **C V. RELIGIOUS EDUCATION**

Among the main religious groups in Sri Lanka are the Buddhists, Christians, Hindus and Muslims. Each of these religious organisations has its own programme of religious instruction, education and activities, which are conducted mainly for children and youth. Almost every church, temple and mosque has a school attached to it, where religious classes are held. Since particulars relating to these have not been systematically collected, it is difficult to estimate completely the total number of schools and the numbers attending them.

In the case of the Buddhists, the Young Men's Buddhist Association (Y.M.B.A.) is the principal centre which conducts religious classes, sermons, discussions, meditation classes and other religious activity programmes every week and on Full-Moon days. The Dhamma Schools which conduct the religious classes and discussions were started by the Y.M.B.A. 50 years ago but these have now been taken over by the Department of

Cultural Affairs. The Dhamma Schools had an approximate attendance of 450,000 students in the age group 5 – 20 years every year, and 75,000 voluntary teachers. A series of examinations for the various grades were held annually and certificates awarded. They had about 15,000 examination supervisors who were also voluntary workers.

There are a number of Sunday Schools grouped under the various Churches and Missions. The number of schools and those attending them are set out in Table I below.

TABLE I

	<i>No. of schools</i>	<i>No. of students attending</i>
Church of Ceylon	55	4,000
Baptist	14	450
Pentecostal Mission	32	500
The Methodist Church*	1	330
Seventh Day Adventists	25	1,500 (including adults)
Roman Catholic Church†	225 (approx.)	29,000

Some of them have organised youth groups between the ages 15 – 25 years who hold open air services, stage plays, organise discussions etc. The Church of Ceylon Youth Movement has a strength of 3,000 students and undergraduates.

Similarly, the Hindus have Sunday School Classes held at the Ramakrishna Mission Hall. Sunday Schools for the age group 6 – 16 years are attended by over 500 students. There are also classes held for those 18 years and over, both on Saturdays and Sundays. The Saturday classes are attended by about 30 – 40, while on Sunday there is an attendance of 75 – 80 persons. They are also taught the Gita and music.

The Muslims too have Sunday Schools or *Ahadiya* Schools, as they call them, run by the *Ahadiya* Movement. They are attached to schools and mosques which cover the entire Island. All teachers are volunteers. Apart from the Sunday Schools which are

\* Figures indicate the strength in only one principal Sunday School. Total intake of students is not available.

† Figures for only Colombo District.

conducted for students from Grade I to the G.C.E. level, there are other organisations and youth movements. There is the Moors Islamic Cultural Home and *Quran-Madrasas* where children and youth are taught Arabic and the Quran. The Ceylon Moors Youth League train teachers from schools. They teach them Arabic songs and folk dances which they can then teach their classes. The Youth and Women's organisation organise both cultural and religious activities such as recitals (vocal), group singing, debates, contests etc.

In addition to the above programmes of religious education and training, within the framework of the respective religious organisations, it should be noted that religion is a compulsory subject in the country's formal education system.

### Conclusions

The efforts at non-formal education that have been described in this study can now be placed in the framework of the objective that have been briefly discussed in the introductory comments. It would be necessary to examine to what extent the non-formal education programmes that are studied, include the elements which have been identified as part of a comprehensive non-formal education system in the context of the educational needs of the community. For example, one might ask, to what extent do these non-formal education programmes supplement the efforts in the formal education system by filling the gaps in that system in regard to occupational training and work orientation to the school leavers who have not acquired a specific occupational or professional skill in the formal school system? Then to what extent do these programmes fill the gaps in the formal education system in regard to the development of social skills and disciplines, character training and formation of moral values and attitudes? Third, how does the non-formal education system as it exists at present, fulfil the educational needs that are inherent in the process of modernising and transforming the rural economy? Is there a substantial element in the non-formal education programme which effectively transfers modern know-how and technology, inculcates a scientific outlook and raises the managerial capability of farmers and those engaged in low income occupations in the non-modern sector? Is there at present a conceptual framework within which the various elements of the non-formal education programme are co-ordinated and

directed purposively to the objectives that have been set out? Is there institutional machinery within the governmental system to effect such co-ordination? Finally, what is the size and impact of the programmes that are being implemented, and what is the extent of participation in these programmes?

It would be possible to identify points at which many of the programmes that have been described touch the objectives of non-formal education as enumerated above. Many of the programmes with a vocational or occupational training content attempt to fill a gap in the formal education system. Institutions such as the Diyagala Boys' Town, the Enderawatte Farm, the Institute for training in electronics and radio mechanism are all geared to imparting occupational skills which are related directly to the work environment and the market demand for skills in the community. A large number of programmes that have been described, such as the programme of the Y.M.C.A., the Lanka Mahila Samithi and the Rural Development programme seek to provide leadership training, character formation, personality development, the formation of social skills and so on. The efforts of the Agricultural Extension drive by the government and the Co-operative Movement are connected vitally to the government programme to educate the community for the tasks of development. Therefore, each of these programmes in its own field performs an important social function.

In the programmes which fall into the first category this study has drawn attention to some of the special features which distinguish the non-formal education programme of non-governmental institutions from many of the governmental programmes. The programmes in these non-governmental institutions have been imaginatively designed and linked closely to the occupational needs and the demands for skills in the existing labour market. Evidence indicates that a majority of the trainees in these institutions have succeeded in obtaining gainful employment or self-employment. Several factors have contributed to their success. First, as already stated, the training programmes themselves have identified the skills, the occupations and the trades which can be applied readily to gainful employment. The limited size of the programmes has no doubt by itself contributed to their effectiveness and success, unlike government programmes which, as in the case of the Junior Technical Institute, have had to cater to a large number of trainees regardless



of the demand for the output of these institutions. The non-governmental agencies have been able to limit their intake on a more rational assessment of employment opportunities for their trainees. But most important of all, the trainees of these institutions have enjoyed a better competitive position in the labour market on account of the quality of the training they have received. By and large, employers have shown great readiness to absorb the output of these institutions as the trainees have not only acquired skills but the right attitudes to work, the sense of discipline and the social responsibility which would make them valuable citizens. It is evident that employers have been ready to place a very high premium on these qualities. When these have been combined with high technical standards the trainees decidedly enjoy a comparative advantage over their competitors.

Likewise, the programmes in the second category ranging from those that are directed at young age groups such as the Boy Scouts' Movement, and the Girl Guides' Movement, to the programmes which cover a wider age span, as the Sarvodaya Movement, the Lanka Mahila Samithi and the Y.M.C.A., have continued to perform an important task in training for leadership as well as civic and social responsibility. The success of many of the programmes that have been described in the report is attributable largely to the personality of the organiser, leader or extension worker. The sincerity, dedication, emotional involvement and charism of these persons appear to be important factors in motivating the workers of the organisations and their clientele. However, the evaluation of the individual programmes contained in the study have indicated the limitations that are inevitable in a situation where national goals and perspectives have themselves not emerged clearly. In such a situation each individual programme will have its own ideological orientation. Of course, this by itself should not be a limitation. It could in certain circumstances add to the creative diversity of attitudes and approaches and enrich the value system of the community. In a limited sense this is true even of the present programmes. Each programme reflects the traditions, beliefs and value systems of a particular social group in the community. The Y.M.C.A. Movement derives its inspiration from the Christian community. The Sarvodaya Movement draws a great deal on the Buddhist tradition. These orientations however do not provide a valid substitute for a

perspective which is national and contemporary, which is related in a well-defined manner to the country's development goals and therefore is able to give definition to the particular programme of the institution and identify its place in the total national programme. For example, the economic programme of the Sarvodaya Movement hovers in a somewhat indeterminate manner between the concept of village self-sufficiency at a relatively low level of economic growth and a concept of development which upgrades the standards of living in the village. The Girl Guides' Movement and the Boys Scout Movement which have grown in situations which are alien to the local context, have tried to adapt themselves in the recent past to the local environment and to activities which have an immediate relevance for national programmes. But here too, a great deal more could be done to enable these programmes to provide the groundwork for the development programmes that engage the adult community, and more coherent and meaningful linkages could be established between these Movements which deal specifically with the young age group and the adult programmes.

While the part played by religious groups and organisations in the field of non-formal education is quite significant, the religious institutions at the national level do not appear as yet to have played a meaningful role in either formulating national programmes or co-ordinating them on a national scale. The exceptions where national movements have been launched by various groups are the National Young Men's Christian Association, Young Women's Christian Association and Young Men's Buddhist Association. Several local groups and individual priests and laymen within the Roman Catholic and Protestant churches have however organised activities on their own initiative. Concern in the field of non-formal education does not appear to have been equally active within the Buddhist, Hindu and Muslim religions. Lately, however, Buddhist groups have organised themselves in voluntary organisations for implementing training programmes which fall within the field of non-formal education.

A long-standing organisation like the Lanka Mahila Samithi has been able to implement a wide ranging programme over a long period, catering primarily to the needs of the rural female population. What is necessary is to ensure that the organisation remains responsive to the changing needs of rural society and adapts its

programmes accordingly to support the other programmes which are active in the rural sector and are aimed at transforming and modernising the way of life in that sector. The Agricultural Extension programme and the Co-operative Development programme are both directed at specific needs of the village community. The Agricultural Extension programme seeks to improve the cultural practices of the farming community while the Co-operative Development programme is concerned with the growth of a key institution in the village. At the same time an institution such as the Divisional Development Council seeks to enlarge the extent and improve the quality of community participation in development activity at the village level. But while each of these programmes have a very important educational content and seek to equip the rural population with the skills, the know-how and the attitudes for entering into the process of development, they each operate as yet within the confines of their own programmes. The integral character of the programme for the education of the community for development is not yet adequately reflected in each of these programmes as they are presently organised and operated.

It is not possible to make a reliable assessment of the extent of participation in the non-formal education programmes that have been described and the quantitative impact of these programmes. The non-governmental programmes are inevitably limited in their coverage and range of activities by the resources at their command. For example, movements like Sarvodaya and the Lanka Mahila Samithiya are able to reach out to only a small proportion of the population. The Sarvodaya movement has a programme of approximately 500 villages while the total number of villages in the country is estimated at 23,000. The Lanka Mahila Samithi has approximately 2,000 branches. Again this number of branches can cater only to a small proportion of the total population. As against this, however, the government programmes in the field of non-formal education have a country-wide coverage. These comprise Agricultural Extension, Rural Development, Co-operative Development and so forth. The same constraints which apply to movements like the Lanka Mahila Samithi and Sarvodaya apply to individual non-governmental institutions, such as the Diyagala Boys' Town, the Yahapath Endera Farm and the Radio and Electronics Laboratory. As described in the body of the report,

these cater to a small number of trainees and in terms of numbers the impact is marginal. The significance of these institutions, however, lies in the quality of their programmes and the success with which they have been able to launch the non-formal educational activity within a small compass, very effectively and successfully, thereby providing models which could be replicated. The significance of the non-governmental effort lies not so much in the size or the quantitative impact it can make. It provides valuable examples of community participation which, on account of the objectives of the organisations and the persons who are involved in the programmes, have been able to impart to them extremely important elements which should form an indispensable part of the country's learning system and which are seldom found in the government-managed institutions. As stated elsewhere those elements include the emphasis on character formation, on goal-oriented training, and the development of right attitudes, ethical norms and appropriate social skills.

In activities relating to non-formal education the non-governmental agencies have most often to obtain their funds from philanthropic individuals and foreign aid programmes. Some of these institutions, such as the Lanka Mahila Samithiya receive small grants from the government. The availability of funds imposes a major constraint on the activities of these organisations. Recently there has been an effort to mobilise external assistance for viable programmes that are carried out by non-governmental agencies. The government has attempted to co-ordinate the flow of aid from abroad to non-governmental agencies by setting up the Freedom from Hunger Campaign Committee as a statutory board. The non-governmental agencies most often supplement the funds they receive with voluntary services from their well-wishers and members. The Sarvodaya, for example, depends a great deal on such voluntary services. It is difficult to come to any reliable conclusions regarding the manner in which the dependence on voluntary services affect the managerial efficiency of such non-governmental organisations. In many instances, for example as in the Sarvodaya movement, the high level of motivation of voluntary workers has in fact set corresponding high standards for the whole organisation. At the same time, there have been instances where voluntary workers have not been able to conform to a regular regime of work and where consequently managerial efficiency has been low. It would be

necessary to study the managerial aspects of these organisations more closely before any definite conclusions can be drawn regarding their management problems. However, this is an area which requires careful examination and analysis as the role of voluntary agencies in non-formal education is likely to be significant.

The comments in the foregoing sections draw attention to two very significant aspects of the non-formal education programme. One is the conceptual aspect. The objectives, the nature and the content of the non-formal educational programmes are not yet adequately conceptualised to define their place and their contribution to the total development effort. Such a conceptual framework, if available, would have guided the activities of each programme in a way in which it could have linked with other programmes and made up a totality which was internally consistent and where the parts supported each other in a total national effort. It cannot be said that this has happened or that the need for it has yet been adequately recognized. The second is a related aspect and refers to the institutions for co-ordinating the various programmes. Institutions for co-ordinating these programmes in the field of non-formal education would have emerged only if the objectives of non-formal education had been properly conceptualised by the policy makers in major government agencies and the central planning authorities. At present such co-ordinating machinery which can continuously oversee and carry forward the non-formal education programme does not exist. A recent effort has been made in the Freedom from Hunger Campaign Board set up by the Government. This statutory Board is the national counterpart of the Committee for Action for Development which replaced the International Freedom from Hunger Campaign of the Food and Agriculture Organisation. This statutory Board has prepared an action programme for the various non-governmental organisations in the country and has given high priority to the role of non-formal education in such a programme. The Action plan of the Board refers to education for development and the need to link together the various programmes that are implemented by different non-governmental organisations into a coherent and consistent programme for the education of the community for the different development tasks that are envisaged in the Five Year Plan. An extract from the Report is given below:

“The task of upgrading the skills and the awareness of the rural population is undertaken by numerous agencies which include the formal education system, the extension services of the government, training in community development and leadership given by the rural development societies and other non-formal modes of education provided by agencies engaged in social activities like the Sarvodaya, Lanka Mahila Samiti, Young Farmers’ Clubs etc. The F.F.H.C. could perform a valuable task in co-ordinating some of these activities and placing them within a broad based programme of “development education” for the rural people. One such experimental programme is being formulated by the Marga Institute. This envisages a widespread programme of seminars, workshops, and discussion groups at the village level which would be centred around specific development issues or projects undertaken by these institutions. The effort of the non-governmental agencies could be usefully co-ordinated if they could collaborate in formulating a programme of basic development education in which all these agencies could participate according to their capacities and orientation. Such a programme will include programmes such as those undertaken by Marga Institute as well as some specific projects such as the establishment of community centres, the organisation of libraries and so on.

“This perspective of development education should be firmly kept in view in the selection of all F.F.H.C. projects. Reference has already been made to this in the proposals relating to the F.F.H.C. programme. Projects such as applied nutrition, water management, rehabilitation and environmental improvement will all have an important educational element which will focus the attention of the participants in these projects on the relevant development problems and help to install the attitudes which would lead to the responsible and the most economic use of the resources in their areas. Among other items, the programme of development education should concentrate on the following elements:

- (i) Promoting the awareness and understanding of major national issues e.g. the causes of economic stagnation, the foreign exchange crisis, the food subsidy and the

burden on the government budget, population growth and its effect on development, the employment problem and job aspiration etc.

- (ii) Developing a concern for the maximum use of resources, e.g. making every piece of idle cultivable home gardens etc., into productive use and water management.
- (iii) Development of self-reliance and the attitude that nothing should be received free. The emphasis on a counterpart contribution in all FFHC projects should be the point at which these attitudes are developed.
- (iv) The use of every F.F.H.C. project to demonstrate all the ramifications for development, whether it be foreign exchange, employment, or self-reliance.
- (v) The responsibility of the public and a desire to participate in village institutions, a co-op society, the cultivation committee, the rural development society etc.
- (vi) The co-operative movement and the relevance to development.
- (vii) Attitude towards community assets, public buildings, utilities, irrigation systems, buses, railways, public parks. The need for careful use and maintenance of the assets.

“For the close co-operation of B.B.C. programmes with the F.F.H.C. programmes as well as the formulation and implementation of a development education programme, the 500 village programmes by the Rural Development Department and the 1000 village programmes of Sarvodaya, could be selected as the area of operations. Already these programmes have collected socio-economic data, initiated training programmes for youth leaders and commenced small scale projects in a number of these villages. These activities therefore provide a framework for commencing a more intensive action programme on the lines outlined in this report.”

## YOUTH SETTLEMENT SCHEMES

### (1) The Muthu Iyan Kaddu Youth Settlement

There are 300 youths who have been settled during the period March 1967 to June 1970. Each youth has been allotted 2 acres of cultivable land and 1 acre for the homestead, making a total of 900 acres for the 300 youth. The first batch of 100 educated youths were settled in March 1967, but by early 1968 the drop-outs were so high that only 44 youths remained on the settlement.

Each youth was expected to cultivate 1 acre of chillies (red pepper) and 1 acre of other subsidiary crops with the objective of obtaining an annual net income of Rs. 3,000/-. A subsistence allowance of Rs. 2/- per day per youth was paid during the first 18 months and food rations from the World Food Programme were provided for 2 years. Financial assistance was also provided to each youth to erect a temporary hut, purchase implements, planting material and clothes. A tractor with necessary attachments was also given to each group of 100 youths as aid from NOVIB.

The results achieved by 283 of these youths during 1972 are given below:

<i>Crop</i>	<i>Acres</i>	<i>Total Yield (cwt.)</i>	<i>Gross Income (Rs.)</i>	<i>Net Income (Rs.)</i>
Chillies	254	2,074	1,659,200	1,151,200
Red Onions	126	11,029	772,000	457,000
Bombay Onions	13	390	58,500	32,500
Green Gram	10	60	12,000	10,000
Groundnut	6	60	6,000	3,600
Vegetables	29	1,450	58,000	34,800
Bananas	60	3,000	60,000	42,000
<b>Totals</b>	<b>498</b>	<b>18,063</b>	<b>2,625,700</b>	<b>1,731,100</b>
<b>Average Income per Youth</b>			<b>9,278/-</b>	<b>6,117/-</b>

The productivity of all the youths was, however, not uniformly high as shown by the following data:

Income over Rs. 20,000			3 youths
Income between Rs. 15,000 and	Rs. 20,000		18 youths
„ „ Rs. 10,000 and	Rs. 15,000		26 youths



Income between Rs.	5,000 and	Rs. 10,000	74 youths
„	„ Rs. 3,000 and	Rs. 5,000	60 youths
„	„ Rs. 1,000 and	Rs. 3,000	102 youths

The 21 youths who enjoyed incomes over Rs. 15,000 had cultivated all 3 acres each. The 26 youths who obtained incomes between Rs. 10,000 and Rs. 15,000 had cultivated only 2 acres each. This performance is far superior to the target income of Rs. 3,000/- per youth which was estimated at the time the scheme was inaugurated and augurs well for its continued success, with the youths happy and satisfied in their new venture.

A significant feature of this success is that most of these youths came from farming families who owned no land but had a long tradition of intensive cultivation on small extents of leased lands. Most of the 102 youths who earned less than Rs. 3,000 are sons of subsistence farmers whose knowledge of scientific farming and level of aspirations were low. The Project Manager of this scheme reports that they are satisfied if they are able to earn a subsistence level income and show no incentive to earn a higher income. Eight of the high income youths have already purchased new four-wheeled tractors and four others have purchased used tractors. This points out to certain important characteristics of these youths. Although they have only 3 acres of land each on which a four-wheeled tractor will be grossly under-utilised, they are well aware that they will be able to supplement their income from agriculture by hiring out their tractors to other cultivators both within the youth scheme as well as to others in the vicinity. Being of the industrious type, they are conscious that they have the organisational ability as well as the time to devote to this additional task. The investment with their profits have been wisely done and their aspirations are undoubtedly very high.

The success stories of these industrious youths are likely to influence the values and attitudes of the youths who are presently operating at the subsistence level and to convert them also into industrious scientific farmers in due course.

This scheme is to be expanded and more youths are to be settled soon. The success is such that for the 100 youths to be settled, there are already 1800 applicants and many of them have stated that they will be satisfied with only two acres of irrigable land and do not require any further assistance from the government.

The enlightened leadership role played by the Project Manager must also be emphasised in this success story.

## (2) Ihala Hewessa Scheme

This scheme was started in 1967 with an initial settlement of 55 youths to which another 45 were added in 1971. The Agricultural land is mainly devoted to growing passion fruit as the main crop and pineapple as a subsidiary crop. After a lot of hard work and initial disappointment the scheme is now a huge success. This area has produced a record yield of passion fruit per acre and has given an impetus for the cultivation of passion fruit on a large scale in the Kalutara District as well as the surrounding districts. The success of this project attracted large numbers, as a result of which another 500 youth have been settled on the scheme as an extension to the project.

Of the 3,500 acres of crown land allocated for the project approximately 2,000 acres have been allotted to the 600 youth. The youth are drawn from all strata of society and are in the age group 18 to 25 years.

The original idea was to run the farm on a collective basis. However, it was soon found that the incentive to take a keen interest in what they were doing and to work harder increased when the land was divided amongst them and the initiative to run his section was left with each individual youth. This was done in stages.

During the initial training period the youth were housed in dormitories in groups of 25 and lived and worked together in these groups. They were given an all-round training which, apart from fruit growing and agricultural practices, included domestic chores such as cooking. All the work including the clearing of the jungle was done manually. Success was guaranteed only after a lot of hard work and perseverance on the part of the youth.

Having completed their training period, they split up into groups of 5 according to their preference. Each settler received  $3\frac{1}{2}$  acres of land of which 3 acres are set aside for the cultivation of fruit and the remaining  $\frac{1}{2}$  acre for the homestead. Their dormitories were then converted into a recreational hall. The youth continue to work in groups of five until they gain enough confidence and experience to run their plots independently. From then on they are strictly on their own.

The youth get an average income of over Rs. 300/- per month and more than half of them have recorded monthly incomes averaging over Rs. 500/- per month. These high incomes have been a strong incentive in attracting youth to venture into similar projects. A number of youth who joined the scheme at the very start without any money of their own, now possess property worth Rs. 20,000/- to Rs. 25,000/-.

In addition to the fruit cultivation there is a livestock farm which comes under the Ministry of Planning. It is run on the lines of a collective farm by 28 youth. Among the youth are 4 graduates, 11 with G.C.E. (A.L.) qualifications and the rest have G.C.E. (O.L.) passes. This too has been a complete success and the youth receive incomes much above Rs. 1,000/- per month.

## ANNEX 2

## SRI LANKA TECHNICAL INSTITUTE & DIYAGALA BOYS' TOWN

### A Typical Day at Boys' Town

#### DAILY TIME TABLE

- 5.45 a.m. Rising, quick wash, lining up, then a brisk run round the playing field.  
Arrival at the Dining Room for a glass of milk. Of course, that had been prepared by the boys of the Kitchen Department, who, on the day they are on duty have to get up at 4.30 a.m. together with the milkers.
- 6.00 to 8.00 Farm work, Household duties, Maintenance, Flower gardens, P.W.D., Kitchen, Bakery, etc. (in turns). These Ministries go on for six weeks at a time.
- 8.15 to 9.15 Washing, Changing, Breakfast, Free-time, Studies.
- 9.30 to 12.00 Classes or practicals in workshops or essential services or field work (Agriculture) also according to a rotation system. At 10.30 a.m. a drink is served at the place of work.

12.00 to 1.00 Changing, lunch, recreation (indoor games, music, radio).

1.15 to 3.00 Classes or practicals in workshops, or essential services, or field work (agriculture) also according to a rotation system as in the morning.

3.30 Cool drink in dining room. Farm work, household duties, maintenance, flower gardens, P.W.D., kitchen, bakery, etc. in turns, same as early morning from 6.00 to 8.00 a.m.

4.30 End of work. Assembly, tea, games, sports or orchestra practice, matches.

6.00 End of games, bath, studies, medical, practices for theatre, special lessons.

The Catholic boys have religious services some days of the week at 7.00 p.m.

The Buddhist boys go to the temple on Poya days.

8.00 Dinner.

Indoor games and music, radio in recreation room.

9.00 Either retiring to rest or cinema, or theatre or camp fire.

(Normally one House entertains the other, or once a month the Art Club entertains everybody.)

## **SRI LANKA TECHNICAL INSTITUTE & DIYAGALA BOYS' TOWN**

### **SPECIAL DAYS**

Special time-tables are followed on Poya days, Sundays and Feast days giving more time for Sports, Free item, Indoor games, Music practice, Theatre, Cinema, rest etc. and such activities as Administrative Meetings, House Meetings, Club Meetings and Co-operative Meetings; normally Tribunal cases are held on Fridays. Otherwise there is a meeting of the various officials to discuss points of discipline, planning etc.

There are several Societies within the Campus:

Production Society.

Poultry Co-operative.

Gardeners' Society, now engaged in the Chillie mini-kit Garden.

Competition.

The Art Club.

The Benildus Club.

The Sports Club, etc.

Further there are opportunities to join other Classes as:

Orchestra.

Violin or Piano Accordion Classes.

Art (painting) Classes.

Driving School etc.

For all medical facilities there is the Hospital run by Religious Sisters; the General Hospital, Ragama, attends to the more complicated cases, operations, dental services, etc.

ANNEX 3

## THE YAHAPATH ENDERA FARM SYLLABUS

### **POULTRY KEEPING: Demonstration:**

1. Entering a hen house and introducing the equipment.
2. Preparation of brooding accommodation, transfer of day-old chicks to brooder.
3. Feeding and management routine.
4. Preparation and mixing of – (a) Chick Mash, (b) Growers' Mash, (c) Broiler Mash, (d) Layers' Mash.
5. Injecting and vaccinating.
6. Cleansing, disinfecting and maintenance of equipment.
7. Culling of – (a) growing stock, (b) laying stock.
8. Collecting, cleansing and storage of eggs.
9. Examining and treatment of sick birds.
10. Killing, plucking, dressing and trussing of table birds.

### **POULTRY FARMING**

1. Introduction – Growth and Expansion of poultry over recent years.
2. Choice of breed – strains, characteristics and economic qualities.
3. Egg selection – (a) for hatching, (b) for marketing.

4. Natural and artificial methods of hatching, merits and demerits of each.
5. Choosing a hen for hatching.
6. Care and management of incubator.
7. Composition and nutritional value of egg.
8. Development of chick in egg.
9. Sexing and care of day-old chick.
10. Brooders and their management.
11. Housing, feeding and care of equipment.
12. Nutritional requirements at different stages of growth  
Balanced rations for each stage –
 

(i) Chick	(ii) Grower	(iii) Layer
(iv) Broiler	(v) Turkey	(vi) Ducks, Geese.
13. Different systems –
  - (i) Free range, (ii) Deep litter, (iii) Battery,
  - (iv) Semi-intensive, (v) controlled environments.
14. Supply Farms – different breeds available.
15. Physiology of hen –
  - (i) internal organs, (ii) Skeletal, venous, arterial and respiratory systems, (iii) External organs, The gizzard.
16. Handling and selection of pullets for breeding and laying purposes. Culling of birds.
17. Controlling fluctuations in egg production.
18. Management and accounts. Keeping of records.
19.
  - (i) Diseases and ailments
  - (ii) Deficiency disorders.
  - (iii) Endo and exto parasite control of diseases in geese, ducks, turkeys etc.
20. Moulting.
21. Other Poultry – (i) Rearing, feeding and management of turkeys, (ii) Housing, rearing and management of ducks and geese.
22. Simple costing of different poultry enterprises.
23. Discussions on official publications and poultry periodicals.

The Farm has the advantage of periodic visits from officers of the Agriculture Department who show the method and importance of vaccination and are ready to perform post-mortems and explain various diseases to the students.

**DAIRY FARMING – Topics covered**

1. Introduction (The urgent need and potentiality of dairy farming).
2. Selection of the breed.
3. Upgrading for milk production.
4. Human physiology.
5. Nutritional requirements – (i) Proteins, (ii) Carbohydrates, (iii) Mineral matter and vitamin, (iv) Water and sunlight, (v) Nutritional needs of the young calf, (vi) Nutritional needs of growing heifer, (vii) Nutritional need of milch cow.
6. Care of animals and management – (i) Calf, (ii) Heifer, (iii) Breeding.
  - (a) Natural service, (b) Artificial insemination
  - (iv) Care of herd sire; (v) Care of cow at parturition, (vi) Care of the dairy cow.
7. Quality milk production – (i) Dairy hygiene, (ii) Milking, (iii) Pasteurising milk, (iv) Butter-making.
8. Mastitis Control – (i) Handling cow gently; (ii) Maintenance of milking machines; (iii) C.M.T. Test; (iv) Herd milking order.
9. Housing for dairy cattle – Cow comfort; Reduced labour.
10. Farm equipment.
11. Herd health – (i) Ecto and ento parasite control, (ii) Simple ailments and common diseases of dairy cattle in Sri Lanka, (iii) Use of Vaccines, (iv) Necessity of testing for carrier diseases, e.g. T. B. Brucellosis.

**LECTURES GIVEN SIMULTANEOUSLY WITH DAIRY MANAGEMENT**

1. Species of grasses for different climatic Zones in Sri Lanka
  - (i) Pasture, (ii) Fodder Grass, (iii) Legumes.
2. Soil types.
3. Fertiliser requirement.
4. Establishment and Management of pasture.
5. Pasture conservation.

**DEMONSTRATION LESSONS**

1. Treatment of the navel cord at birth.
2. Dehorning of calves.
3. Deticking of cattle.
4. Drenching.
5. Casting.

6. Dressing a wound.
7. Giving an injection.
8. Milking
9. Pasteurising milk.
10. Butter-making.
11. Use, care and cleaning of milk machines.

## **PIG KEEPING**

### **Lessons**

1. Introduction – There is profit in pigs – The pig business.
2. Different Breeds – respective merits and demerits.
3. Value in cross-breeding.
4. Housing and various systems of pig rearing.
5. Selection of breed to suit purpose – (i) for fattening; (ii) for breeding.
6. Management of pregnant sow, of sow and young.
7. Care and management of sow and young at farrowing.
8. Procedure for weaning.
9. Nutritional requirements for various stages – (a) before weaning; (b) after weaning; (c) young gilts; (d) boar for breeding purposes; (e) pigs for fattening.
10. Record – simple costing, food conversion.
11. Physiology of pig – internal organs.
12. Diseases and ailments common in Sri Lanka – (i) Worms; (ii) Ecto and endo parasites; (iii) Anaemia; (iv) Abscesses, etc.
13. Marketing.

### **Practical Demonstration**

1. Routine cleanliness and management.
2. Preparation of room for farrowing sow.
3. Preparing balanced rations for – (i) Weaners; (ii) Gilts; (iii) Boars; (iv) Fattening pigs.
4. Castration.
5. Care and management of farrowing sows.
6. Giving iron injections to piglings.
7. Cutting piglings teeth.
8. Slaughtering of pigs; various cuts.
9. Curing ham.
10. Sausage making.



The knowledge gained is tested by visits to various pig farms, where they can experience the advantages and drawbacks of various systems. The girls also learn much from reading and discussion of various articles on pigs in modern periodicals.

## AGRICULTURE

**Vegetable and Fruit Gardening:**— Topics for 40 lessons.

1. Introducing Ceylon as an agricultural country.
2. Scientific aspects of agriculture – (i) climatic conditions; (ii) rainfall; (iii) temperature.
3. Natural Carbon Cycle.
4. Soil – (i) Classification of soil. Analysing the pH of the soil; (ii) Conservation of soil. Erosion and soil treatment; (iii) Action of the soil on the plant.
5. Metabolism of minerals and other food constituents in the plant.
6. Difference between organic manure and artificial manure.
7. Irrigation of the land and drainage – results of inadequate drainage.
8. How to distinguish a healthy crop from one with nutritional deficiencies.
9. Control of weeds. Use of insecticides.
10. Care and management of nurseries. Methods of making them profitable.
11. Protection of the humus layer in the soil.
12. Control of pests and diseases in plants. Insecticidal control of leaf-eating caterpillars and plant-sucking pests.
13. Explanation of photo-synthesis; the preparation of food by leaves with the help of sunlight.
14. The effects of environmental factors on the plant.
15. Some common vegetables grown in Sri Lanka – (i) Up-country types; (ii) Low-country types.
16. Selection of seeds and plants in vegetable cultivation.
17. Economic aspect of crop growing.
18. Preparation of land for fruit growing, contouring and terracing.
19. Principles of spacing plants in an orchard – planting and management.
20. Special notes on citrus fruit, manuring and pruning.
21. Cultivation of different varieties of plantains and papaws.

22. Cultivation of pineapple – (i) Economic importance of cultivation; (ii) Planting season; (iii) Planting material; (iv) Spacing; (v) Nutrition; (vi) Irrigation; (vii) Control of pests and diseases; (viii) Harvesting; storage.
23. Cultivation of passion fruit on a profitable basis – (i) Land preparation; (ii) Seed sowing; (iii) Harvesting; (iv) Grading; (v) Marketing and storage of excess fruits; (vi) Sale of produce and accounts.

### DEMONSTRATION CLASSES

1. Introducing garden tools and other equipment.
2. Care and maintenance of garden tools – (i) Spraying machine; (ii) Wheel barrows; (iii) Garden hose; (iv) Fruit baskets, etc.
3. Preparation of soil for nursery beds.
4. How to prepare a compost pit.
5. Cross pollination of fruit trees.
6. Methods of propagation – (i) Seeds; (ii) Cuttings; (iii) Transplanting (Grafting); (v) Bud-grafting; (vi) Layering.

### PADDY CULTIVATION

1. Selection of seed to suit season and place.
2. Tillage of paddy land.
3. Manuring.
4. Sprouting.
5. Methods
6. Weed control.
7. Control of pests and diseases.
8. Artificial manuring.

### PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT & SITUATION CATECHESIS

1. **Understanding self:** (a) Dignity; (b) Talents; (c) Interests; (d) Character and Temperament; (e) Limitations; (f) Aims in life.
2. **Moral values :** (a) Justice; (b) Honesty; (c) Generosity; (d) Love and concern for others; (e) Tactfulness; (f) Spirit of sharing; (g) Appreciation; (h) Sense of humour; (i) Courteousness.

3. **Social Relationships:** (a) How to get along with others – other religions; (b) How to establish and enhance proper relationships in society – (1) in age groups, (2) with adults, (3) with the opposite sex, (4) with youngsters; (c) How to make friends; (d) How to win true popularity; (e) How to exercise leadership.
4. **Personality Development :** (a) How to develop – (1) initiative and creativity; (2) Sense of observation; (3) Sense of responsibility; (b) How to face the problems of life; (c) How to satisfy the needs of life; (d) How to attain the goals of life; (e) How to accept the failures and success of life; (f) How to contribute to the welfare – (1) of the family; (2) of the community; (3) of the nation; (4) of the world.

Utilising to the utmost – (a) the time; (b) the resources of (1) study; (2) nature; (3) community; (4) leisure.

How to establish a well-rounded balance in life with respect to – (a) work (b) recreation, (c) study, (d) religion, (e) community service.

**For Catholics only** – Situational Catechesis.

## NUTRITION AND FOOD

For the family – (1) Balanced diet, (2) Selection of proper constituents for everyday meals with regard to – cost, nutritive value, climate, personal requirements, (3) Composition and nutritive properties of – Carbohydrates, fats, proteins, minerals, vitamins.

Diets for special cases – (1) invalids; (2) convalescents; (3) advanced age; (4) diabetes; (5) diarrhoea.

Deficiency diseases – (1) Causes; (2) symptoms; (3) prevention.

Caloric value of foods and daily requirements for the diet and other constituents of good food – (1) Proteins, (2) Carbohydrates; (3) fats, (4) Minerals, (5) Vitamins.

**COOKERY (A):** Common everyday dishes for a Sinhala home:

1. **Rice:** Cooked plain; Yellow rice; Egg rice; Ghee rice.
2. **Hoppers:** String Hoppers (wheat flour, rice flour); Egg hoppers; White hoppers, Roti, Pittu.
3. Preparation of curry powder. Preparation of chillie powder.

4. **Eggs:** Omelette; Fried egg; Boiled egg; Scrambled egg.
5. **White Curry:** Ash plantain curry; Cucumber curry; Jack curry; Kohila curry; Brinjal curry; Dhal curry.
6. **Hot curry:** Beef curry; Pork curry; Potato tempered; Jak seed – condiment curry; Dry fish curry.
7. **Sambol:** Seeni sambol; coconut sambol; Onion sambol; Gotukola sambol.
8. Cutlets and Patties. Short eats.
9. **Puddings:** Egg custard; milk custard; sago pudding; bread pudding – varieties; jelly and fruit; rice pudding.
10. **Cakes:** Butter cake; sponge cake; date cake; chocolate cake.
11. Woodapple cream
12. Fruit salad
13. Kavun – oil cake.
14. Kokis
15. Aggala made of rice flour
16. Coconut aluwa.
17. Milk toffee
18. Halape
19. Sowpittu
20. Murukku
21. Brown Stew
22. Capsicum chillie stuffed.
23. Mulligatawny

## COOKERY (B)

Food Preservation according to season –

Lemon marmalade	Papaw jam
Lime pickle	Papaw pickle
Tomato jam	Ambarella jam; Ambarella chutney
Tomato chutney	Sweet pumpkin jam;
Guava Jelly	Sweet pumpkin chutney

## NEEDLEWORK (A)

**Dressmaking –**

1. Introducing equipment
2. How to take measurements
3. How to draft a block
4. Baby shirt – straight
5. Baby shirt – flared
6. Baby rompers
7. Christening robe and bonnet

### Children's Clothing

8. Child's measurement chart – basic block
9. Child's frock
10. Shirt sleeve
11. Toddler's shirt
12. Bloomer for toddler

**Adult's Clothing**

13. Basic block for girl's blouse
14. Drafting block for saree blouse
15. Girl's six-piece skirt, saree skirt
16. Nightdress
17. House coat
18. Girl's jeans
19. Swim suit
20. Pyjama suit

**NEEDLEWORK (B)****Embroidery stitches –**

Chain stitch  
 Hem stitch  
 Lazy daisy stitch  
 Button-hole stitch  
 Cut work  
 Insertion stitch  
 French knot  
 Cross stitch  
 Long and short stitch  
 Satin stitch, etc.

The above stitches to be used on children's garments and household linen. Crochet of different lace edging, motifs and insertions.

**MOTHER CRAFT AND CHILD CARE**

Preparation for motherhood  
 Pregnancy  
 Pre-natal care – (i) Diet; (ii) Exercise; (iii) Clothing; (iv) Rest; (v) Mental attitudes.  
 Development of the baby in the womb  
 The layette  
 Childbirth  
 Care of the new-born baby  
 Daily routine – (i) Feeding; (ii) Bathing and dressing; (iii) Rest and relaxation  
 Physical, emotional and psychological needs of infants and small children  
 The premature baby, twins and handicapped children  
 Diseases common to children  
 Immunization of your child.

## PERSONAL HYGIENE, FIRST AID & HOME NURSING

### (a) Personal Hygiene

Care of mouth and teeth  
 Habits, exercise and rest  
 Water supply, impurities  
 Air composition  
 Breathing and pure air  
 Ventilation, natural and artificial  
 Sanitation.

### (b) First Aid

Medicine chest  
 Treatment of burns, bruises, scalds, cuts.  
 Sprains, fractures, bites and stings.  
 Suffocating, choking, poisoning, fainting, ear injury.  
 Foreign bodies in eye and nose.  
 Bandaging.

### (c) Home Nursing

Clinical thermometer	Bathing sick person
Temperature and pulse	Looking after person with contagious diseases.
Preparation of sick room	Changing bed linen
	Improvising nursing equip- ment.

### (d) Communicable Diseases in children

## HOUSEHOLD MANAGEMENT

Selection and arrangement of household equipment for the convenient operation of a house, so as to save time, energy and money.

Daily, weekly and annual cleaning of the house, repairs and renovations – (i) Bedroom; (ii) Kitchen; (iii) Toilet; (iv) Living room.

Cleaning of household utensils made of aluminium, copper, iron, silver and brass.

Cleaners and polishes used to clean the above metals.

Care and cleaning of woods, plain and finished.

Care and cleaning of linoleum and coir matting, upholstered

furniture, brooms, brushes etc.

Care and cleaning of oil stoves.

Care and cleaning of floors.

Laying a table for different meals, cleaning and washing up.

Cleaning and care of refrigerator.

### **Kitchen**

Equipment, care and maintenance of a kitchen in Sri Lanka.

Store room and its care

Storage of food

Removal of refuse

Thrift economy in marketing

**Household Pests:** Flies – bugs – ants – cockroaches – rats etc.

### **Budgeting**

The family income, supplementary methods –

Home garden – dairy – lace making

Poultry keeping – dressmaking – handicrafts

Drawing up of budgets for lower income groups.

## **LAUNDRY**

### **Laundry Materials**

- (i) Water for laundry purposes – hard and soft, rain, well and tap. Solvent action of water.
- (ii) Laundry soap, washing powder.
- (iii) Bleaches and their uses.
- (iv) Grease solvents.
- (v) Stiffening agents and blues.

### **Principles of Laundering**

- (i) Analysis of soiling matter.
- (ii) Principles involved in : cleaning, washing, boiling, rinsing, blueing, stiffening, drying, finishing.

### **Bleaching**

- (i) Open-air bleaching.
- (ii) Chemical bleaching.
- (iii) Effects of chemicals on fibres.

Stains:

Classification

Removal of stains from different fibres.

**Domestic Laundering – Appliances –**

- (i) Vessels and boilers; (ii) Accessories for washing by hand;
- (iii) Vacuum; (iv) Rubbing Boards; (v) Washing by machine;
- (vi) Wringers; (vii) Drying arrangements; (viii) Finishing appliances. Irons of different types and ironing accessories.

**Storage of Clothes**

- (i) Drying (ii) Care and repair of clothing.

**COTTAGES**

The eight girls will fall into three groups through division of labour, rotating the work monthly.

- (a) The Housekeepers – will take charge of:

- (i) Marketing
- (ii) Cooking
- (iii) Housekeeping
- (iv) Budgeting

- (b) The Breadwinners – will try to maintain the group with produce from their own farm, e.g. eggs, vegetables, etc. They will be in charge of farm animals, pigs, goats, poultry.

- (c) The Cottage Industry Group – will add to the family budget through cottage industries:–

- |                         |  |
|-------------------------|--|
| (i) Tatting             | (ii) Crocheting                        |
| (iii) Weaving           | (iv) Making jams and chutneys for sale |
| (v) Catering for guests |  |

Weekly lectures on –

Co-operative farming; Accounts; Marriage Guidance.

Working thus in a controlled environment, the girls will gain experience and skills while being offered every opportunity to develop good community relationships.

The girls are members of the Young Farmers' Club which is a means of developing young people into creative, responsible and productive citizens.



## RADIO AND ELECTRONICS LABORATORY

### Programme of Improvement of Available Facilities & Expansion

1. The Institute requires more classroom space to replace old buildings as well as for expansion.

2. The Machine Workshop needs to be extended to provide for Motor Mechanics and Machine-shop Work courses which are not available now, to meet the expanding local demand. The shop has also to be extended to manufacture spare parts for old machines since spares are in short supply in Sri Lanka.

3. A building for demonstration of electrical wiring. All practical classes are at present conducted in the course of commercial ventures where students travel to various places with foremen. This is not considered very satisfactory.

4. The replacement of the old shop presently used by the Motor Machine Department.

### Further Proposed Facilities

- (a) Engineering Physics Laboratory.
- (b) A hall with darkroom facilities, for experiments research with microscopes, ossillographs and other photo-sensitive apparatus and educational films.
- (c) Hydraulics and Strength of Materials section.

This expansion and development programme is phased in two stages as follows:

#### Phase 1:

- (i) It is hoped to provide the following facilities – extending the Machine Shop by installing a fully equipped building to enable an additional 25 youths to be trained;
- (ii) re-house the inductor and transformer laboratory in a new building with large space for 20 more youths to be trained;
- (iii) provide two large classrooms with good ventilation;
- (iv) provide a large motor laboratory to train 20 more youths;
- (v) provide an Electrical Wiring Demonstration Section which can train 25 more youths.

For this purpose a new three-storey building is proposed at a cost of over half a million rupees.

**Phase 2: Equipment required**

- (i) To provide proper working conditions in the Motor Mechanism department to admit an additional 20 youths for training;
- (ii) Engineering & Physics Laboratory;
- (iii) Another classroom;
- (iv) Hall with darkening facilities.

**Phase 1:** building will be extended at a cost of Rs. 560,000/-.

**Summary of Available Facilities**

	Rs. cts.	Rs. cts.
Land 81 perches	202,000.00	
Building 10,500sq.ft	630,000.00	
Old structure	} To be demolished } in due course	10,000.00
Temporary structure		32,750.00
	Rs.	42,750.00
Equipment	134,750.00	
	Rs. 966,750.00	

The above expansion programme will enable the Institute to extend enrolments from the present level of 223 to 333.

**THE INSTITUTION & TECHNICAL SCHOOL:  
RADIO & ELECTRONICS LABORATORY**

The Socio-Religious Curriculum: .

- (i) Daily – for Resident Students;
- (ii) Solemn Sunday Mass with Sermon – for Catholic students;
- (iii) Weekly facilities for Confession;
- (iv) Religious instruction;
- (v) Singing lessons (Hymns) for those with aptitude;
- (vi) Music – for those with aptitude and interest.

The courses which are provided now are as follows:-

- (i) Motor Mechanics Course (2½ years extensible to 4 years for Trainee Technicians);
- (ii) Coach Mechanics Course (2½ years);

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- (iii) Electric Motor Winding and Maintenance Course (2½ years extensible to 4 years for Trainee Technicians);
- (iv) Course on Manufacture, Repair and Maintenance of Inductors and Transformers (2½ years extensible to 4 years for Trainee Technicians);
- (v) Industrial Electronic Technicians Course (5 years);
- (vi) Radio and Television Service Technicians Course (3 years extensible to 5 years for Television Technicians only);
- (vii) Electricians and Wiremans Course (2½ years extensible to 4 years for Maintenance Electricians only);
- (viii) Plumbers and Irrigation Mechanics Course (3½ years);
- (ix) Machine Shop and Tool Room Technicians Course (3½ years).

Special Course according to student needs:-

- (i) English Language – up to G.C.E. Ordinary Level;
- (ii) Elementary Mathematics – Sinhala Medium;
- (iii) Elementary Physics – Sinhala Medium;
- (iv) Religious Knowledge – R. C. Sinhala & English Media.

### The Technical Courses & Relevant Details in Summary Form

**Note:** The following information makes no pretension of being syllabuses of the courses or a prospectus. A complete prospectus, however, is available as a separate brochure.

#### 1. Course in Industrial Electronics

Duration of course – 5 years.

Medium of Instruction – English.

Number of students as at present – 21.

- (a) **Coverage** – Maintenance, installation, operation, design and manufacture of electrical and electronic control gear, measuring instruments and automatic telephone equipment.
- (b) **Theory** – Principles of electricity and magnetism. Electronic principles. Applied mechanics (basic). Characteristics of electrical and electronic components and devices.
- (c) **Practice** – Training on specially rigged laboratory apparatus (on-the-job training).

(d) **Equipment**— Value of Equipment – Rs. 25,050,00.

(e) **Scope** – Those successfully completing this course are competent to take charge of electrical, electronic and telephone installation in factories or similar institutions. The number of graduates obtaining such employment during the period 1969–1971 is 24.

## 2. **Radio Servicemens' and Operators' Course**

Duration of course – 3 years.

Medium of instruction – Sinhala.

Number of students as at present – 32.

(a) **Coverage** – Maintenance, installation, operation, design and manufacture of radio receivers, amplifiers, tape recorders, record players, small, low power transmitters. Morse signalling optional for those becoming proficient in English.

(b) **Theory** – Principles of electricity and basic electronics. Electrical and electronic circuitry. Characteristics of electronic components.

(c) **Practice** – Training on laboratory rigs, training on actual service design and assembly of apparatus.

(d) **Equipment available** – Value ; Rs. 6,800.00

(e) **Scope** – Graduates become competent radio technicians, with a proficiency in Morse signalling and as wireless operators. The number of graduates employed between 1969–1971 is 73.

## 3. **Course in Inductor and Transformer Technology**

Duration of course – 3 years.

Medium of Instruction – Sinhala and English.

The number of students as at present is 20.

(a) **Coverage** – Repair, installation, operation, design and manufacture of all types of inductors, transformers, Solenoid and thermally

operated switching systems and sequences, domestic electrical appliances and rewinding of fractional h. p. motors.

(b) **Theory** – Principles of electricity and magnetism – characteristics of inductors, capacitors and insulating materials.

(c) **Practice** – On experimental apparatus and on-the-job training in actual production.

(d) **Equipment**– Value Rs. 9,500.00

(e) **Scope** – Students completing training find ready employment with manufacturers of radio components, electrical appliances and electric fans.

The number employed between 1969 and 1971 is 58.

#### 4. **Course in Electric Motor and Armature Winding**

Duration of course – 4 years.

Medium of Instruction – Sinhala.

Number of students – 70.

(a) **Coverage** – Rewinding and servicing of all types of electric motors, armatures, and generators (D.C., A.C., single and polyphase) to original or altered specifications.

(b) **Theory** – Principles of electricity and magnetism. Circuit configurations and functions. Characteristics of conductors and insulators. Engineering drawing.

(c) **Practice** – On-the-job training commencing with fractional h.p. motors and proceeding up to 150 h.p. apparatus.

(d) **Equipment available** – Value Rs. 16,100.00

#### 5. **Course in Domestic and Industrial Electrical Installations**

Duration of course – 3 years.

Medium of instruction – Sinhala.

Number of students – 28.

- (a) **Coverage** – Wiring of domestic residences and factories. Installation of overhead power mains, laying of underground armoured and other cables. Electrical wiring of switch boards. Installation of water pumps and pipe lines and accessories. Installation of electric motors.
- (b) **Theory** – Basic electrical principles. Characteristics of conductors and insulators. Earth and insulation testing instruments and techniques. Elementary hydraulic principles.
- (c) **Practice** – Laboratory training and on-the-job training in all aspects of wiring and plumbing installations.
- (d) **Equipment available** – Value = Rs. 10,150.00
- (e) **Scope** – Employment readily available as maintenance electricians.  
 Good prospects for self-employment.  
 Employed, 1969–1971 : In Firms 42  
 Self-employed 26.

## 6. Course in Motor Mechanics

Duration of course – 3 years.  
 Medium of instruction – Sinhala.  
 Number of students – 40.

- (a) **Coverage** – Service and overhauling of diesel and petrol stationary and mobile engines. Body repair work including suspension systems. Motor vehicle electrical systems. Installation of stationary power plants. Oxy-acetylene and electric arc welding.
- (b) **Theory** – Engineering drawing, geometry, motor vehicle technology, basic principles of electricity and magnetism, basic hydraulic principles.
- (c) **Practice** – Laboratory training and on-the-job training in all aspects of wiring and plumbing installations.

(d) **Equipment available** – Value = Rs. 25,150.00

(c) **Scope** – Establishments handling motor car repair work, installation and maintenance of stationary power plants employ our trainees. Two groups of them have started businesses of their own with their own capital and are doing quite well. Total number employed between 1969–1971 is 45.

## 7. **Course in Machine Shop Practice**

Duration of course – 3 years.

Medium of instruction – Sinhala.

Number of students – 12.

(a) **Coverage** – All lathe operations, drilling, reaming, finishing to specified tolerances. Milling operations with appropriate attachments to lathes.

(b) **Theory** – Geometry, mechanical drawing, basic metallurgical principles, mensuration, tolerances.

(c) **Practice** – Initial fitters training on parts and materials provided. On-the-job training in production of finished parts.

(d) **Equipment available** – Value = Rs. 42,000.00

(e) **Scope** – The demand from the Industrial sector, for machine tool operators is quite high. Number employed between 1970–1971 is 16.

**INCOME AND EXPENDITURE FOR THE YEAR ENDED 31ST DECEMBER 1971**

EXPENDITURE	Rs. Cts.	INCOME	Rs. Cts.
Food and lodging allowances (Boarders and staff) ..	109,579.82	By fees ..	34,532.50
Cost of materials ..	90,580.75	By repairs and services ..	276,204.75
Building of temporary structure for motor winding lab. but with permanent water service, electricity and drainage installations ..	32,750.00	Amounts due ..	9,301.82
Building of wall ..	10,500.00		
Travelling ..	1,375.25		
Stationery ..	571.85		
New Furniture ..	3,182.00		
<b>Depreciation</b>			
Plant & machinery, vehicles, furniture - 10% ..	12,639.87		
Rates, lights, telephones ..	9,258.81		
Surplus income over expenditure ..	49,600.72		
	<u>Rs. 320,039.07</u>		<u>Rs. 320,039.07</u>



## THE NATIONAL YOUTH SERVICE COUNCIL

The objects of the Council are set out in the Act as follows:—

“The objects for which the Council is established are hereby declared to be, in particular, to formulate schemes of voluntary national service for youths, and to carry out such schemes either by itself or through approved institutions, and in general —

- (a) to foster among persons in Sri Lanka in general and among the youth of Sri Lanka in particular, a spirit of national consciousness, a sense of discipline, an awareness of social and economic problems and a sense of the dignity of labour;
- (b) to enlist the continuous and active participation of the youth of Sri Lanka without regard to class, race or religion, in national development schemes by means of all forms of voluntary service;
- (c) to organise and implement on a voluntary, basis national service projects of every description and, in particular, projects directed towards social welfare, social rehabilitation and the economic development of Sri Lanka;
- (d) to assist bodies of persons in carrying out national programmes of public utility, social welfare, social rehabilitation and economic development;
- (e) to provide a constant employment opportunity for youths by constructively investing Government funds on a long-term policy basis aimed to strengthen the economic fabric of the State;
- (f) to conduct vocational training of high efficient and well-disciplined laymen and semi-skilled workers for industry, agriculture and other services; and
- (g) to promote goodwill and mutual understanding between Sri Lanka and other countries by organising the exchange of youths who volunteer to assist in projects of national service.

## Youth Employment

“Of the problems confronting youth today, lack of employment opportunities is the most critical. Unemployment may not be an exclusively youth problem, in that it affects a much wider sector of the population. Even so, it is a problem mainly concerned with the youth of the country in that more than 75 per cent of the employment seekers are within the age range categorised as youth. Programmes of the Council concerned with youth employment will be implemented in very close collaboration with the Ministry of Planning and Employment. In fact, these programmes must be either complementary or supplementary to the Employment Plan formulated and implemented by that Ministry and not independent of it.

“Seeking solutions to the unemployment problem is beset with frustrating constraints owing to the present state of the economy. Since those in the higher age groups with heavier family responsibilities should justifiably receive preference in obtaining employment, it would be reasonable to assume that the ratio among the unemployed left out of the current employment programme at least for the time being, will be higher in the case of youth. Inevitably, the frustration among those left out will be aggravated. The Council will incorporate into the national service scheme and the travelling schemes, features which would contribute towards an amelioration of their condition.

“The biggest constraint on providing employment opportunities in adequate numbers is the lack of capital. The amount of capital that would be available as budgetary allocations is not likely to be adequate until at least the backlog of unemployment is cleared. Therefore extra-budgetary funds have to be sought and utilised. The legal and institutional framework of the National Youth Service Council is designed to enable it to perform this function. The Council will raise funds as empowered by section 18 of the Act and constructively invest them to provide employment opportunities to the youth.

“The scheme of compulsory savings incorporated into the National Service Programme will among other methods help considerably in capital formation which would enable the youth concerned to set themselves up in business, vocations, etc. on a

self-employment basis. There is already a sum of one million rupees in savings in the People's Bank to the credit of the youth who participated in the National Service Scheme so far. This saving scheme will be eventually converted to a Youth Fund which will serve youth not only to earn interest through savings but also to obtain credit to enable them to launch themselves into economically productive ventures. Thus, apart from the co-ordinating and supporting role in relation to youth employment discussed above, the Council will, by itself, launch as many employment programmes as possible, without however duplicating or overlapping the programmes implemented by other Ministries and Departments.

“There is yet another vital aspect of youth employment that the Council will get actively concerned with. It is true that employment is an aspect of the country's economy and could be both instrumental and the object of economic measures. At the same time, it must be sufficiently realised that ultimately employment is a human problem and concerns people. A job is not and should not be a wage-earning opportunity only. There are psychological aspects of employment, quite separate from wealth and earnings.

“At present any job carries with it a certain social value; social class at present depends largely on occupation. Part of the unemployment in Sri Lanka arises from this ‘class’ aspect of the jobs that the unemployed seek. There is a need for positive action to transfer the existing system of socio-economic relations so that a system of socialist values could become a reality. Action has to be taken to raising “dignity of labour” from an impressive phrase enjoying lip-service only to a meaningful and demonstrable concept.

“Accordingly, the activities of the Council in relation to youth employment will include –

- “(a) Co-ordinating and supporting services as are required by the agencies implementing employment programmes.
- “(b) Raising and constructively investing funds to provide constant employment opportunities to youth.
- “(c) Carrying out action programmes and conducting campaigns to promote the desirable changes in the social climate

that would help matching the aspirations of employment seekers with the employment opportunities that the country can and needs to create.

“To do this, the Council will appoint the necessary advisory and co-ordinating panels in terms of section 17 of the Act and also set up the necessary executive organisation.

### **Youth Welfare**

“At present there is very little organised activity in the field of general youth welfare, such as provision of facilities for wholesome recreation and cultural pursuits. Apart from an environment favourable for physical and mental growth and development, youth have specific psycho-social needs, such as opportunities to earn social acceptance, recognition and approbation, to develop self-confidence and a sense of achievement, and to give expression to their youth idealism and spirit of adventure. A wide variety of programmes inclusive of physical and mental health services, sports, cultural programmes and youth club activities are necessary to meet the welfare needs of youth.

“There is a vast area in the field of general youth welfare, ideally suited for voluntary, non-governmental agency activities. Therefore, the Council will establish very close liaison with the voluntary agencies and seek their active partnership in carrying out general youth welfare services. To facilitate the liaison between the Council and the voluntary agencies, active measures will be taken to promote a central co-ordinating body of all non-governmental youth welfare agencies.

“The Council will assist and support the Government Departments concerned with services that have a bearing on youth welfare. The necessary advisory and co-ordinating panels will be set up.

“There is the necessity as well as the feasibility of constructive use of mass media to cater to youth needs. The Council will arrange the publication and circulation of a Youth Newspaper in collaboration with the Department of Information. Arrangements will also be made to broadcast on a regular basis, a special youth radio programme in collaboration with the Sri Lanka Broadcasting Corporation. These two media-service projects will be progressively developed with the active participation of the youth themselves,

generally, to promote recreation and cultural education and to serve as a forum for exchange of views, news and information among youth themselves. In particular, they will be used as effective instruments for achieving some of the objects set out in para 2 of the Act such as, a spirit of national consciousness, a sense of discipline, an awareness of social and economic problems etc.

“The Council will also set up the necessary organisation for exchange of youth between Sri Lanka and other countries, on a regular basis, in terms of Section 2(2) of the Act, so that in addition to promoting goodwill and mutual understanding between Sri Lanka and other countries, our youth will be enabled to make use of the opportunity to travel abroad for gaining valuable experience, advancing knowledge and training, and broadening their outlook.

### **Youth Leadership Training and Research**

“A pre-requisite for the successful execution of a Youth Service Programme is the availability of youth leaders who possess the skills and attitudes that are necessary for playing effectively the leadership role among youth. Whether such leaders take the form of paid youth workers or chosen leaders in youth organisations their achievements would be limited to the extent that they can, on the one hand, win the confidence of the group in their leadership, and, on the other sensitise and motivate the group to move towards desired goals. It would, therefore, be necessary to adequately train youth leaders to equip them for their task and this will be the main function of the Central Institute of Training and Research.

“The second function of the Institute will be to conduct research relating to youth service programmes. Studies in matters such as effectiveness of methods used in implementing programmes, evaluation of the results achieved, the extent to which the needs of the group are met by the programmes that have been launched and changing patterns of needs and aspirations of youth, will be undertaken by the Research Division of the Institute. Findings of these studies would be made use of not only as a guide to the structuring of youth service programmes but also as a feed-back to the training courses.

### **Institutional Framework**

“The Youth Service Act provides the necessary statutory framework for the establishment and carrying out of youth service

schemes and also sets out the objects towards which youth service programmes are to be geared. The Act also envisages the outline of an institutional structure and the organisation. Accordingly, the Prime Minister will be at the head of the institutional structure exercising "the general or special direction and control of the Government" over the Youth Service Council and the direct supervision of the Council as the Minister in charge of the subject. The Prime Minister will be assisted by a Cabinet Sub-Committee chaired by the Prime Minister and consisting of the Ministers in charge of subjects and functions which have a bearing on the objects set out in the Act and the proposed Youth Service Schemes.

"The Youth Service Council in the performance of its role and functions will as much as possible seek and obtain the advice and assistance of Panels to be appointed under Section 17 of the Act. These Panels will be enabled to perform co-ordinating, advisory or executive functions as determined by the Council. Chairmen and members of these Panels will be selected from among Government officers concerned with the particular youth activity assigned to that Panel, eminent youth leaders, representatives of voluntary youth welfare organisations and youths to represent youth themselves.

"A Youth Forum will serve the Council as an institutional device to establish direct contact, consultation and a continuous dialogue with the youth themselves. This will also serve youth organisations to exchange views among themselves through organised debates and discussions and to advance their knowledge through seminars and lectures conducted by guest speakers etc.

"The schemes formulated and the decisions made by the Council will be implemented by the Secretariat of the National Youth Service Council, headed by the Chief Executive Officer of the Council, assisted by the necessary supporting staff. The Secretariat will have the following special divisions with specific functions:

- (a) Youth Leadership Training and Research.
- (b) National Service – Residential Training.
- (c) National Service – Youth in National Development.
- (d) Vocational Training and Apprenticeship.

- (e) Youth employment.
- (f) Youth Welfare.

“At the District level there will be District Youth Service Panels with the respective Government Agents as Chairmen and Local Heads of Development Departments as members. To ensure people’s participation in and wider support for the success of the youth service programmes, representatives of the people in the District and the youth will also be appointed to these panels. These panels will be constituted as Sub-Committees of the District Development Councils. These panels will arrange for the successful implementation of youth service programmes within their Districts through the Divisional Development Councils and with the support and assistance of the .N.Y.S.C. Secretariat and the supervision of the Council.

“The basic units at local level for implementing youth service programmes, particularly the National Service Programmes will be the Divisional Development Councils. These Councils will be reinforced with the addition to its membership of at least three youths selected to represent the youth of the Division. When considered necessary the Divisional Development Councils will be encouraged to form a Sub-Committee on youth affairs to enable expeditious implementation of youth service programmes in the division.”

## TRAINING CURRICULUM

The duration of the Training Programme will be three months for each batch. Each day will have 4 to 4½ hours of manual work and 4 hours of classroom instruction and group work.

### (a) Manual work

The projects selected will be of a magnitude and significance as would engender patriotism and a sense of achievement.

### (b) Training

#### (i) Period of Training

Classes will be held for six days of the week – 4 hours each day.

**(ii) Content**

- |  |  |
|--|--|
| (1) Individual and society                                   | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Behaviour in public places and institutions</li> <li>- Respect for public property</li> <li>- Law and order</li> <li>- Road Rules</li> <li>- Group discussion methods</li> <li>- Human relations</li> <li>- Leadership</li> <li>- Duty by the family, community and country.</li> </ul> |
| (2) Governmental mechanism and Local Government Institutions | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Parliament, Judiciary, Cabinet Government Departments</li> <li>- Local Government functions and institutions.</li> </ul>  |
| (3) Elements of Political Theory                             | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The Nation – the State</li> <li>- United Nations</li> <li>- Political Organisation</li> <li>- Party System</li> <li>- Principles of Socialism</li> </ul>  |
| (4) Development Studies                                      | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The economic structure of the country and the basic problems</li> <li>- Agriculture and Industrial Development</li> <li>- “Honest and hard work” as the basis of an economically prosperous era.</li> </ul>   |
| (5) Social Welfare   | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Elements of First Aid</li> <li>- Helping the Needy</li> <li>- Shramadana</li> <li>- Prevention of Crime</li> </ul>  |
| (6) People’s Organisations and Statutory Bodies              | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Co-operative organisations</li> <li>- Rural Development organisations</li> <li>- Divisional Development Councils</li> <li>- Janatha Committees</li> <li>- Cultivation Committees</li> <li>- Conciliation Boards</li> <li>- Advisory Councils</li> </ul>                                 |



- (7) Acquaintance with – Drama, Music and Folklore  
and Appreciation – Art  
of our Culture
- (8) Personal Hygiene – Personal Cleanliness  
and Environmental – Good health habits  
Sanitation – Community Health  
– Prevention of diseases
- (9) Sri Lanka in rela- – Sri Lanka and the World  
tion to the World – Examples of countries that have  
developed
- (10) Other discussions – Daily evaluation of work and  
in groups – planning for the following day.

Suitable modifications will be made in this programme for the training of girls so as to include subjects like Home Science and Mothercraft. Similarly, necessary modifications will also be done to match the programme with the educational attainments of each batch of youth.

### THE DAILY TIME-TABLE

The daily time table is as follows:-

5.30 a.m.	– Rising
5.30– 6.30	– Getting ready for the day
6.30– 6.45	– Assembly and drill
6.45– 7.15	– Breakfast
7.15–10.00	– Work
10.00–10.15	– Tea-break
10.15– 1.00 p.m.	– Work

The number of hours of work will gradually increase as the training course progresses.

1.00 p.m. –2.30	– Lunch and rest
2.30– 4.30	– Hobbies, basic skills, etc.
4.30– 6.00	– Tea-break and games
6.00– 8.00	– Lectures, discussions, film-shows etc.
8.00	– Dinner
9.00	– Lights out.

This daily Time-Table will be followed six days of the week except on Sundays and Full Moon Days which will be devoted exclusively for religious and cultural activities.

## THE LANKA MAHILA SAMITI ORGANISATION

### The Central Board

The policy-making body of the Lanka Mahila Samiti is the Central Board with 27 members, of whom the President, Vice-President and 7 others are elected by secret ballot at the Annual General Meeting. The other Members of the Central Board are the representatives of government departments whose programmes are of interest to the Samiti, the Girl Guides Association and 5-7 out of the 25 Organisers of the Association. The Board meets quarterly.

### Executive Committee

The Executive Committee of 7 comprises the President, Vice-President, Honorary Secretary and Honorary Treasurer, together with 3 others of the 9 elected members of the Central Board. This Committee attends to all correspondence, finance, supervision of staff and village Samiti activities. It meets fortnightly.

### District Committees

The aim is to decentralise the work of the Association through District Committees for each of the 22 Revenue Districts in the Island. At present they are functioning in 5 Districts. Their membership consists of Parikshana Sevikas, Grama Sevikas of the district, a few representatives of village Samitis and a few ordinary members of the Association living in the district. The membership is about 8-10 persons. The responsibility of supervising and promoting the work in the district is delegated to this Committee.

There are also 55 Mahila Samiti Unions on which all the village Samitis within its area are represented. A Union covers an area of 1 or 2 Divisional Revenue Officers' divisions which is only a part of a Revenue District. These Unions exist in at least 20 districts of the Island.

At Union meetings, progress reports of member Samitis are submitted. Government officials are also invited to explain their programmes and show how members can benefit from them. They meet at 4 monthly intervals. Meetings are held in rotation in

the different villages in which Samitis have been organised. It is reported that the exchange of ideas at Union meetings both with representatives of other Samitis and with government officials have helped member societies to further their work.

### Staff

The staff available for carrying out this Islandwide programme are:

- 25 Regional Organisers (trained). They are volunteers from among the members of the Association. 25 other members too work with them as understudies.
- 15 Grama Sevikas (till 1970 there were about 50; but lack of funds has compelled them to reduce the number).
- 25 Parikshna Sevikas (till 1970 there were about 50 of them, but lack of funds has compelled the Association to reduce this number in 1972).
- 58 Creche Sevikas.

At the Headquarters, there was a permanent staff of 14 which included management, clerical and minor personnel up to 1969. Now there are only 7, due to lack of funds. The Secretary of the Association states that in spite of a reduction of staff both at Headquarters and in the field, they are striving to maintain the services at the same level as in the past.

### Scholarships

The Association awards 6 scholarships annually as follows:

- 2 Scholarships for deserving and talented members of village Samitis for training in batik and pillow lace work.
- 4 Scholarships for deserving and talented members of villages Samitis for training as Swecha Sevikas.

In both these cases the cost of training including board and lodging is borne by the Association.

## TYPES OF ACTIVITIES UNDERTAKEN BY MAHILA SAMITIS

### Health

- 1. Construction of compost pits to convert home and garden refuse into manure, for use in home gardens.

2. Use of boiled and cooled water for drinking, in order to combat water-borne diseases.
3. Inducing village people to provide better ventilation and light for their homes.
4. The construction of sanitary latrines, to avoid foul odours, flies, diseases etc.
5. The improvement of the well by constructing a parapet round it, an apron and lead-away drain, to protect it from pollution from surface drainage. Also cleaning the well when necessary.
6. Encouraging expectant and nursing mothers to visit the maternity and child welfare clinics run by the government in rural areas.
7. Organisation of indoor and outdoor recreational and relaxational facilities.
8. Educating and training women on nutrition, home nursing, personal hygiene etc.

### **Education**

1. Organising adult classes both for literacy, vocational education and training e.g. sewing, needlework, handloom weaving, handicrafts, cottage industries etc., using local raw materials which were hitherto going waste.
2. Ensuring that children do attend school.
3. Encouraging the use of reading material available at the village school and community centre.

### **Agriculture**

1. Encouraging the cultivation of home gardens to ease financial strain.
2. Actively participating with the men in agricultural activity in the fields.
3. Undertaking food preservation and canning (a mobile canning unit from the parent organisation provides this facility).

### **Social**

1. Effecting amicable settlement of family disputes within the village.

### **Spiritual**

1. The observance of one's own religion and sending children for religious instruction to the village temple or church.

**1. PARTICULARS OF RESIDENTIAL TRAINING PROVIDED TO NOMINEES OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT SOCIETIES IN 1971/72 AT THE 10 TRAINING CENTRES**

No. of training courses conducted	..	29
Enrolment – Men	..	264
Women	..	447

In addition one training class for government officials at the village level was conducted with an enrolment of 21.

**2. SCHEDULE OF PUBLIC UTILITY WORKS COMPLETED BY RURAL DEVELOPMENT SOCIETIES ON A SELF-HELP BASIS IN 1971/72**

	No.	<i>Estimate of self-help contribution by the village</i> Rs.
Drinking – water wells	.. 182	97,485.00
Bathing Wells	.. 86	72,541.00
Public Latrines	.. 52	15,498.00
Multi-purpose halls	.. 139	228,359.00
Industrial buildings	.. 21	32,397.00
School buildings	.. 33	101,514.00
Burial grounds	.. 4	6,300.00
Extensions to public buildings	.. 5	2,609.00
Other village utility works	.. 35	49,689.00
Village roads	.. 138 (miles)	210,882.00
Culverts	.. 261	335,831.00
Bridges	.. 17	51,988.00
Retaining walls	.. 26	122,215.00
Total value of self-help	..	1,327,308.00
Total government expenditure	..	1,481,408.00

**3. SCHEDULE OF SHRAMADANA ACTIVITIES EXECUTED  
BY VILLAGE PEOPLE UNDER THE RURAL  
DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME  
WITH FOOD-AID UNDER THE WORLD  
FOOD PROGRAMME**

	<i>No. of units</i>	<i>Man Days</i>	<i>Value of work in Rs.</i>
<b>Roads</b>			
Reconstruction	277 $\frac{3}{4}$ miles	936,771	3,747,084.00
New construction	364 $\frac{1}{2}$ miles		
Earth work	169,779 cubes		
<b>Irrigation</b>			
Clearing of channels	91 $\frac{3}{4}$ miles	75,286	310.144.00
Desilting of channels	465 cubes		
Construction of tank bunds	13,582 cubes		
Reconstruction of tanks	1 tank		
<b>Agriculture</b>			
Clearing of forests	325 acres	32,392	129,568.00
New planting	200 acres		
Transplanting	68 acres		
Weeding	40 acres		
<b>Buildings</b>			
Housing (completed)	50 units	37,107	148,428.00
Housing (under construc- tion)	49 units		
R. D. S. Halls	41		
Wells	42		
Repairs to school buildings	3		
<b>Miscellaneous</b>			
Burial grounds	15	3,278	13,112.00
School playgrounds	18		
Railway platforms	4		

**Source:** Administration Report of the Director of Rural Development for 1970/71.

**LANKA JATIKA SARVODAYA SHRAMADANA SANGAMAYA**

The general principles governing the activities of the organisation are:

- (i) To observe Truth, Non-violence and Self-denial at all times.
- (ii) To reduce gradually one's everyday needs in order to attain progressively the goal of a simple way of living.
- (iii) To steer clear of any political-party affiliations in order that the sanctity of the Association may be preserved.
- (iv) To reduce and not to add to the burdens of the State in regard to the financing of community development and social welfare projects of the government and to render assistance through Shramadana to expedite such work.
- (v) To change over by non-violent methods to a Sarvodaya social order which is based on community ownership, co-operation, love and self-denial by giving up the present way of life based on private ownership of wealth, selfish competition, hatred and greed.
- (vi) To accept the Sarvodaya ideal, namely, "The Welfare of all" as propounded by Mahatma Gandhi, and as pursued in India today under the enlightened guidance of Acharaya Vinoba Bhave, and with the help of teachings of great religious leaders such as Lord Buddha, Hindu Saints, Jesus Christ and Prophet Mohamed.
- (vii) To preserve the purity of the means by which the objects of the Association are to be achieved.
- (viii) To accept, and to abide by the decision of the Executive Council and the Elders' Council in matters pertaining to membership of the Association such as removal from membership and to pledge that such members shall, voluntarily resign from membership if the said Councils were to decide to remove such members from membership.
- (ix) To realise that Shramadana is only the first step in the strategy of a total non-violent revolution for change in all matters, social, moral, political and economic and so proceed to render service through other Sarvodaya steps

that may be taken from time to time in order to establish a society where justice and equality shall prevail and where exploitation of man by man in any form would be entirely eliminated.

- (x) To realise and to strive towards attaining the ideal that maximum well-being and happiness of humanity could be achieved only when people within countries are organised through non-violent methods into self-reliant rural and urban communities and into nations within which prevail scientific and spiritual values harmoniously combined for the welfare of all and when these organise themselves into a commonwealth of independent national states – that is, into a world community where peace, co-operation and mutual respect form the salient features.

The objectives of the Organisation are:

- (i) To provide, by means of Shramadana Camps and other constructive ways, adequate opportunities and the appropriate mental climate that will enable those Shramadana *Sewakas* and *Sevikas* who volunteer to engage themselves in the village development and community welfare projects, to appreciate the philosophy of Sarvodaya and live up to its principles and realise its objects.
- (ii) To provide opportunities for the youth to acquire a correct understanding of the socio-economic and other problems of the country and to organise educational and training programmes which will enable them to learn ways and means of solving these problems with the Sarvodaya philosophy.
- (iii) To guide them to organise programmes with a view to eradicate distrust and disintegration which spring from differences such as of caste, race, creed or party-politics.
- (iv) To disseminate qualities of selfless service, self-denial, co-operation, self-discipline and dignity of labour among the people of the land.
- (v) To encourage the development, specially in the youth, of healthy views of social justice, equality, love of one's motherland and international brotherhood.



- (vi) To develop self-confidence, co-operation and unity among urban and rural communities and to evoke their inherent strength to bring about an all-round development in their spiritual, moral, social and economic life.
- (vii) To train and organise groups of youth who are ready to come forward and render voluntary service in times of national distress as well as in community development and social welfare programmes.
- (viii) To enlist and mobilise the maximum possible resources of the people such as their time, intelligence, energy, land, wealth, specialised skills and technological knowledge which they are prepared to donate of their own free will, and utilise resources scientifically to bring about the general economic and social progress of the people.
- (ix) To associate generally for the realisation of the objectives of the various institutions of the United Nations and specially to assist in the programmes of the Freedom From Hunger Campaign of the Food and Agricultural Organisation, the UNESCO and the WHO to eradicate Hunger, Illiteracy and Disease from our world.
- (x) To promote the idea of the need for, and the importance of, the establishment of an International Shramadana Corpus, under the auspices of the United Nations, through its member nations.

### **Clarification of the general principles and objectives**

Some of the general principles and objectives of this organisation as enunciated above might give the reader the impression that there are contradictions in them. In order to clarify these, we had several interviews with the Organising Secretary, the President of the Executive Council and others. The issues raised by us and the responses to them are given below in the form of questions and answers.

Issues relating to general principles:

- Q. Item ii of the general principles refers to a reduction of one's daily needs in order to attain the goal of a simple way of living. If we are concerned with development which, among other things, includes the material comforts of life, won't a reduction of one's needs be a barrier to such development?

- A. Look at the so-called developed countries in the world. They are today a post-industrial, mass consumption society. More needs have to be created in those societies if they are to survive. It is a race that cannot end but causes much frustration. We in the Third World have to avoid this unfortunate situation. We must discard false values and sacrifice luxurious living in order to save for the development of the mass of our people who are living at a low level of subsistence.
- Q. In the next general principle, your Movement steers clear of political party affiliations. I take this to mean that you are a non-political body. How can you achieve your objective of social and economic progress outside the framework of politics?
- A. Sarvodaya is a political body, but we don't dabble in party politics which is power oriented with the objective of achieving and retaining power. This tends to be a divisive force at the grass root level. Furthermore, the people are alienated from the political party after it comes into power. Decision making becomes the function of the few who are in Parliament. Sarvodaya believes in people's participatory politics whereby the people are given opportunities for participating in decision making at all levels. Power politics does not come into play within the Sarvodaya philosophy.

Party politics in developing countries has been inimical to development. Sri Lanka has had an overdose of this. We must ensure that all interest groups are adequately represented at all levels of decision making.

- Q. The fifth general principle talks of a non-violent change-over to the Sarvodaya social order based on community ownership, co-operation, self-denial and love. Competition, acquisitive instincts etc. are regarded as aids to development. How can you achieve development without these incentives?
- A. Western economists have based their theories on the assumption that man is selfish by nature and that the

profit motive leads to competition and progress. This has also led to the widening of the social, economic and psychological gap between the developed and under-developed parts of the world. These assumptions need to be changed through non-violence. The strategy adopted by us in Sri Lanka is to bring about an awareness among the people that they are not free within the existing social, economic and political framework. At the village level the political, economic and bureaucratic systems are not designed to serve the people but the centre. This has resulted in the alienation of the people from the administration. Shramadana camps are designed to bring together people of diverse interests with the common objective based on historical facts. In Sri Lanka we are using the Buddhist concepts, for which equivalents can be found in other great religions too, and give them a meaning which bears relevance to our present-day environment. The concepts we use are: (1) *Mettā* (loving kindness) – to convey the idea of respect for life and preservation of nature and the improvement of the quality of the human being if we are to have a better society; (2) *Karunā* (compassionate action) – finding the cause of the sufferings of people and helping them to remove that cause; (3) *Mudithā* (sympathetic joy) – the experience of detached joy on the fruition of an objective such as a development or welfare programme; (4) *Upekkhā* (equanimity) the ability to develop a balanced personality; (5) *Dāna* (sharing) – as opposed to the profit motive; (6) *Priya Vachana* (non-injurious speech) – to help to integrate the community; (7) *Artha Charya* (constructive activity) – as opposed to anti-social activity; (8) *Samānāthmathā* (equality) – equality of association in decision making, implementation, sharing of benefits, customs, ceremonies etc. These eight are common to all people – be they literate or illiterate.

- Q. In general principle six you refer to the “Sarvodaya ideal” as the “Welfare of all”. This is to be achieved with the help of the teachings of the Great Religious Leaders of the World. Has your organisation extracted the relevant teachings of the Religious Leaders for this purpose?

- A. On our Executive Committee we have three Buddhist monks and a Christian Bishop. At Shramadana camps the clergy of all religions in that area are involved. We use the temple, the church or the mosque as the centres for Sarvodaya activity. Community meditation is an important aspect of Shramadana programmes. People of different religious faiths and even atheists come together. Even in a village which is 100 per cent Buddhist, the relevance of other religions is explained so that they could appreciate and respect all religions. Even to the atheist, humanism is relevant.
- Q. General principle seven refers to the acceptance of decisions of the Executive Committee and the Elders' Council relating to membership and the voluntary resignation of a member, if the Council were to make such a decision. While resignation from membership may not present a problem, have you considered the possibility of a member or members, through envy, jealousy, ambition for power etc. (these are no doubt contrary to Sarvodaya principles) attempting to capture the leadership in your Movement? Secondly, isn't there always the possibility of a deviant in your organisation or a non-member, starting a similar organisation as a rival to yours and undermining yours? Can these risks be overcome?
- A. These risks are always present. There is nothing to prevent rivalry arising from jealousy, envy, power etc. This clause serves only as a precautionary constitutional measure. But more importantly, we depend on the philosophy of the Movement, which is basically a moral force, to surmount all such obstacles for the furtherance of our objectives.
- Q. You say that Shramadana is only the first step in the strategy of a total non-violent revolution. Please clarify.
- A. Sarvodaya is divided into 5 phases. The first is *Shramadana* or the personality development aspect. The second is *Gramodaya* or the group awakening aspect. The third is *Grama Swarajya* or the decision-making stage

which is achieved through the "haulas" (see p.161), leadership and the acquisition of skills. The fourth phase is *Deshodaya* or the national awakening stage. At this stage, labour intensive agro-industries, trusteeship, ensuring the non-violent transformation from the private ownership of the means of production to people's ownership as distinct from State ownership and management, and a partyless (political) participatory people's democracy will emerge. The fifth and final stage is *Vishodaya* or world awakening stage when a world brotherhood, free from war and exploitation, will be established. There will also be a village to village link-up between poor and rich nations and science and spirituality will progress side by side. Sarvodaya can create a conscious understanding of the self and show the way for the harmonisation of science and spirituality.

Issues relating to objectives:

Q. There is only one point I wish to comment on. This relates to the third objective which refers to the organisation of programmes to eradicate distrust, disintegration arising from differences of caste, race, creed and party politics. Don't you agree that there can be disequilibrium and even disintegration through social change as well as economic change?

A. Yes. We must organise programmes to eradicate these too. Distrust and disintegration are largely the result of the dominance of institutional inter-relationships with an almost complete absence of humanisation forces in inter-personal relationships.

### Membership

- (i) The general membership of the association could be obtained by any person of over 16 years of age who accepts the principles, objects and rules of the association. There are six categories of members – namely, Youth, Ordinary, Donor, Life, Honorary and International.
- (ii) In addition to the membership of the main statutory association, there are group Sarvodaya formations of children (6-14), youth (14-30), mothers, farmers and

general elders which are being formed in all villages and institutions where the Sarvodaya Shramadana Movement operates.

### Management

- (i) An Executive Council of 35 members annually elected by the general membership runs the affairs of the Movement. Fifteen of them are the members of the Council of Elders.
- (ii) The Council of Elders is composed of 15 persons who are either Honorary or Life Members of the Organisation. It functions as an advisory and guiding body of the Executive Council.
- (iii) Of the 35 members in the Executive Council, fifteen are elected as the members of the Council of Elders and the remaining twenty members are elected by the general body of members at the Annual General Meeting. Six principal office-bearers are also elected at this Annual General Meeting.
- (iv) The composition of the Council of Elders and the Executive Council in 1972, in relation to age is given below:

	Council of Elders		Executive Council	
	No.	Age (yrs.)	No.	Age (yrs.)
President	1	78	1	65
Vice-President	—	—	2	45 and 55
Secretary	1	45	1	40
Organising Secretary	—	—	1	42
Treasurer	—	—	1	45
Council Members	13	45-65	14 others	25-40
			15 of	
			the Council	
			of Elders	45-78

It should be noted from the above that the Council of Elders is composed of middle aged and older persons. The twenty members of the Executive Council who are elected at the Annual General Meeting include mainly young persons over 25 years of age, while the office bearers are middle aged and older persons.

Another phenomenon which should be noted is that the office-bearers of the Council of Elders and the Executive Council are not the same persons.

- (v) Other characteristics which should be noted are:
- (a) The office bearers in the Executive Council are either middle aged or older persons while the fourteen other elected members of the Executive Council are in the age group 25–40 years who sit together with the 15 members of the Council of Elders.
  - (b) The fact that the Sarvodaya Movement has fired the imagination of youth in the country and harnessed their time, talents and energy for their self-development as well as national development and the fact that the Executive Committee is controlled by persons who cannot be classified as “young”, shows that the so-called “generation gap” can be bridged.
  - (c) At the Executive Committee meetings while the main business is conducted among its members, other members which include the field workers, are also free to attend the Executive Committee meeting and participate in the discussion and even influence the decisions of the Executive Committee.

### **Ideals and Symbols**

Idealism and symbolism, which appeal to all persons and to youth in particular, are closely identified in all Sarvodaya activities. The historical national flag of Sri Lanka, with the lion holding the sword and a border containing four Bo leaves at the four corners, is the main symbol to illustrate the Sarvodaya principles, and to organise activities. The Sarvodaya movement has interpreted the national flag in the following manner.

The outer corners of the flag symbolise “respect for life”, “compassionate action”, “sympathetic joy” and “equanimity”. The inner corners symbolise “sharing”, “non-injurious speech”, “constructive activity” and “equality”. The central motif of the lion holding the sword symbolises the strength of the society in using the sword in the protection of the above principles.

### Jobs and Employment

We note that the Sarvodaya literature makes no reference to "jobs" and "employment". The explanation given is that these words imply the exploitation of man by man and as such are incongruous with Sarvodaya principles. Sarvodaya workers believe that it is not economic incentives which should ensure increased productivity but the application of Sarvodaya principles, whereby both sexes and all age groups as well as those from outside the village will join together in a common endeavour, inspired by these principles to help the farmer to achieve maximum productivity. All Sarvodaya activities are based on the principle of participation in the establishment of a village trust and are governed by the four principles of "respect for life", "compassionate action", "sympathetic joy" and "equanimity" as applicable to the village society and the other four principles of "sharing", "non-injurious speech", "constructive activity" and "equality" as applicable to the individual.

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## APPENDIX I

### SRI LANKA

#### General Background

Sri Lanka is an island lying in the Indian Ocean, north of the Equator, between  $5^{\circ} 55'$  and  $9^{\circ} 50'$  North Latitude and between  $79^{\circ} 42'$  and  $81^{\circ} 52'$  East Longitude. It lies to the South East of the Indian sub-continent and is separated from India by a narrow strip of shallow sea, the Palk Strait. The Island as a whole is a compact area except for Mannar and for the almost detached portion in the North termed the Jaffna Peninsula and its satellite islands.

The Island extends through its greatest length, 270 miles, from Point Palmyrah in the North to Dondra Head in the South. Its greatest width extends to almost 140 miles, from Colombo in the West to Sangamankande on the East coast. The total area of Sri Lanka is 25,332 square miles or 16,212,480 acres, of which about 370 square miles or 236,700 acres comprise large inland waters.

Generally speaking, the relief of the Island may be said to constitute (a) a mountainous area about the south-central part, averaging from about 3000 to 7000 feet, (b) an upland belt of an elevation of about 1000 to 3000 feet surrounding the montane country, and (c) the flat coastal plain which occupies the rest of the Island and is narrow on the West, East and South, but broadens out to vast tracts in the North covering more than half the length of the country. The coastal plain does not drop abruptly but continues for a long distance out to sea (20 to 60 miles) as the Continental Shelf.

Numerous rivers and streams radiate from the central hills. Since the hydrographic pattern is a function essentially of relief and structure, in Sri Lanka the rivers flowing to the West, East and South are shorter than those flowing to the North, North-West and North-East due to the south-central hilly mass. The lower

Northern, North-Central, North-Western and Eastern plains have a network of tanks and irrigation channels. A few of these tanks are fed by rivers while a large majority of them collect rainwater for irrigation purposes in the Dry Zone.

Because of its situation close to the Equator, Sri Lanka's mean temperature is high. But in view of the fact that the maximum width of the country is only 140 miles, the oceanic effect helps to reduce the temperature in the plains and this effect is further enhanced by the presence of the hills in the Central region. Temperatures rarely exceeding 98°F are experienced in the districts to the North and North-West of the hills and in the East and North-Eastern low country, during the period March to June. In the coastal area the lowest temperature ranging between 70° and 74°F occurs during December and January. However, with altitude there is a decrease. At Nuwara Eliya which is situated at an altitude of 6,200 feet, the mean temperature is generally about 60°F but occasionally falls below freezing point.

Sri Lanka receives its rainfall from both South-West and North-East monsoons and is also influenced by conventional rains in the inter-monsoonal periods. The South-West monsoon prevails from May to September and the North-East monsoon from November to March. The inter-monsoonal months are marked by heavy rainfall which continues during the early months of the monsoon. Though the country is conventionally divided into two climatic zones, viz. the Wet Zone comprising the South-Western sections of the country and the Dry Zone which is largely the North-Eastern section, no part of the country is completely dry. In the Wet Zone the average annual rainfall varies from 100 to 200 inches while in the Dry Zone it is below 50 inches. The Dry Zone experiences a prolonged period of drought during the South-West monsoon which brings the heaviest rainfall to Sri Lanka.

### **Principal Resources**

Of Sri Lanka's total land area of about 16.2 million acres, approximately 4.8 million are in use for agricultural production.

The acreage under different crops is given below:—

Tea	..	597,000
Rubber	..	572,000
Coconut	..	1,152,000
Paddy	..	1,120,000
		<hr/>
		<u>3,441,000</u>

(Sources: Tea Controller, Rubber Controller, Ministry of Agriculture & Lands, Department of Census & Statistics).

Roads, streams, reservoirs, towns and villages, parks and reserves are estimated to cover nearly 2.0 million acres. Approximately 2.5 million acres are under a form of shifting cultivation and grasslands; scrub and forest account for the balance 6.9 million acres. Various estimates of the new land that could be developed for productive use have been given. Probably about 3.5–4.0 million acres of the 9 million acres under shifting cultivation and forest could be brought under production.

The major rivers in the country provide adequate water resources for irrigation and hydro-electric power. The diversion of the largest river, Mahaweli, is estimated to irrigate nearly 900,000 acres. The diversion of rivers in the South-West could provide irrigation to the dry and arid zones in the South-East. The potential for hydro-electricity according to the plan already drawn for 2 major sources – Mahaweli and Samanalawewa – is estimated to be adequate for the next 25 years.

Sri Lanka is relatively poor in mineral resources. There are appreciable resources of iron ore on which a steel industry of moderate size is being planned. Sri Lanka has been the world's leading producer of high-grade graphite. Unstable markets and costly and wasteful production have reduced the annual output but large reserves are available for future exploitation. Few parts of the world produce a greater variety of gem stones than Sri Lanka. Other minerals are ilmenite of which Sri Lanka has an excellent deposit in the East coast; monozite in the South-West coast, thorianite, extensive deposits of glass sands and mica; limestone deposits which have supported a thriving cement industry; clays for bricks and tiles, raw materials including dolomite, feldspar and

kaolin for ceramic industries; and salt in which Sri Lanka is self-sufficient. Recent geological surveys have discovered sizeable deposits of phosphate and small deposits of low-grade lignite. The geological structure in the North is reported to be promising for petroleum deposits and exploration is in progress.

Sri Lanka's forest resources in the Dry Zone and Wet Zone, properly exploited, are adequate to meet the future demand for timber for house construction, furniture and other wood-based industries. With suitable methods of exploitation of forest on steep gradients it can expand its wood-based industries for exports, particularly in plywoods and veneers.

At present Sri Lanka produces over 50 percent of the fish it consumes. Available coastal and offshore resources of fish are estimated to offer good scope for the expansion of the fishing industry while exploitation of deep-sea fisheries such as tuna is also contemplated in the Five-Year Plan.

### The People

The Sinhalese form the largest racial group in Sri Lanka. They are divided into the Low-Country Sinhalese and the Kandyan Sinhalese. This differentiation has no ethnic significance; generally the Sinhalese who trace their descent to a low-country district – the Western and Southern Provinces, the Chilaw district and the western part of the Puttalam district – are classified as Low-Country Sinhalese while the rest are classified as Kandyan Sinhalese. The other racial groups are the Ceylon Tamils, Indian Tamils, Ceylon Moors, Indian Moors, Burghers and Eurasians, Malays and others. The following Table gives a classification of the population of Sri Lanka by race.

**Population of Ceylon (Sri Lanka)  
(Census 1971) by Race**

<i>Race</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Per cent</i>
Low-Country Sinhalese	.. 5,445,706	42.8
Kandyan Sinhalese	.. 3,700,973	29.2
Ceylon Tamils	.. 1,415,567	11.2
Indian Tamils	.. 1,195,368	9.4

Ceylon Moors	..	824,291	6.5
Indian Moors	..	29,416	0.2
Burghers and Eurasians	..	44,250	0.3
Malays	..	41,615	0.3
Others	..	13,957	0.1

(Source: Census of 1971 – Department of Census & Statistics)

### The Economy

Sri Lanka has usually been referred to as an “export economy” on account of its productive activity, having been heavily oriented, until recently, toward supplying a few primary commodities (mainly tea, rubber and coconut) to the world market. Nonetheless, a larger proportion of the population, essentially in rural areas, has been traditionally engaged in the production of rice and other food crops generally for home consumption. Thus there has existed two sectors side by side – the modern plantation sector established and operated on a commercial basis and the traditional domestic agricultural sector. Foreign capital, mainly British, and Indian immigrant labour played a significant role in the development of the plantation industry. Its rise enabled the development of a vast array of financial and commercial establishments in Colombo and a few other towns. The traditional sector comprised essentially the rural areas (villages) in both the Wet and Dry Zones, the activity within which included traditional crafts and service occupations.

This was the economic setting until about 1950. Since Independence (1948) the Government of Ceylon (Sri Lanka) has been pursuing a conscious policy of promoting and assisting the development of the economy. In fact, as H. M. Oliver observed, Ceylon (Sri Lanka) was the first country in South-East Asia to venture into development planning. In spite of these efforts to promote social and economic development, the rate of growth of the economy has not been adequate to ensure an improved standard of living to the people generally. The comparatively high rate of population growth and the foreign exchange problem have been two of the many problems inhibiting the country’s development efforts.

The data in the following table regarding the composition of Sri Lanka’s Gross Domestic Product reflect the predominantly agricultural character of the economy and lack of development of manufacturing industry.

**Gross Domestic Product of 1972 at Constant (1959) Factor Cost Prices**

	1972	
	<i>Amount</i>	
	<i>Rs. Million</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
1. Agriculture, Forestry, Hunting and Fishing ..	3,478	34.6
2. Mining and Quarrying ..	68	0.6
3. Manufacturing ..	1,401	14.0
4. Construction ..	505	5.0
5. Electricity, Gas, Water ..	24	0.2
6. Transport, Storage, Communications ..	988	9.8
7. Wholesale and Retail Trade ..	1,327	13.1
8. Banking, Insurance ..	136	1.4
9. Ownership of Dwellings ..	313	3.0
10. Public Administration and Defence ..	522	5.1
11. Services ..	1,334	13.2
	10,096	100.0

(Source: Central Bank of Ceylon)

It will be seen that the economy of the Island is still predominantly agricultural. Agriculture contributes nearly 35 per cent of the G.D.P. In the last 20 years manufacturing activity has increased its share of the G.D.P. from about 8 per cent to 14 per cent only. While the contribution of Agriculture to G.D.P. has remained more or less constant, the composition of its output has undergone significant changes. There has been a dramatic increase in the output of paddy in the last decade and less dramatic but yet substantial increases in the production of subsidiary food crops such as onions, chillies and potatoes.

In the post-Independence period, the industrial sector has recorded a modest rate of growth. The deteriorating balance of payments led to the imposition of stringent controls on industrial imports. This gave a 'fillip' to import substitution. Besides, the Industrial Development Programme provided for investments in many basic large scale industries like Cement, Steel, Paper, Tyre etc. Consequently, there has been a slow yet discernible transformation in the structure of the economy.

Sri Lanka, it was indicated earlier, is an open economy in which the dependence on foreign trade is high. The export income is derived mainly from tea, rubber and coconut which together account for nearly 90 per cent of the country's foreign earnings. Sri Lanka's imports have averaged Rs. 2,100 million a year during the last decade. The data in the following table show the value and composition of Sri Lanka's exports and imports during 1972:

<b>Exports 1972</b>			<i>Value</i>
<i>Commodity</i>			<i>Rs. Million</i>
Tea	..	..	1,154
Rubber	..	..	265
Major Coconut Products	..	..	266
Other domestic exports	..	..	238
Re-exports	..	..	18
		Total	<u>1,941</u>

<b>Imports 1972</b>			<i>Value</i>
<i>Categories</i>			<i>Rs. Million</i>
Consumer Goods:			
Food and Drink	..	..	961
Textiles	..	..	48
Other consumer goods	..	..	104
Intermediate goods	..	..	458
Investment goods	..	..	438
Unclassified imports	..	..	36
		Total	<u>2,045</u>

(Source: Central Bank of Ceylon)

The causes for Sri Lanka's balance of payments problems are thus clear. Even with stringent import controls, the value of Sri Lanka's imports has exceeded that of exports. Efforts to expand the volume of exports as a means of increasing export earnings have not borne results in view of the continuous decline of the prices of Sri Lanka's exports in the world market.

The distribution of Sri Lanka's workforce by major industrial divisions is indicated in the following table:

**Employed Population 15 years and over Classified by Major Industrial Divisions, 1969/70**

Major Industrial Divisions	<i>Number</i> <i>(in thousands)</i>	<i>Per cent</i>
Agriculture, Hunting, Forestry and Fishing ..	1,853.8	51.6
Mining and Quarrying ..	31.9	0.9
Electricity, Gas and Water ..	19.8	0.5
Construction ..	114.0	3.2
Manufacturing ..	379.4	10.6
Wholesale and Retail Trade, Restaurants & Hotels ..	325.9	9.1
Transport, Storage and Communication	179.2	5.0
Financing, Insurance, Real Estate and Business Services ..	16.0	0.4
Community, Social and Personal Services ..	565.0	15.7
Activities not adequately defined ..	110.5	3.0
	<u>3,595.5</u>	<u>100.0</u>

(Source: Preliminary Report of the Socio-Economic Survey of Ceylon 1969-70 - Department of Census & Statistics, Ceylon (Sri Lanka).)

The predominancy of agriculture and related occupations in Sri Lanka is borne out by the preponderant proportion of the employed population engaged in this sector. The data revealed by the same survey indicates that over 45 percent of the agricultural workforce is in the plantation sector while another 36 percent is engaged in the cultivation of paddy and other food crops. In the domestic agricultural sector a substantial portion of the workforce is self-employed. The need to modernise this sector as well as to enhance the chances of the underemployed to secure more gainful occupations underscore the importance of the role of formal and non-formal education, especially of the vocational and technical types.

### **The System of Education**

Sri Lanka is perhaps the first country in this region to introduce a State-sponsored system of free education from Kindergarten to the



University. This system came into operation in October 1945. Attendance at school between the ages of six and fourteen is theoretically compulsory, subject to a few exceptions. This requirement is generally not enforced because the school enrolment rate is high already and in certain remote areas schools are not available within reasonable distance from the residence of the pupils.

The major consequence of this system of education is that Sri Lanka has a highly literate population. The literacy rate of those over 5 years of age is estimated to be over 85 percent. A high proportion of the children, as indicated above, attend school, with enrolments of children between 5 and 13 years estimated at about 80 percent of the total population in this age group. Secondary schools are well attended and large numbers take the General Certificate of Education Examination at the end of the tenth year in School. A substantial number go on to the eleventh and twelfth grades or some form of further education. All this is provided free by the Government with annual expenditure on education running at about 5 percent of the G.N.P.

This apparently impressive picture conceals a number of serious weaknesses, most of which stem from the massive expansion since Independence (1948) of the traditional academic type of educational system of the colonial era with little regard to the manpower needs of the country. Although changes may well be needed at the primary level, the rest of the problem is at the secondary level where the bulk of the students follow academically oriented courses in the humanities. It is estimated that in 1970 nearly 65 percent of the children in their tenth year of schooling were studying mainly humanities with 18 percent in science streams and the rest in some form of pre-vocational technical stream. Although this represents an improvement over the mid-1950s, it still leads to widespread unemployment among secondary school-leavers whose training and interest are for "white-collar" jobs. It also creates a demand for arts-based courses at the higher levels of education since students want to continue the subjects in which they have specialised at school. This has, in turn, led to an output of arts graduates from the various campuses far in excess of the employment opportunities which these graduates regard as suitable.

The Government is aware of the situation and fairly radical changes in the educational structure are being planned and carried out. So far these have been without any comprehensive estimates of the future – or indeed present – manpower requirements of the country. This situation is being remedied and the general direction of the changes which are needed is clear and work is now under way on the projections on the need for skilled manpower. Pre-vocational streams are now being introduced into the secondary schools at the eighth grade level. These cover commercial subjects, technical subjects, agricultural and home economics. The curriculum of the sixth to eighth grades is being completely recast and the new curriculum has been introduced into Grade Six in 1972.

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## Non-Formal Education in Sri Lanka

This study was sponsored by the United Nations Children's Fund and the International Council for Educational Development (UNICEF/ICED) who are making a study of non-formal education for rural development in various countries in Africa, Asia the Caribbean and Latin America. The country study for Sri Lanka was undertaken by the Marga Institute.

The study while describing and analysing the needs of adolescents and youth in relation to the provision of non-formal education, deals in particular with the current pre-vocational curricular reform as an example of the re-orientation of the formal education system. It also describes and analyses the work of selected voluntary organisations engaged in community education.