Ceylon Year Book

1950

DEPARTMENT OF CENSUS AND STATISTICS,

COLOMBO, CEYLON.

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PREFACE

THE Ceylon Year Book stems directly from the Annual General Report on Ceylon published since 1928 under the instructions of the Secretary of State for the Colonies. In keeping with the Annual Colonial Reports, this was intended to provide for those in England who were interested in colonial affairs, a readable and up-to-date commentary on the economic and social conditions of the Island. Minor modifications were effected from time to time, placing greater emphasis on subjects relating to popular welfare, but the basic pattern of the Reports remained unaltered. The publication of the Annual General Report was suspended after the outbreak of war, in 1940.

With the end of the war it was decided to resume publication of the series on a wider basis. Before the first post-war Report could be completed, however, the grant of political independence severed the Island's link with the Colonial Office. Publication of the Annual General Report was thereby terminated. It was superseded by the Ceylon Year Book whose first issue appeared in 1949.

The Ceylon Year Book while incorporating the Annual General Report, was wider in scope and contained chapters on the social and cultural progress of the Island. as well. Its second issue ventured further in this direction but keeping within the frame-work of the previous issue. The bulk of this material was furnished by the various Government Departments and was published in its entirety under headings which corresponded to the names of these Departments.

The scope of the present volume, however, has been so widened and its format so altered as to afford almost a complete change from its two former issues. An attempt has been made to bring it in line with the Year Books of other countries. This publication, therefore, steps beyond the collection of a series of departmental Reports relating to the activities of these Departments during the preceding year. It is designed to provide a composite record of the general, social, economic and cultural development of the country by means of descriptive material, tabular data, diagrams and maps, and even including academic articles of continuing value.

Even the present edition, however, is not supposed to be a final product. It is still preliminary in character. It establishes a pattern and provides a preliminary frame-work to guide the future selection of material. It is hoped that gaps and weaknesses would thereby be disclosed and problems crystallized.

It is my intention to review the material systematically in the next few years. For this end, users of this volume are encouraged to send in any criticisms or suggestions which they believe will make possible an even more useful future edition.

Because of the multitude of sources and the varied nature of the subject matter covered, the compilers cannot accept all responsibility for the accuracy or limitations of data or for the views contained in the descriptive material included on those topics for which, obviously, no ' official ' sanctity could be provided. Nevertheless, every attempt has been made, in so far as time and personnel permitted, to verify the data and obtain authenticity for such material from persons regarded as eminent in these spheres. Final responsibility, however, for the selection of the material, for accurate transmittal and for proper presentation rests with the compilers even though carried out with the co-operation of outside individuals and agencies. Their assistance as well as the valuable contribution readily made by the heads of other Government Departments is gratefully acknowledged and appreciation is also expressed of the sustained effort of the staff engaged in the work.

K. WILLAIMS,
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P. O. Box 563,
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April, 20, 1951.

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INTRODUCTION

THIS Report is meant to deal primarily with the economic and social conditions obtaining in Ceylon during the year, 1949. This introduction therefore deals briefly with the more important economic and social events of the year.

The year 1949 was a fairly prosperous one for Ceylon. Under the existing economic structure her prosperity depends almost entirely on the price of exports. The export price index (1934–1938=100) was 324 in 1949 as against 305 the previous year, 300 in 1947 and 226 in 1946. The remarkable improvement in 1947 was principally due to the high export duty of Rs. 50 per candy on copra and corresponding increases on other coconut products imposed by the Ceylon Government in 1947, after the failure to negotiate a better price for the bulk purchase of coconut products by the British Government, and the freeing of the tea market which, up to 1946, supplied the entire produce to the U. K. Government on contract. Prices have since then steadily improved except for rubber which declined rapidly in 1949 but recovered after devaluation. The terms of trade were however still against Ceylon. The year ended with an over all adverse balance on current account of only Rs. 30 million. The continuing adverse balance during the first part of the year caused considerable anxiety to Government and it was decided to restrict imports further. Imports of many goods of an inessential nature were restricted and an over-all ceiling value was fixed for all goods. Imports from Dollar sources were restricted up to 75 per cent. of the value of imports in 1948 and imports from other hard currency areas were restricted to fixed ceiling values.

The first sterling balances agreement terminated at the end of 1948. An official team from the United Kingdom arrived in Ceylon in January, 1949, to conduct negotiations for a fresh agreement in respect of the year, 1949. An interim agreement was concluded for a period of six months only and it provided that, (1) the main provisions of the principal agreement of April 30, 1948, should continue in force until June 30, 1949, (2) that a further release of £1¾ million should be made from No. 2 account to No. 1 account, and (3) further talks would take place in London before June 30, 1949. The sterling balances agreement was renewed by another agreement signed in London on August 5, 1949, for a further period up to June 30, 1950. An additional release of £7 million from No. 2 account to No. 1 account and the right of the Ceylon Government to call for a further release of £1 million in the event a substantial unforeseen rise in the price of essential foodstuffs unbalanced by other sources of income, was agreed upon. It was also agreed that Ceylon should reserve the right to retain an independent reserve of gold or dollars out of her ' net surplus of dollars on current account ' to be held by the Central Bank of Ceylon when it was established. The Ceylon Government, however, gave an assurance that the amount so retained during the currency of the agreement would not exceed one million dollars. The principle of the right of Ceylon relating to the retention of gold or dollar reserve by Ceylon constituted an important departure from the pattern of agreements previously concluded.

Tea

The total acreage under tea at the end of the year was 555,576 acres as against 555,083 acres at the end of 1948. Restriction in respect of Tea New Planting ceased to be operative. The total quantity of tea exported was 297·6 million pounds which was about the same as for the previous year. The price however showed a marked improvement, partly owing to greater world demand

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and partly owing to interruption of supplies from Indonesia. The quantity and value of exports and the average market prices in the Colombo market were as follows :—

Year	Export		Average price per lb.		
	Quantity (Million lb.)	*Vaule (Million Rs.)*	*High* Rs. c.	*Medium* Rs. c.	*Low* Rs. c.
1948	296·0	590·3	1·74	1·51	1·50
1949	297·6	649·8	2·16	1·19	1·94

There was no change in the export duty.

Rubber

The total acreage under rubber in Ceylon as at December 31, 1949, was 655,111 acres as against 658,352 acres at the end of 1948. As a measure of relief to the industry the Government decided to advance Rs. 1,000,000 out of the Consolidated Fund to the Agricultural and Industrial Credit Corporation at $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. per annum so that the Corporation could grant loans at 2 per cent. per annum for the re-planting of existing rubber land with high yielding material or with other crops on the receommendation of the Director of Agriculture and the Rubber Controller.

The price of rubber was consistently low during the first part of the year and the price of R. S. S. No. 1 had dropped to 46 cents in June, lower than the 1939 average price. Many estates went out of production. with devaluation the price steadily increased and the year closed with the price of 72 cents. The rubber price was to display a spectacular increase in the next year. The quantity and value of exports and the market prices in 1948 and 1949 were as follows :—

	Export		Price
	Quantity (000 Tons)	*Value (Million Rs.)*	*Per lb. R. S. S. No. 1 (cts.)*
1948	92·0	141·6	63
1949	87·1	122·9	57

In order to give relief to the industry the Government suspended the order applying Part II of the Wages Boards Ordinance to the rubber growing and manufacturing trade, with effect from July 1, 1949. As from that date no minimum rates of wages were operative in the trade except in the case of Indian labourers to whom rates fixed under the Minimum Wages (Indian) Ordinance, became applicable. With the improvement in price the provisions were once more applied to the industry on October 22, 1949.

Coconut

The total acreage under coconut is over a million acres. As many of the coconut plantations consist of old palms it was decided to accelerate the work of re-planting and in 1949 a Planting and Advisory Division was attached to the Coconut Research Scheme. The Department of Agriculture provided the funds required for the establishment of nurseries to supply high grade seedlings to the general public and the Department of Co-operative Undertakings financed the establishment of co-operative nurseries by the Scheme for the supply of selected seedlings to co-operators. Thirteen nurseries have been established in various parts of the Island and work has commenced on two others. The Coconut Research Scheme has been responsible for the collection, production and distribution of half a million selected seed nuts and selected seedlings, roughly sufficient to plant or re-plant, 5,000 acres.

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Owing to the world shortage of fats and oils the coconut industry has been enjoying a moderate boom since 1946. According to the contract signed with the United Kingdom in 1948, Ceylon was permitted to sell a part of the output outside in the open market. When the contract was due for revision of price in December, 1949, no agreement could be reached. The contract was therefore terminated. The freeing of the market was accompanied by an immediate rise in price. The following table gives the quantities, values and the market prices of the principal coconut products exported in 1948 and 1949 :—

Copra

	Quantity (000 *cwt.*)	*Value* (*Rs.* 000)	*Market Price* *Rs. c.*
1948	1,089	42,191	134.90 (Estate No. 1 per candy)
1949	431	21,567	150.00 do.

Coconut Oil

	Quantity (000 *cwt.*)	*Value* (*Rs.* 000)	*Market Price* *Rs. c.*
1948	1,515	84,061	1,022.38 (White oil per ton f.o.b.)
1949	1,784	121,327	1,021.75 do.

Desiccated Coconut

	Quantity (000 *cwt.*)	*Value* (*Rs.* 000)	*Market Price* *Rs. c.*
1948	236	25,245	0.66 (per lb.)
1949	312	25,000	0.52 do.

Fresh Nuts

	Quantity (000 *cwt.*)	*Value* (*Rs.* 000)	*Market Price* *Rs. c.*
1948	9,387	1,948	135.42 (per 1,000 nuts)
1949	12,897	4,584	145.19 do.

With the freeing of the coconut market an important change was made in the rates of export duty applicable to coconut products. On December 20, 1949, the export duty on copra was fixed at Rs. 150 per ton. Prior to that the duty was Rs. 100 per ton plus 98 per cent. of the f.o.b. price in excess of Rs. 733.34 per ton. At the same time the duty on coconut oil was fixed at Rs. 243.75 per ton. The previous duty was Rs. 162.50 per ton plus 97½ per cent of the f.o.b. price in excess of Rs. 1,186.67 per ton.

Land Development

The development programme of the Government is centered mainly round the opening up of new land in the so-called dry areas of Ceylon. It is estimated that about three million acres can be so developed. Under the plan of development formulated by the Government, commonly known as the Six Year Plan, 1947–1953, it is proposed to open up 131,000 acres of new land. The rate of progress in 1949 was well ahead of schedule. The biggest project under this programme is the Gal oya Multipurpose Project, which comprises the damming of the Gal oya river in the Eastern Province of Ceylon to provide yearly about 700,000 acre feet of water for irrigation, with which it is hoped to irrigate 90,000 acres now under jungle, and to improve the irrigation of 30,000 acres already cultivated. This project began in March, 1949, and during the year progress was ahead of schedule. The dam is expected to be completed in 1951 and the entire scheme completed by 1962.

The colonisation of the dry zone was begun in earnest in 1930. The first colonisation schemes were established at Minneriya, Kagama and Tabbowa. The development during the first few years was slow on account of the high incidence of malaria, lack of communications and the

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general fear of the peasantry to migrate to the dry zone. With the practical eradication of malaria the attitude of the peasantry has now completely changed and men, who a few years ago refused to leave their villages, are now anxious to migrate to the dry zone.

The following extents of land have been developed during the past ten years :—

Acreage alienated

January 1, 1939 to November 31, 1947	21,252 acres
January 1, 1948 to December 31, 1948	4,089 ,,
1948 to 1949	3,006 ,,

In order to meet the demand of the increasing population of the thickly congested areas where Crown land is scarce, private lands both developed and undeveloped are acquired by the Crown for allocation to peasants resident in such areas. 3,103 acres were acquired by Government during the financial year October 1, 1948, to September 30, 1949, for this purpose. During the year an important new principle was adopted in the drive for food production. It may be more correct to say that this was an intensification of an already accepted principle. The principle was the formation of a large number of co-operative agricultural produce and sales societies through which the Government would channelise all its measures to increase food production. The supply of subsidised manure, advances for implements, seed paddy, &c., will all in future be supplied through the co-operative societies. The sale of the produce will also be undertaken by these societies. A spectacular increase in the number of such societies was recorded during the year. Before October 1, 1947, there were thirty such societies. Between October 1, 1947 and September 30, 1948, forty-four were registered. Between October 1, 1948, and September 30, 1949, 109 were registered. There were 276 societies in June, 1950.

The total loans granted to C. A. P. & S. Societies were as follows :—

	1947–1948	Rs. 4.4 million
	1948–1949	Rs. 5.6 million
amount sanctioned for	1949–1950	Rs. 11.6 million

Guranteed prices continued to be offered for the principal local produce such as rice, maize, chillies, &c.

Trade

During the year the value of both exports and imports topped the billion rupee level. The value of exports including re-exports was Rs. 1,063 million and the value of imports Rs. 1,029 million, leaving a trade balance of Rs. 34 million as compared to Rs. 17 million during the previous year. The balance of payments for the year resulted in a deficit of Rs. 30 million. Although the over all credit balance increased, net dollar earnings of the country from foreign trade fell. The value of exports to U. S. A. and Canada was Rs. 158.5 million and imports Rs. 83.5 million, leaving surplus of Rs. 75.0 million as against Rs. 121.6 million for 1948.

During the year, export prices improved while import prices declined, thus creating an improvment in the terms of trade. The export price index went up from 305 in 1948 to 324 in 1949, whereas the import price index declined from 443 in 1948 to 423 in 1949.

The volume of exports was practically the same as in the previous year, the index being 129 for 1948 and 128 for 1949. Imports increased in volume, the index going up from 110 in 1948 to 119 in 1949.

Prices

The average cost of living index (working class, Colombo town) for the year was 258 as against 260 the previous year. The index for December, 1949, was 264—the same as for December, 1948. The lowest point of 254 was reached in May. On the whole it would seem that prices were generally stable during the year. There was, however, a distinct tendency for prices to go up since devaluation.

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Banking and Currency

A significant change took place in the currency system with the severance of the currency link with India after devaluation. Prior to the severance the Board of Commissioners of Currency had automatic functions of issuing and withdrawing rupee notes and coins against the equal value of the Indian rupee. The extension of the Indian exchange control to cover Ceylon broke the relationship between the Ceylon rupee and the sterling by way of the Indian rupee. The devaluation prices merely hastened what would in any case have happened.

A matter of very great importance was the passing of the Monetary Act No. 58 of 1949 for the establishment of a Central Bank for Ceylon. The Act placed the responsibilities for Central Bank policy administration in a Monetary Board composed of three members. More details will be found in Chapter XVIII.

Ceylon as a member of the sterling area, devalued its rupee in September, 1949, keeping the par value of the rupee at 1*s.* 6*d.* sterling.

Public Finance

The total revenue of the Government in 1948-1949 was Rs. 576.1 million and the total expenditure on current account Rs. 547.9 million, leaving a small surplus. In addition, a sum of Rs. 122.5 million was spent on development works from loan funds. This was Rs. 52.2 million in excess of loan fund expenditure during the previous year, signifying the gathering momentum of the Six Year Plan. The pattern of Governmental expenditure showed very little change. 47.5 per cent. of the current expenditure was on social services and 66.9 per cent. of loan fund expenditure was on development of national wealth. There were no significant changes in the sources of revenue.

National Income

There was a marked improvement in the national income which was Rs. 2,967 million as against Rs. 2,762 million the previous year. This improvement was mainly due to the higher value of exports.

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THE CEYLON YEAR BOOK, 1950

CHAPTER I

AN OUTLINE OF HISTORY

THE Island marked on the map as Ceylon has, from remote antiquity, been known to the inhabitants of that fair isle by a fairer name—Lanka, ' The Resplendent '.

And not unworthily has she borne the proud epithet. ' Ceylon, from whatever direction it is approached, unfolds a scene of loveliness and grandeur unsurpassed, if it be rivalled, by any land in the universe. The traveller from Bengal, leaving behind the melancholy delta of the Ganges and the torrid coast of Coromandel ; or the adventurer from Europe, recently inured to the sands of Egypt and scorched by the headlands of Arabia, is alike entranced by the vision of beauty which expands before him as the Island rises from the sea, its lofty mountains covered with luxuriant forests, and its shores, till they meet the ripple of the waves, bright with the foliage of perpetual spring '.[1]

The charm and fertility of the Island has been a bane as well as a blessing. Separated from the continent of India by only a narrow strip of sea, and standing athwart the highway along which caravels of East and West quested for commerce or conquest, the Island has throughout the centuries attracted the stranger from across the seas.

Ancient and Mediæval Periods (Sixth Century B.C. to Fifteenth Century A.D.)

The earliest of these invaders was Vijaya, outlawed scion of the Lion (Sinha) line, the traditional founder of the Lion Race, the Sinhalese.

The ' Mahavansa ', the ' Great Chronicle ' of Ceylon's storied past, records with picturesque details the colonisation of the Island by Vijaya and his followers on the Vesak[2] full moon of a year in the sixth century B.C.[3], a date made all the more memorable by its synchronising with the day of the demise of the Buddha whose religion was to permeate so deeply the life and culture of the new nation.

It is easy to distil from the legend its historical essence—that there were several streams of immigration into the Island, and that by about the fifth century before Christ a race speaking an Aryan dialect made Ceylon their permanent home, building a civilisation and setting up a kingdom which, despite periodical vicissitudes, was to maintain an independent existence for over two milleniums.

Of the original inhabitants of Ceylon—the Yakkhas and the Nagas—whom the Aryans displaced, very little is known. Vijaya's espousal of the Yakkha princess Kuveni and her later banishment with her children after the Aryan rule was consolidated, may reasonably be rationalised to mean the extinction, or the expulsion into the highland jungles, of the primitive aborigines who succumbed at the impact of a virile and more advanced civilisation.

The Veddas, a primitive tribe, of whom a handful still survive in the Bintenne area, are commonly supposed to be descendants of the people from whom Vijaya wrested the overlordship of Ceylon. Of their antiquity, there is little doubt ; and racially, they are distinct from the later settlers. Near the caves where the Veddas were accustomed to haunt, weapons and implements have been found dating as far back as the paleolithic age. Isolated in their jungle fastnesses, they perhaps retained their primitive ways, changing but little right up to modern times. Others of their tribe were no doubt absorbed by the invaders ; for, though few traces of the older race remain, some of their beliefs and practices still persist, as in the wood-god cult of the Vanni[4]—' a cult which was old when the Aryan civilisation was new '.

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1 Emerson Tennent : Ceylon.
2 The Sinhalese name of a month (April-May). The name is now popularly used to denote the full-moon day of the month, which celebrates the birth, the enlightenment and the demise of the Buddha.
3 The exact year is disputed. According to the Sinhalese tradition it is 543 B.C.
4 A district covering portions of North-Central and North-Western Provinces.

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The cradle of the Sinhalese race was the present North-Central Province, where both climate and soil are admirably suited for the cultivation of rice, the staff of life of the primitive community. The chief problem was to ensure a perennial supply of water and to guard against the fickleness of the monsoonal rains. The challenge evoked a magnificent response in the shape of an elaborate irrigational system which is a marvel of achievement even to modern engineers. 'Hill streams were tapped and their water guided into giant storage tanks below, some of them thousands of acres in extent ; and from these, channels ran on to other large tanks farther from the hills ; and from these to others still more remote. And below each great tank and each channel were hundreds of little tanks, each the nucleus of a village ; all, in the long-run fed from the wet mountain zone.' [1]

Sinhalese civilisation had to await the coming of Buddhism for its full flowering. Indeed, the authentic history of Ceylon begins only with King Devananpiya-Tissa, 'Tiss, the Beloved to the Gods'. (3rd century B.C.) in whose reign the gospel of Buddhism was brought to Ceylon by Mahinda, son of the great Asoka Maurya, the Emperor of India.

The religion spread with extraordinary rapidity. The desire to establish a religious order for women led to the arrival of Sanghamitta, sister of Mahinda, who came bearing a sapling of the sacred Bo-tree (*ficus religiosa*) under which the Buddha attained enlightenment. This sapling, planted in the capital city of Anuradhapura, has grown in size and sanctity and it stands there to this day, the oldest historical tree in the world. In the village settlements that clustered round the innumerable tanks, arose temples and dagabas. The latter, gigantic domes of brick and mortar surmounted by tapering spires, became as characteristic a feature of the landscape as they were symbolic of the spiritual aspirations of the people.

Along with the gospel of the Buddha came the arts and crafts of the Mauryan Empire. Architecture, painting, sculpture, the art of writing, the study of Pali which has had a decisive influence on the formation of the Sinhalese language—all these were transplanted from India as a result of the quickened communications between the countries. This historical association of the culture of the Sinhalese with the adoption and spread of Buddhism may fitly be compared with the beginnings of European culture and the part played in its diffusion by the Christian Church.

Cultural contact with India outlasted Asoka's Empire. Though periodically interrupted by the rise and fall of dynasties in India, this contact was intensified during the Gupta period, after which the influence of North India was replaced by that of the Southern Indian Kingdoms which now gained in power and influence.

Not only culturally, but politically as well, South India began to dominate Ceylon. Even in the early period adventurers had successfully seized the Sinhalese throne and ruled the Island at varying intervals. The most famous of these was Elara the Tamil (145–101 B.C.) who was defeated by Dutugemunu, the favourite hero of Sinhalese history and legend. Dutugemunu, it was who erected the nine-storied Brazen Palace (Lovamahapaya), the preaching hall of the Mahavihara, the headquarters of the Buddhist faith. The *Mahavansa* describes the Palace as being 'adorned with a thousand jutting window-chambers, nine-storied and provided with a thousand shell-garlands and with windows as eyes and provided with a vedika (adorned) with a network of little bells'.[2] The construction of a building of such proportions gives some idea of the state of civilisation at the time. All that is left of the Brazen Palace is a group of monoliths. But other stupendous monuments of the period—the Mirisaveti and the Ruvanveli Dagabas—survive to corroborate the historian's record of bygone splendour and greatness.

Under the constant pressure of Tamil invasions, the capital of the Sinhalese kingdom was moved to Polonnaruwa, towards the east of Anuradhapura. But even here they were not safe and in 1017 A.D. the Cholas of South India conquered Ceylon and held it till 1070 A.D. The earlier Tamil conquests were undertaken by adventurers who were content with seizing the throne and ruling the country as constitutional monarchs. But the Chola conquest of the eleventh century made Ceylon, for the first time since the Aryan conquest, a dependent kingdom tributary to the Chola Empire.

1 John Still: 'Jungle Tide'.
2 Mahavansa Chapter XXVII trans ated by W. Geiger.

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The country, now under the iron heel of the conquerer, made several attempts to regain its freedom, until at last King Vijaya Bahu I (1059–1114 A.D.) restored the Sinhalese rule. But it was not till the accession of Parakrama Bahu I (1153–1186 A.D.) that the glories of the ancient kingdom were actually revived.

" This great man was at one a warrior and statesman ; he succeeded in bringing the whole country beneath his sway and in driving away the Tamils ; after which he ruled so firmly and so justly that, as the Dambulla inscription informs us, ' even a woman might traverse the land with a precious jewel and not be asked what it was '. After peace was thus established Parakrama rebuilt and restored the harassed city of Polonnaruwa, and also the buildings of Anuradhapura ' which had been wholly destroyed by the hosts of the Cholians '. Thereafter, ' Parakrama Bahu, the conquerer of Kings, dwelt in the beautiful city of Pulatthi (Polonnaruwa), far from the strife of foes. A faithful and a wise man, blessed with the dawn of fortune, and a leader of those that love music and poetry, he passed his time in the enjoyment of quiet pleasures and enjoyments. He purged and purified the Buddhist Church and erected noble buildings for church and priesthood . . . . ' Like so many other kings before and after him, ' this most excellent man caused many tanks and channels to be built in diverse places, so that he might put an end to the calamity of famine among men.' Such was Parakrama Bahu the Great ; among English kings there is surely none but Alfred the Great with whom he may justly be compared."[1]

Parakrama Bahu's glorious reign proved to be but the last flicker of the dying candle. Almost with his death the empire disintergrated, becoming the prey, once again, of internal disorder and foreign invasion. The hordes of Pandya and Vijayanagara[2] overran the Island, and the capital of the kingdom was transferred further and further south—to Yapahuwa, Kurunegala, Dambadeniya, Gampola and Kotte—until at last it took refuge in the mountain fastenesses of the central region. This was the beginning of the Kingdom of Kandy, which in later times was to become, in name though not in fact, the suzerain of Ceylon.

The effect on the country of many centuries of association and conflict with the peoples of South India may be conveniently noticed here " The most apparent result is, indeed, the introduction of a new element into the population of the Island. Up in the extreme north, and away in the east, remote from the turmoil and strife of the heart of the Sinhalese Kingdom, a new physical type, dark-skinned, thick-lipped, brachycephalic, combining what ethnologists would call the Mediterranean and the Armenoid types, settled down and developed a separate race-consciousness, which has given us today a discriminated race-group which we call ' Ceylon Tamils '. Heirs to a civilization which claims an antiquity beyond the Aryan, they speak a language which is recognized as the oldest, richest, and most highly organized of the Dravidian group. In their original home in Southern India, they doubtless worshipped local deities in a pre-Vedic form of Hinduism, until the sweeping surge of Brahmanism caught them up, admitted these local gods into the Vedic-pantheon, and established a catholic creed which, subjected though it was to Brahmanical law, we now accept as modern Hinduism. Within the territory which fell more directly under the governance of the Sinhalese Kings, and more especially in the provinces that have lately begun to be called ' the Kandyan provinces ', there was indubitably much fusion of blood and language, and much intermingling of religious beliefs and social customs. It could not indeed have been otherwise. Sinhalese princes of the royal blood took unto themselves Tamil consorts, and nobles and common-folk doubtless did likewise. The Sinhalese court had numerous Tamils in positions of trust and responsibility. The army had a large body of Tamil soldiers and was officered by many Tamil captains. Tamil prisoners taken in war were distributed throughout the country. Tamil words found their way in large numbers into the vocabulary of the Sinhalese. Hindu gods and goddesses became objects of Sinhalese worship and almost every Buddhist vihare had a Hindu devale in close proximity to it. The observance of caste which, in the Sinhalese community, had never been too rigid under the influence of the teachings of the Buddha, became stricter in accordance with Brahmanical precepts. Nor was this all. The influence of the North Indian Renaissance under the Gupta dynasty, which had been extended to the Dravidian Kingdoms of the South by the conquest

1 Dr. Ananda Coomaraswamy : Mediaeval Sinhalese Art.
2 Tamil kingdom in South India.

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of Samudragupta in the fourth century of the Christian era, was carried to Ceylon by the peoples of these Kingdoms in a hybridized form of art, architecture, sculpture, and letters. Nevertheless, it was not altogether an alien influence, for the Tamils themselves derived the best part of their culture from the same source whence the Sinhalese had obtained theirs, and the Sinhalese were Hindus before they became Buddhists."[1]

The Portuguese Occupation (1505–1658)

At the beginning of the sixteenth century the capital of the Sinhalese kingdom was Kotte, about six miles from the port of Colombo. Population and wealth had retreated in the wake of the Tamil invasions and had entrenched themselves in the south-west portion of the Island. The kings found their ancient sources of revenue irreparably destroyed, and were now dependent on the income by the sale of cinnamon and other articles of export. It was the desire to control this trade that induced the kings to establish their capital near the port of Colombo.

To this port on November 15, 1505, vagaries of wind and stress of weather brought a flotilla under the command of Don Lourenze de Almeida, son of the Portuguese Viceroy of India, where the foundation of their empire in the East had just been laid. Twelve years later they were to come again, lured by the quest of cinnamon which played a large part in the domestic economy of Europe in the latter part of the Middle Ages. Their original aim was merely to establish a trading post under the protection of the Sinhalese king ; but internal dissensions within the Sinhalese kingdom induced them to undertake the conquest of the Island. Buvaneka Bahu VII who had succeeded to the throne of Kotte was being harassed by his younger brother, Mayadunne, the Prince of Sitavaka. The Portuguese, therefore, received a warmer welcome than they expected ; they were induced to set up a garrison in Ceylon to protect the king and to facilitate the collection of cinnamon.

The danger of foreign domination might have ended with the death of Bhuvaneka Bahu, had he not been anxious to dispossess his brother and hand over the kingdom at his death to his grandson, Dharmapala. Enlisting the support of the Portuguese he sent a golden effigy of the infant prince to Lisbon, where it was crowned with all pomp and ceremony by Philip of Spain. When Bhuvaneka Bahu died the Portuguese upheld the claims of Dharmapala, a puppet-king who was soon to become a virtual prisoner in their hands. Owing to the renewed hostility of Mayadunne, Dharmapala was persuaded to abandon Kotte and live in Colombo under the ' protection ' of the Portuguese. He became a Christian, taking the name of Don Juan Dharmapala ; and as he had no children himself he was induced to sign a document declaring the king of Spain his lawful heir. It was thus that at Dharmapala's death the whole of Ceylon, with the exception of the Central kingdom of Kandy, came under the rule of the Portuguese.

But they did not have an easy time in consolidating their conquest. For a brief space Mayadunne's son, Rajasingha I of Sitavaka, revived the patriotism and the martial spirit of the Sinhalese. Matched with the flower of European chivalry, they more than held their own on the bloody field of battle ; and in time the Portuguese veterans, hardened though they were by arduous campaigns, learned to dread the very name of Rajasingha. At times victory was almost within his grasp ; but he was baulked of his life-long ambition of driving away the foreign intruder only because he had no command of the sea. The Portuguese, pent up within the walls of Colombo and in imminent danger of being starved out by famine, their walls battered by the swarming Sinhalese soldiery, were saved at the eleventh hour by provisions and reinforcements sent by sea from Goa, the headquarters of their imperial Government. With the death of Rajasingha died also the last independent state in the Low-Country.

In the highlands of Kandy alone a Sinhalese king still held sway. But it was usurper Vimala Dharma Suriya I, that sat on the throne. The lawful heir, fleeing his country, had sought sanctuary with the Portuguese, embraced Christianity and died, leaving behind a daughter also brought up in the Christian faith, Dona Catharina.

1 A. G. Ranasinha : Census of Ceylon 1946 (General Report).

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The circumstances gave the Portuguese an idea and a dream that failed to materialise—the conquest of the whole Island. A Portuguese army, escorting the young princess, wound its way to the city of Kandy which they found deserted. But the victory, even as they sought to grasp it, crumbled like Dead Sea fruit. The Sinhalese soldiers in the invading army, the lascorins as they were called, deserted. The Portuguese found themselves surrounded by guerilla fighters whom they were powerless to repel ; and in the disastrous retreat that followed Dona Catharina was captured by Vimala Dharma Suriya, who promptly married her, strengthening thereby his claim to the throne. The Portuguese, like every other invader, had bitter experience of attempts to capture the Kingdom of Kandy.

Portuguese rule in Ceylon lasted nearly 150 years. Their most enduring memorial was the establishment of the Roman Catholic religion. The methods of conversion they adopted have often been criticised. It is only too true that many Sinhalese embraced Christianity merely because of the material benefits it brought—position of prestige and wealth under the Portuguese government. But at least a considerable number of the converts never wavered in their faith when these advantages ceased to be, when in fact it was a disadvantage to remain a Roman Catholic. They withstood the persecutions of the Protestant Dutch, and the adherents of the Roman Catholic faith in the Island to-day form the largest of the Christian denominations.

Other effects of the Portuguese occupation were mostly on the materialistic plane. The Portuguese were the first Europeans to come to Ceylon and their manners and customs left a deep mark on the life of the people with whom they came into contact, particularly since they were not conscious of any colour-bar such as might have prevented them from mixing freely with the people they conquered and marrying among them.

Portuguese words which have entered into the Sinhalese vocabulary show the extent to which their modes of living were adopted by the Sinhalese. Articles of dress and toilet, like shoe (*sapattu*), stockings (*mes*), trousers (*kalisama*), buttons (*bottam*), handkerchief (*lensuva*), skirt (*saya*) ; furniture and implements, such as table (*mesa*), pen (*pena*), ink (*tinta*), paper (*kadadasi*), cupboards (*almariya*), clock (*oralosuva*), thimble (*didale*), bottle (*botale*), glass (*vidiru*) ; articles of food, such as bread (*pan*), biscuit (*viscotu*), sweetmeats (*dosi*), cheese (*keju*), cart (*karatta*) ; architectural features such as window (*janala*), room (*camera*)—all these and many more were borrowed by the Sinhalese.

So much for the credit side. On the debit side the Portuguese had much to answer for. ' Their constant wars left a depopulated country, a failing agriculture and a miserable and ill-conditioned people. Inconsiderate missionery zeal alienated, and an unwise and open contempt of Buddhism outraged the religious susceptibilities of their subjects. They had indeed preserved native institutions ; but these had been systematically manipulated to serve their own ends. The indigenous administrative system was converted into an engine of oppression and misgovernment for commercial profit and private gain. The memory of Portuguese persecution, maladministration, corruption and greed lingers in Ceylon to the present day '.[1]

An indirect effect of Portuguese rule was the division of what had been one people into ' Kandyan ' and ' Low-country ' Sinhalese. ' Sinhalese in the immediate vicinity of Colombo and along the coast were driven to make peace, and even allied themselves with the Portuguese, often turning nominal Christians and adopting Portuguese names to curry favour or under compulsion. The same process was continued in the time of the Dutch successors of the Portuguese. But the greater part of the Sinhalese people, the hardy mountaineers of the interior, preserved their independence, keeping the foreigners at bay more than 200 years after the first landing of the Portuguese. They have had their reward ; for in spite of the progress of denationalisation even amongst these, there are still preserved amongst them sufficient traces of the old national life, sufficient remains of the skilled craftsman's handwork, to enable us to form an estimate of the Sinhalese as a live and individual people, with a national character and rational art ; an individuality and art which is more difficult and often impossible to trace in the lowland districts long subjected to western influence.'[2]

1 Dr. Colvin R. de Silva : Ceylon under the British Occupation.
2 Dr. Ananda Coomaraswamy : Mediaeval Sinhalese Art.

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Dutch Conquest and Rule (1658–1796)

The last twenty years of Portuguese rule in Ceylon was a period of decay and decline. In Europe the Hollanders had thrown off the yoke of the Spaniards and were soon to wrest from them the Eastern trade as well. Portugal itself was a shadow of its former greatness, its patriotism diminished by the union with Spain and its resources of man-power sadly depleted by constant wars in the East. On the invitation of Rajasinha II, who was now on the throne of Kandy, the Dutch invaded the Island and conquered it.

With the capitulation of Colombo in 1656 and the fall of Jaffna two years later, the Dutch East India Company entered into the heritage of the Portuguese. The newcomers had gained a comparatively easy victory because of the support of Rajasinha. But when it came to sharing the spoils the Sinhalese king was tricked by the wily merchants. Their attitude was to conciliate him with servile protestations and at the same time to find excuses for withholding the treaty promises they had made. The one party tried to bring pressure on the other not by open hostility but by weapons of trade. The Dutch shut the ports to the king's trade, while the latter retaliated by closing his frontiers, so that the Company's supply of cinnamon was threatened. The unstable relationship did no good to either government. The king's subjects became progressively impoverished as they had no outlet for trading. The cutting off of the salt supply, which was in the Dutch hands, caused hardship to all classes of people, whose welfare Rajasingha in his chagrin at being outwitted by the Dutch neglected with a degree of perverseness that gave rise to discontent and revolt. The vacillation of the Dutch, on the other hand, made them lose caste with their subjects in the Maritime Provinces, and much of the Hollanders' energies were wasted in suppressing rebellions which were often fomented and assisted by the king of Kandy.

The Dutch were, therefore, considerably relieved when the intransigent Rajasingha died and was succeeded by Vimala Dharma Suriya II. During the latter's reign and in that of his son, Narendra Sinha, the country enjoyed a period of peace. Narendra Sinha was the last Sinhalese king of Ceylon, and he was succeeded by his brother-in-law, Sri Vijaya Rajasinha, of the Nayakkar (Tamil) dynasty of Madura. The Nayakkars were by no means inclined to be as complacent as their predecessors had been, and with their accession the aggressiveness of Kandy increased to such an extent that the Dutch led an army of conquest into Kandy, and occupied it. It was, however, a Pyrrhic victory, as all invasions of Kandy were bound to be. But the King, Kirti Sri Rajasingha, failed to press his advantage home because of the rumblings of civil dissension within his own domain. He sued for peace, and by the terms of the document which he signed in 1766, the Kandyans were completely cut off from the outer world. Their trade, their foreign relations and their supply of salt were now under the control of the Dutch.

But the Dutch power was already on the wane. The greed, corruption and inefficiency of the Company's officials were inexorably spelling their own doom. It only needed the revolutionary armies of France to invade the Netherlands and set up the Batavian Republic for the British to step in and seize the Island, the strategic importance of which they had already realised.

Armed with a letter of authority from the Stadthholder, the hereditary ruler of Holland whom the revolution had forced to flee to England, British troops landed at Trincomalee, in August 1795, primarily to prevent the Island from falling into the hands of the French. At first the Dutch governor and his Council acquiesced in the arrangement, but later they changed their mind when they learned that the Batavian Republic had behind it the backing of the Dutch people. This change of attitude converted the British garrison of protection into an invading army, which the Dutch in Ceylon, stinted of money and troops, were unable to resist.

On February 16, 1796, they surrendered to the British, favourable terms being granted them.

Dutch rule was on the whole more beneficial to the people whom they governed than was the case under the Portuguese. They were mainly preoccupied with their trade and were anxious to conciliate the king and so ensured peace which was essential for the smooth flow of trade. They constructed a number of canals to facilitate transport and encouraged the cultivation of paddy, coconut and cinnamon. The forts which they built for their protection are still to be seen in Galle,

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Matara and Jaffna, picturesque memorials of their precarious tenure of the Island. Their chief legacies were the Roman-Dutch Law, which has remained the common law of Ceylon, and a number of settlers, the Burghers, who exercised the option to remain behind under British rule. The Burghers, who soon adopted English as their mother tongue, rendered valuable assistance to the Government as subordinate officers of the administrative services in the early years of British rule. Despite frequent intermarriages with the Sinhalese and Tamils, they constitute a separate racial unit among the peoples who have made Ceylon their home.

The British Period and After

The English administration at the beginning was a make-shift one, for there was every reason to expect that as soon as peace had been restored in Europe Ceylon would be handed over to the Dutch. Accordingly, Colonel James Stewart (1795–1796), the Officer Commanding the British Forces in Ceylon, was made the chief civil authority. He, however, took orders from the Madras government, which also set about collecting revenues according to the system prevailing in Madras at the time. This system led to grave abuses resulting in much discontent among the people of Ceylon. But while investigations were going on to provide a better form of administration the Hon. Fredrick North, afterwards Earl of Guildford, arrived in Ceylon in 1798 as the King's Governor of the Maritime Provinces. North was to be the King's representative but was to act under the direction of the East India Company specially in matters of trade and commerce. In 1801 the British Government finally decided to separate the Maritime Provinces of Ceylon from the Madras government so as to make Ceylon an independent Crown Colony as from January 1, 1802.

The Kingdom of Kandy still remained independent and impervious to British attempts to secure a treaty ; and Governor North was persuaded by the traitorous First Adigar[1], Pilima Talauva, to adopt a discreditable policy towards the new Nayakkar King, Sri Vickrema Rajasinha. Pilima Taluva represented to North that Sri Vickrema was unpopular with his subjects who were ready to dethrone him and place the Adigar on the throne if only the British were prepared to endorse the act, after which satisfactory diplomatic arrangements between the two kingdoms could be effected. On a flimsy pretext an expedition was sent to Kandy, which not only failed to accomplish its object but brought disaster to British arms and led to an invasion of the Maritime Provinces and a threat to Colombo itself. The position was retrieved by the end of the year and hostilities ceased by 1805. Preoccupation with his own domestic troubles prevented the king of Kandy from continuing the quarrel, while North's policy of aggression was condemned by Parliament which advised an attitude of non-interference in the affairs of Kandy.

But before ten years had elapsed a British army of occupation was in Kandy, the king had been captured and sent into exile and the chieftains voluntarily handed over the kingdom to the British.

The explanation for this turn of affairs lies chiefly in the dissensions that prevailed in the Kandyan kingdom. The scheming Pilima Talauva had been succeeded as First Adigar by Ehelepola who sought to play the same game but with less acumen and circumspection. A premature discovery of his plans led him to open revolt. It failed, and he sought refuge in British territory. The infuriated monarch took terrible revenge on Ehelepola's family. The demon of ferocity and suspicion took possession of him and clouded his reason, and before long he had alienated the sympathy of the chiefs and of the people.

The moment was opportune for a successful British bid for conquest, and the king himself provided the excuse. Ten British subjects trading in Kandyan territory, who were suspected as spies, were grossly mutilated and sent back to British territory, though only three of them survived to tell the tale. The incident provided Governor Brownrigg with a sufficiently strong *casus belli*, and Kandy was once again invaded by British troops. This time there was little opposition to their progress. They entered Kandy as an army of liberation and not of conquest. The king, who was already in flight, was captured and exiled to South India, while the Sinhalese chiefs, at the Kandyan Convention, signed on March 2, 1815, an Act of Settlement by which they surrendered the government to the British, but with the full reservation of their rights and liberation.

1 A chieftain holding a position similar to that of Prime Minister.

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The terms of the Act were as follows :—(*a*) the deposition of Sri Vickrema Rajasinha and the exclusion of his dynasty from the throne ; (*b*) the vesting of the dominion of Kandy in the sovereign of the British Empire, to be exercised by the Governors for the time being and their accredited agents 'saving to the Adigars, Dissavas, Mohottalas, Coraals, Vidanes, and all other chief and subordinate native headmen, lawfully appointed by authority of the British Government, the rights, privileges and powers of their respective officers, and to all classes of people the safety of their persons and property, with their civil rights and immunities, according to the laws, institutions and customs established and in force amongst them ;' (*c*) the declaration of the inviolability of the Buddhist religion and the maintenance and protection of its rites, ministers and places of worship ; (*d*) the abolition of all tortures and mutilation, the Governor alone having the right to sentence a person to death, all capital trials to take place in the presence of accredited Agents of the Government ; (*e*) all civil and criminal justice over Kandyans to be administered according to the established forms and through the ordinary authorities, the Government reserving the inherent right to interpose when necessary ; (*f*) over non-Kandyans, justice to be administered according to British laws ; (*g*) the collection of revenue and dues to be carried out on behalf of the British Government, for the support of the establishment ; (*h*) trade facilities to be given by the Governor.

The chiefs soon repented of their act of submission. They did not appreciate the passing of the feudal system of Government to which they had been so long accustomed ; and they received with ill grace the substitution of a modern bureaucratic state under which they lost much of their former prestige. In 1817 a rebellion broke out in Uva, which developed into a war of independence with some chance of success. It was repressed with great severity, after which the Kandyan provinces were joined to the low-country in one unified administration.

The subsequent history of the British occupation is intimately bound up with administrative and political developments, which are outlined in Chapter IV.

It is sufficient to note here that the Crown Colony form of Legislative Council, with periodic modifications extending the democratic element, prevailed until 1931 when the Donoughmore Constitution came into being, conferring on the people of the country adult franchise and giving an opportunity to its statesmen to govern themselves, albeit that freedom was restricted in several ways. The Donoughmore Constitution was replaced in 1946 by the Soulbury Constitution which granted a Parliamentary form of government modelled on Westminster but not conferring Dominion Status. This constitution was, however, short-lived, for by the Cdylon Independence Act of 1947 full dominion status was conferred, making Ceylon an independent nation within the British Commonwealth.

In retrospect it is seen that the State Council period (1931–1946) was the seed-time of the new nation. It was during this time that many of the nation-building activities that contribute to the well-being of Ceylon were initiated—the enlargening of the health and medical services, the provision of ample educational facilities, the programme of rural uplift and above all the colonisation of the dry zone by the restoration of the ancient irrigational works which once gave life and sustenance to a thriving people.

Today the people of the new Lanka, united under a national government and taking just pride in their new-won freedom, are looking forward to a bright new future which may emulate, if not rival, her ancient splendour and prosperity.

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CHAPTER II

GEOGRAPHY

I. General

CEYLON is a pear shaped Island lying in the Indian Ocean, north of the equator, between 5° 55′ and 9° 50′ N. latitude, and forms an appendage of the Indian sub-continent to its south-east. It is separated from India by a narrow strip of shallow water, the Palk Strait. The most convenient means of communication between the two countries is by passenger boat that plies between Dhanuskodi (situated on an Island-bar connected to the Indian sub-continent on its south-east) and Talaimannar (situated on the western extremity of the Island of Mannar, lying off the west-north-west coast of Ceylon). Both are railway termini for the Indo-Ceylon Railway and are connected to the respective mainlands. 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 of Delft, Kayts, &c. Its nearest neighbours besides the Indian sub-continent are the Maldive Islands to its west, the Nicobar and Andaman Islands to its east and north-east respectively.

Its geographical location in the Indian Ocean has proved favourable and to-day Colombo forms an important port of call (passenger, bunkering, repair, &c.) for all steamships that cross the Indian Ocean from the Orient to the Occident and vice-versa *via* the Suez Canal. The following table showing distances from the respective ports reveal its favoured location.

TABLE 2.1. DISTANCES FROM COLOMBO TO VARIOUS PORTS OF THE WORLD

	Nautical Miles	*Approximate Journey (Days)*
Colombo to London :		
Aden	2,100	5
Suez	3,407	10
Port Said	3,494	11
Gibraltar (*via* Marseilles)	5,690	20
London (by sea *via* Marseilles)	7,005	20
London (by sea direct)	6,725	18
London (overland)	5,868	16
Colombo to India, &c. :		
Calcutta (touching at Madras)	1,260	7
Bombay	875	2½
Rangoon	1,249	4½
Singapore	1,567	5
Hong Kong (touching at Singapore)	3,113	12
Colombo to Australia :		
Freemantle	3,121	8
Adelaide (touching at Freemantle)	4,479	11
Sydney (touching at Freemantle, Adelaide and Melbourne)	5,556	17
Colombo to South Africa :		
Durban (touching at African ports)	3,680	20
Cape Town (touching at South African Ports)	4,362	21–30

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The Island extends through its greatest length 270 miles, from Point Palmyra in the North to Dondra Head in the South. Its greatest width amounts to about 140 miles from Colombo in the West to Sagamankande in the East, between 79° 42′ and 81° 52′ E. longitude. It is thus 5 hours and 20 minutes ahead of Greenwich Observatory (London) in point of time. A few other comparisons may be made :—

Colombo—12 noon :

London	6.40 A.M.
New York	1.14 A.M.
Alexandria (N Africa)	8.40 A.M.
Bombay	11.32 A.M.
Madras	12.08 P.M.
Rangoon	1.08 P.M.
Singapore	1.40 P.M.
Tokyo	4.00 P.M.
Sydney	4.44 P.M.

The Island covers an area of 25,332 square miles, constituted as follows :—

	Square miles	*Acres*
Land	25,036	16,023,040
Inland Water	296	189,440
Total	25,332	16,212,480

The following table compares the area of Ceylon with the area of some selected Asian countries and islands :—

TABLE 2.2. AREA OF CEYLON COMPARED WITH AREAS OF SELECTED COUNTRIES

Country	*Square miles*	*Country*	*Square miles*
Ceylon	25,332 (65,630 sq. kilometres)	Celebes	72,000
		Japan (proper)	147,201
		Sumatra	163,000
Formosa	13,840	Siam	200,000
Hokkaido (Japan)	30,115	Burma	262,732
Phillipine Islands	36,906	China (proper)	1,532,800
Java	50,000	India and Pakistan	1,800,000

RELIEF OF THE LAND

Generally speaking, the relief of the Island may be said to constitute a mountainous area, about the central part, or more correctly the south-central part, averaging from about 3,000 to 7,000 feet which is again surrounded by a up-land belt of about 1,000 to 3,000 feet, while the coastal plain occupies the rest of the Island and is narrower on the west, east and south but broadens out to a vast tract in the north.

The Coastal Plain does not drop abruptly, but continues for a long distance out to sea (20 to 60 miles) as the Continent Shelf. The 100–fathoms–line is close to the coast, except about the north-west where it opens out to include a large area continuous with the Indian Continental Shelf. A coral reef lies close to the coast, which though for the most part submerged can be discerned by the breaking of the waves at a short distance from the coast line. On the north coast the reef appears above sea-level during the afternoon.

An east-west cross section reveals the relief of the Island to consist of three tiers or steps, one stacked on the other. While the central hilly area forms the highest step, on its either side occur

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two steps corresponding to the uplands and the coastal plain. To this feature Adams[1] gave the term ' peneplane ' and thus recognised three such peneplanes of the Darwisian concept at the following levels[2] :—

(1) Peneplane	6,000 ft.
(2) Peneplane	1,600 ft.
(3) Peneplane	100 ft.

The following table shows the relative heights of various peaks :—

TABLE 2.3. CHIEF MOUNTAIN PEAKS OF CEYLON

Pidurutalagala	8,291 feet
Kirigalpotta	7,856 feet
Totapola	7,741 feet
Adams' Peak	7,360 feet
Namunukula	6,679 feet
Knuckles	6,112 feet
Haycock	2,167 feet

Considering first the Hill Country, the main skeleton base over 5,000 feet appears in the form of an inverted ' T ' or an anchor, with the Central Ridge forming the shank on which are some of the highest peaks in Ceylon—Pidurutalagala (8,291 feet), Totapola (7,741 feet), Kirigalpotta (7,856 feet) and also the high plains, Nuwara Eliya (over 6,000 feet), Elk Plains (7,000 feet), and Horton Plains (over 7,000 feet). At the base of the shank is Kirigalpotta from where the two arms of the anchor extend westwards to terminate at Adams' Peak (7,360 feet) while the eastern arm extends through Haputale, (where a pass forms a break in the continuity of this arm) and which continues north-east to form the Namunukula which is part of the north-south aligned Lunugala ridge. To the north-east of the shank are the Matale Hills, with Knuckles (6,112 feet) forming the highest point. On either side of this central mountainous anchor-shank are two plateaus—the Hatton Plateau to the west and the Uva Basin (or the Welimada Plateau) to the east—each averaging 4,000 feet and forming the upper drainage basins of the streams rising from the central ' anchor '. To the east-west arm of the ' anchor ' is given the term the Southern Mountain Wall, because here it presents a sheer drop of over 4,000 feet to the southern platform lying at the foot. From here the southern coastal plain stretches for over 50 miles. Forming a detached portion from the massif to its south-west lies the Rakwana Hill Country and the Bulutota massif averaging 3,000 feet ; the intervening tract being occupied by the upper tributaries of the Kalu and Walawe rivers. To the west and east the Highland gradually gives way to the western and eastern Coastal Plains. In the west, the relief assumes a series of northwest-southeast aligned ridges running parallel to the west coast. To the east, the relief, forms detached hills of about 500 feet. To the north, the highland tract extends from the hill country for about 80 miles and far north even beyond Dambulla, and then peters out into a series of north-south aligned ranges conforming to the strike-lines. The 100 foot contour occupies a great part of the Island except the narrow coastal belt all round the Island and is broader in the north than in the west, east or south. Monodnocks or ' relief mountains ' composed of resistant strata like granite, gneisses, &c., stand out to break the monotony of the level stretches. Some very good examples are Kataragama Peak and Westminister Abbey to the south-east, and the famous ' Animal Rocks ' of Kurunegala. The Jaffna Peninsula and the Island of Mannar are entirely featureless level stretches.

RIVERS AND WATERWAYS

The hydrographic pattern is a function essentially of relief and structure and in Ceylon with its central hilly mass the radial pattern is clearly revealed—the rivers flowing to the west, east and south being shorter than those flowing to the north, north-west and north-east. The most important

1 Geology of Ceylon by D. Adams. Canadian Journal of Science.
2 " The three superimposed peneplanes of Ceylon " by D. N. Wadia. Professional Papers I (Government Mineralogy Report).

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and largest river is the Mahaveli-ganga, which rises on the western side of the 'shank' of the anchor of the central hilly ridge. Instead of emptying into the nearby western coast, it runs north, makes a sudden loop about Kandy and then assumes a west-east flow along the Dumbara Valley to turn north about Aluthnuwara and eventually flows north-east following the grain of the strike ridges before emptying into the Koddiyar Bay on the east coast. All other rivers like the Kelani-ganga, Kalu-ganga, Maha-oya, Deduru-oya and Kala-oya flow into the nearby west coast. The northern rivers are shorter, while to the east and south the Gal-oya, Kumbukkan-aru, Menik-ganga, Kirindi-oya, Walawe-ganga and Nilwala-ganga all follow the shortest course to the respective east and south coasts.

In the south-west the hydrographic pattern has adjusted itself to structure and hence results the trellis drainage pattern, the plateaus occupying the northwest-southeast aligned longitudinal valleys though eventually utilising transverse valleys.

TABLE 2.4. LENGTHS OF PRINCIPAL RIVERS

River	*Length in miles*	*River*	*Length in miles*
Mahaveli-ganga	206	Menik-ganga	81
Aruvi-aru	104	Maha-oya	78
Kala-oya	97	Kirindi-oya	73
Yan-oya	94	Kalu-ganga	70
Kelani-ganga	90	Gin-ganga	70
Deduru-oya	87	Kumbukkan-aru	70
Maduru-oya	86	Mi-oya	67
Walawe-ganga	83	Gal-oya	62

Waterfalls girdle the central mountainous massif and offer some of the best scenic effects in Ceylon, *e.g.*, Dunhinda (Badulla), Diyaluma (Koslanda), Elgin (Hatton Plateau) and Perawela. They are found to occur especially to the west, south and east, where the third and second peneplanes are in contact and are perennial owing to the heavy rainfall on the central mountain mass, though the fluctuations in their volume occur as a result of changes in the seasonal rainfall.

NATURAL VEGETATION

The following account relates only to natural vegetation, other vegetation types such as those which have been the result of human impact, for instance, tea and rubber being dealt with in the chapter on Agriculture.

Vegetation is a result of soil, geology, rainfall and temperature. In Ceylon the determinant factor is rainfall and as such the natural vegetation in Ceylon could be understood clearly in terms of the rainfall of Ceylon.

'Though about four-fifths of the Island is at present uncultivated very little of Ceylon has its original vegetation'.[1] Forests, jungle and scrub occupy the greater part of the Island, and are found often to be intermixed. The forests[2] occupy the greater part of the Wet Zone and are a direct function of rainfall. They occur a few miles from the coast right into the Hill Country, the species undergoing modification in direct relation to altitude and climate. In the Dry Zone the forests are termed 'Jungle' as they are less dense. 'Scrub' refers to a vegetation of thorny bushes (adapted to the dry climate) with widely interspersed trees and occurs in the Dry Zone frequently intermixed with jungle.

'Patanas', or 'talawas' or 'grasslands'[3] occur in areas of over 2,000 feet above mean sea-level and are concentrated in certain localities around the hilly country, especially in the undulating

1 E. K. Cook—Geography of Ceylon, Chapter 10, page 152.
2 A more detailed consideration of forests appears in Chapter XIII which deals with Forests, Fisheries, Minerals.
3 'The Montane Grasslands (Patanas of Ceylon)', Parts I, II, III of Tropical Agriculturist, Volume C. I. (1945).
'Notes on the Patanas of Ceylon', R. A. de Rosayro in Ceylon Geographical Society Bulletin No. 2, Volume II (1947).
'The Patanas'—A geographical puzzle, P. K. Daniel.

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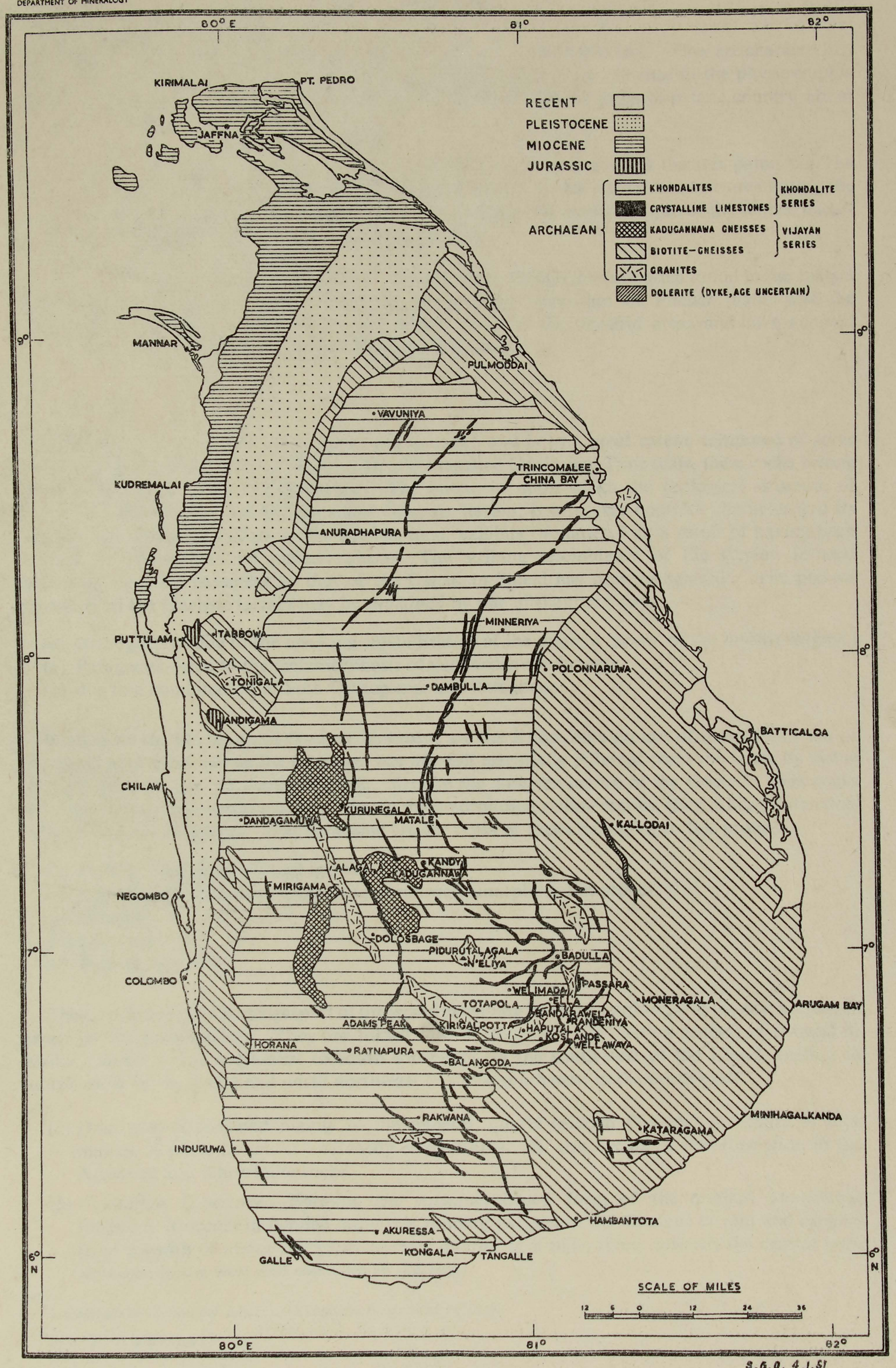
PROVISIONAL GEOLOGICAL MAP OF CEYLON

DEPARTMENT OF MINERALOGY

CEYLON



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land between the elevations of (*a*) 1,600–1,900 feet, and (*b*) 6,000–8,000 feet. They are characteristically developed to the east of the central massif mainly in the Uva Province in the physiographic region termed the ' Uva Basin '. Of the total area of 250 square miles of patana country about 225 square miles occur in the Uva Province.

The patanas fall into two broad groups : (*a*) the dry patanas, and (*b*) the wet patanas. The dry patanas occur on the eastern slopes of the central massif, which is a rainshadow area during the south-west monsoonal rainfall while the wet patanas occupy the western slopes of the central massif which receive the full effect of the south-west monsoon.

Swamps and water plants do not occur in specific areas, though they are often found in the coastal lagoon tracts. Mangroves and aquatic plants such as Nepenthes or Pitcher plant, and the Water-lily or Lotus are common. Cactus plants occur in the dry-arid areas and have adapted themselves specifically to the moisture-deficient environment.

II. Geology

The Island of Ceylon forms part of the ' old massifs ' and is to a great extent composed of some of the oldest rocks of the earth's crust. On the Standard Geological Time scale, these rocks belong to the ' Archaean ' or Pre-cambrian era. The basement upon which the geological structure of the Island lies, termed the Fundamental Gneissic terrain, is of a very complex character and its original crystalline formation, at the present time, exhibits ' foliation ' as a result of having been altered by the process of metamorphism. The striking resemblance of the Ceylon foliated Archaean Gneissic basement to that of the Canadian Shield has been recognised[1]. The present character of the Gneissic terrain may be explained by one of the three ways :—

(*a*) Orthogneiss—due to the resulting crystallization of the original 'scum' of the molten magma ;
(*b*) Paragneiss—due to the metamorphosis of very ancient sediments ;
(*c*) due to a combination of both Orthogneiss and Paragneiss.

Resting on the fundamental Gneissic basement are the Khondolite groups of rocks which are of the same geological age as the Gneisses, but are still essentially different from the latter by virtue of their inherent structural characteristic. Unlike the complex nature of the Gneisses these rocks are positively of sedimentary origin. Being metamorphosed sedimentaries, they exhibit differences in their original sediments. The following are the types of rocks belonging to this group :—

(*a*) Quartzite (metamorphosed quartz).
(*b*) Crystalline limestone (marble metamorphosed amorphous limestone).
(*c*) Granite.
(*d*) Leptynite.
(*e*) Type Khondalite.

These rocks occupy the central part of the Island extending from the south-west to the east north-east coast (about Trincomalee). They are folded into a ' Synclinorium ' with a general axial trend or strike running north north-west to south south-east in the south-west of the Island, veering to north-south in the centre and north north-east to south south-west in the north-east.

(*a*) *Quartzite.*—Composed mainly of the mineral quartz (Silicon Dioxide), it occurs in rock masses, is white in colour and easily recognisable. It also occurs in vein-formation in the Archaean and Khondalite rocks.

(*b*) *Crystalline Limestone.*—Forming the metamorphosed form of the original amorphous limestone it occurs in banded out-crops running parallel to the Gneissic terrain and ranging from a width of about 200 yards to even quarter of a mile, tilted towards the central part, west-east in the west and east-west in the east.

1 Geology of Ceylon by Adams.—Canadian Journal of Science.

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Three such stretches of banded out-crops occur in Ceylon :—

(i) From about east of Puttalam it runs south, keeping to the western edge of the Hill Country, passing west of Adam's Peak from where it sweeps eastwards south of the southern platform to Balangoda, Wellawaya, Passara and Badulla, from where it once again follows northwards the trend of the valley of the Badulu-oya and the Mahaveli-ganga to Trincomalee.

(ii) This stretch originates about Mihintale and follows a southward trend along the Mahaveli Valley to Hanguranketa along the axis of the main syncline.

(iii) A series of bands south of the Rakwana hill country—the most significant of these running from Ratnapura towards Hambantota.

(*c*) *Granite.*—Composed of grains of various constituent minerals less metamorphosed, occur with beds of quartzite, interstratified with the internally metamorphosed Archaean Gneisses.

(*d*) *Leptynite.*—A fine grained pale rock occurring with granite and quartzite.

(*e*) *Type Khondalite.*—In addition to possessing quartz and feldspar, this rock has two distinguishing minerals, garnet and silimanite. Khondalite is a Garnet-Silimanite feldspar rock—the result of metamorphosis of a sedimentary argillaceous rock.[1]

While the Archaean rocks are fairly well represented, the rocks of the Palaezoic geological era are strangely enough completely absent from the Island's surface. This is fair evidence that the Island must have remained above the sea level throughout the pre-Mesozoic Era. With regard to the rocks of the Mesozoic age, while both Triassic and Cretaceous strata are absent, Jurassic strata do occur. But these too occur only in two pockets, at Tabbowa and Andigama. These two pockets, ' the small but interesting occurrence of shallow water non-marine beds holding fossils of Jurassic age '[2] occur as faulted basins and are separated by horizontal distance of 20 miles and the vertical level of 10 feet.

Specimens of plant fossils embedded in the shales of these Jurassic beds were analysed in 1943 and recognised distinctly as of Jurassic age.

Rocks of the Cainozoic or Tertiary era are absent except for the large tract of clearly distinct limestone of the Miocene period. This area underlies the whole of the Jaffna Peninsula and continues southwards as a coastal stretch up to north of Puttalam and Kalpitiya Peninsula. Sub-recent and Post Pleistocene gravels cover a long stretch of tract east of and in alignment with the limestone belt and have been deposited most probably by a marine transgression of the Island following the retreat and melting of the Pleistocene Ice Sheet.

At various places, especially in the Fundamental Gneissic Terrain and the Khondalite rocks occur granitic intrusions that to-day stand out as resistant horsts or blocks. There are three types of intrusions recognised :—

(*a*) Charnockite ;
(*b*) Dolorite ;
(*c*) Pumice.

Charnockite is hypersthene granite composed of quartz and feldspar with ilmenite and zircon. There are two types of this fine grained rock differing from each other on the basis of colour dependant on the basisity or the acidity of the rocks—the basic being darker than the acidic. There are four distinct areas of occurence :—

1. A large area behind Colombo from North of the Kelani to Ambepussa, Ruanwella and Moratuwa.
2. The high central area triangular in shape, forming the central slopes, the Southern Platform, High Plains and Haputale, Ramboda and Adam's Peak.

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1 J. Spencer Coates, ' Guide to Colombo Museum ' (1924).
2 E. J. Wayland, ' Mineralogist's Report ', 1914-16.
3 Spolia Zeylanica 1940.

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3. Bulutota mass near Rakwana.
4. Smaller blocks at Galle, Weligama, Dondra and Trincomalee.

Dolorite occurs as a dyke north of Bibile.

Pumice is found on the shores of the Mullaitivu coast and is suspected to be possibly of submarine eruptions.

GEOLOGY AND STRUCTURE

Structurally the Island represents a major Syncline with minor contortions within this central downwarp and is termed a ' Synclinorium '. The rocks are seen to dip towards the centre so that the rocks on the west dip to the east and those on the east dip to the west. As referred to before, the Archaean Gneissic terrain forms the basement upon which the Island evolved. Thus while in the centre the base of the syncline is of Fundamental Gneiss, it outcrops on either side in the west and centre and in this downwarp were deposited the sediments derived from the Fundamental Gneiss and which underwent metamorphosis to form the Khondalite of today. Thus though topographically the Island has an anticlinal character, still structurally it is a syncline.

Structural lines in Ceylon which have had a bearing on the alignment of relief have a striking parallel not only to direction but also to the composition of rocks as in India. Thus we have the Khondalite rock especially in the crystalline limestone forming probably the continuation of Eastern Ghats and the Dharwarian trendlines of India.

GEOLOGY AND MINERALS

While the economic minerals of Ceylon will be dealt with in more detail in Chapter XIII, here only the relationship of geology to minerals will be attempted. The Archaean Gneissic terrain and the Khondalite system explain the occurrence of the chief minerals of Ceylon like graphite, ilmenite, gemstones, sands, clays and rare earths.

Graphite.—Occurs in veins and pockets and has resulted by the intrusion of granites into the Khondalite rocks. Thus graphite occurs clearly connected with Khondalite and especially close to areas of granitic intrusions.

Ilmenite.—(Titaniferrous Iron ore) forms the constituent mineral of the basic Charnockite series of rocks and is also formed in the Khondalite rocks as a secondary product. However, its extraction from the ' country rock ' is costly and difficult. But nature in Ceylon by means of the heavy rainfall and the resulting rivers helped to release Ilmenite mineral from the rocks and deposit it along the beaches, for example, along the Colombo-Galle coast, at Induruwa beach especially off Kaikawela, and Pulmoddai (North of Trincomalee). These deposits take the form of black sand.

Sands.—Result from the mechanical disintegration of acid rocks and their economic value arises when they accumulate in large quantities. They are used for the manufacture of glass and cement at Nattandiya and Kankesanturai.

Clays.—Result from chemical decomposition and give rise to kaolin, clay, humi-acidic soils in swamps.

Precious Stones.—Especially gems, have been infused into in Ceylon's Khondalite and Gneissic terrain by magmatic intrusions, rich in aluminium. These crystals of aluminium oxide, when with a trace of chromium, give rise to rubies, and with ferrous salts give rise to green or blue sapphires.

Rare Earths.—Like Thorianite, Zirconite, &c., are associated with the Gneissic terrain and are due to the magmatic intrusion.

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III. Soils

A scientific study of soils may be made on the basis of two aspects or settings, both important from a geographical standpoint :—

(*a*) Pedogenic aspect, concerning the evolution of soils, their structural characteristics and their physical properties.

(*b*) Ecological aspect[1] relating soils to fertility and type of crop. This is of agricultural importance.

A study of the pedogenic aspect entails as a first requirement the adoption of a classification of soil on a genetic basis. In the evolution of soil types there are four vital factors or ' bases ' involved, the final type being the result of the interplay of all these four factors or of one or more of the following[2]—(*a*) Bedrock ; (*b*) Climate ; (*c*) Topography ; and (*d*) Vegetation.

The first study of Ceylon soils on a scientific basis was made by Dr. A. W. R. Joachim[3], of the Department of Agriculture. His classification is as follows :—

1. *Crystalline soils.*—(*a*) Lateritic earth, (*b*) Lateritic loams, (*c*) Non-Lateritic red loams.
2. *Humic soils.*—(*a*) Patna (Grassland) soils, (*b*) Kekilla (Fernland) soils, (*c*) Peaty (Paddy) soils.
3. *Limestone soils.*—(*a*) Terra Rossa (red loam), (*b*) Rendzina (gray earths), (*c*) Crystalline limestone (red brown soils).
4. *Pleistocene soils.*—(*a*) Red and brown sandy (coconut) soils, white sandy (cinnamon) soils ; (*b*) Gravelly soils.
5. Recent alluvium soils.

CRYSTALLINE SOILS

These soils have developed upon the crystalline rocks of Ceylon (Archaean strata—khondalite, charnockite, &c.) and are differentiated into three groups on the basis of climate, especially rainfall. Forest forms their natural vegetation.

(*a*) Lateritic earths, which occupy the south-west quadrant of the Island, coincide with the wet zone with a rainfall of over 100 inches. The main feature attributed to this soil is its ' reticulated ' texture (where the outer walls of this almost hexagonal shaped structure are of clay while the inner cavity is filled with the hard ferric oxide residue.) This lateritic earth results in Ceylon owing to the process of resilication—the latter process in tropical areas preventing these soils forming ' laterite ' which is the bauxite of oxide of aluminium. The basic and acidic nature of these crystalline rocks also determines the type of soil resulting ; thus, acidic soils form light-coloured (silicate forming over 50 per cent.), loose-textured soils poor in lime content but rich in potash. The basic rocks give darker coloured (iron silicate less than 45 per cent.) reddish, heavier-textured soils rich in lime, but poor in potash owing to the effect of leaching.

(*b*) Lateritic loams—These occupy an area of 15 to 20 miles in width, surrounding the belt of lateritic earth and is coincident with the areas of rainfall of from 50 to 80 inches. Being of a deep loam (mixture of sands and clays) the ' reticulated ' texture is not developed.

(*c*) Non-lateritic loams—They occupy the greater part of the dry zone (of less than 50 inches annual rainfall) and are covered by the gravelly soils or replaced by the limestone strata soils. These loams are of a reddish-brown-grey colour and are easily friable.

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1 The ecological aspect will be considered in Chapters XI and XII, which deal with Land Development, Irrigation, etc.

2 A particular soil type, however, would exhibit clearly the dominant operation of only one of these factors. While it was originally held that ' soil ' was the result of physical distintegration and chemical decomposition of the bedrock, it was after the investigations of pedologists like Glinka (Russian), Ramann (German) and Robinson (English) and many others that it was realised that bedrock like any of the other factors only formed the dominant and deterministic factor in the evolution of a particular soil.

3 Soils of Ceylon, Ceylon Geographical Society Bulletin and Tropical Agriculturist.

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HUMIC SOILS

These have developed in the areas formed of lateritic earths and loams and have evolved, not as a result of the climatic interaction upon the bedrock as in the crystalline soils but by interaction through the vegetation. They occur in limited localities within only the two lateritic soil belts, and the humus content in them explains their structural characteristics. Thus have evolved the :—

(*a*) ' Patanas ' or grassland soils occupying the Patana lands of the hilly country ;

(*b*) ' Kekilla ' or fernland soils occupying the wet valleys of the Province of Sabaragamuwa ; and

(*c*) Peaty or paddy soils which occupy the low-lying ' deniya ' lands and in swampy marshes.

LIMESTONE SOILS

These soils are rich in calcium carbonate or lime and are developed mainly on a bedrock basis which forms the underlying limestone strata.

(*a*) ' Terra Rossa ' or red loam is co-extensive with the miocene limestone belt, which stretches from about the Puttalam coast in a north-east belt to include the whole of the Jaffna Peninsula. It is constituted of 98 per cent. of pure calcium carbonate and only 2 per cent. of minute particles of iron (Ferrous oxides). The solution of calcium carbonate leads to the oxidisation of the iron salts into ferric acid which being insoluble is left behind as residue to form a ' red loamy mantle ' on the surface. In the Jaffna Peninsula these are well developed as are also the ' Grey loams ' or Rendzina soils. The Palmyra palm and scrub form the natural vegetation.

(*b*) The brownish-red loams have been evolved from the crystalline limestone as in Ampitiya, Matale, &c. Unlike the ' Terra Rossa ' they exhibit a crystalline character and today occur not as a residual soil but as a transported soil. Evergreen forest forms their natural vegetation.

PLEISTOCENE SOILS

These occupy a belt lying between the Gneiss Khondalite (*i.e.*, non-lateritic red loams) and the Miocene limestone strata.

(*a*) Red and brown sands forming the typical coconut soils ; white sandy (cinnamon) soils. Red and brown sand occupy the Island of Mannar, the Puttalam-Kurunegala-Chilaw ' triangle ' and the east coast of the Island, from about Elephant Pass southwards to Pottuvil. The red colour is due to the deposition of the insoluble ferric oxide, deep light and well-drained (with a low clay but high silica content). The soils are typical of the best coconut lands especially along the coastal stretches.

White sandy (cinnamon) soils are bleached white sands found in the same areas as the coconut soils, but are water-logged, owing to the development of a hard pan about 5 feet below the surface, as at Madampitiya, Narahenpitiya, &c. Coconut does not thrive well owing to the ill-drained nature of the soil.

(*b*) Pleistocene gravelly soils—These occupy a belt east of the limestone strata stretching from Puttalam area to Elephant Pass. This is not of any particular importance.

RECENT ALLUVIUM DEPOSITS

These are of recent occurence and are the result of the well developed radial hydrographic systems which carry the denuded material from the higher elevations to deposit them in the low-lying valleys and tracts. They cover areas of flood plains and deltas and because of its clayey nature are utilised essentially for paddy cultivation. Here topography has played the dominant role.

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CHAPTER III

METEOROLOGY AND CLIMATE

I. Meteorology

CLIMATIC data have been collected in Ceylon since 1880 and to-day the Island is served adequately with observation stations. There are altogether 19 main Meteorological Observatories which make daily records of temperature, rainfall, wind, pressure and humidity.

TABLE 3.1. METEOROLOGICAL STATIONS WITH THEIR ELEVATIONS

	Station	*Elevation in feet*
Coastal	Colombo Observatory	24
	Mannar	12
	Galle	13
	Jaffna	14
	Batticaloa	26
	Puttalam	27
	Hambantota	61
	Trincomalee	24
Inland	Anuradhapura	295
	Ratnapura	113
	Kurunegala	381
	Kandy	1,611
	Badulla	2,225
	Diyatalawa	4,104
	Haggala	5,581
	Nuwara Eliya	6,170

The Colombo Observatory, which for over 40 years was a branch of the Survey Department, was established as an independent Department with effect from October 1, 1948, and functions now as the Department of Meteorology. The work of this Department is of importance to health, agriculture, irrigation and civil aviation, and also, in times of emergency, to the fighting services. A report on the Colombo Observatory with maps and statistics is published annually for use in Ceylon, and for distribution to the Meteorological Services abroad. In addition to climatological work, which includes surface and cloud observations at 19 stations, pilot or upper-air observations at Colombo, Mannar and Trincomalee, underground observations at Colombo, and a net-work of rainfall observations at over 500 raingauge stations throughout the Island, this Department is also engaged in time and seismological work.

CLIMATOLOGICAL WORK

Weather telegrams are received daily, at stated intervals, at the Colombo Observatory from the climatological stations, and also rainfall telegrams, once a day, from the key rainfall stations. Weather telegrams are also sent daily from Colombo and other Ceylon Stations to India, Pakistan and Burma, and also to the R. A. F., Negombo. A weather report is supplied daily to Radio Ceylon, for broadcast *en clair* at noon, to the local Press, to the Colombo Pilot Station for the information of ships in the harbour, and for publication in the Post Office Daily List.

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A monthly meteorological statement is printed for distribution. A monthly weather summary is issued for publication in the 'Tropical Agriculturist' and the Press. Periodical and special reports and returns are issued to various Government Departments. Warnings of weather disturbances in the neighbouring seas are telegraphed to the authorities concerned. Kelani river flood-forecasts are made whenever there is very heavy rain in the catchment area. At the request of the Director of Irrigation, a climatological station was established at Inginiyagala with the Gal oya Development Scheme on November 1, 1949.

TIME SERVICE

Wireless time signals are sent out in the 'ONOGO' code, for the benefit of shipping, twice a day at 0600 and 1330 hours G. M. T.

The master clocks at the C. T. O., G. P. O., S. G. O., Customs Jetty, Colombo Town Hall, the Secretariat and the Colombo town clock are kept synchronised by means of signals from the Observatory. The Observatory standard clocks are rated exclusively on the Rugby Vernier Time Signals. Police stop-watches are regularly rated at the Observatory.

Two new clocks were installed in 1949, one a mechanical clock, Dent No. 60618, and the other an electric clock, Shortt No. 68. The latter clock is housed in a temperature-controlled chamber and is fixed to a massive concrete pier which is mounted on a cylindrical pillar of concrete sunk to a depth of 44 feet.

SEISMOLOGICAL SERVICE

The Milne-Shaw seismograph is in continuous service. The charts are reduced and data forwarded to the Director-General of Observatories, India, for inclusion in the Indian Seismological Bulletin, and to the Director, Kew Observatory, England, for inclusion in the International Seismological Summary.

PUBLICATIONS

Routine publications of the Department are limited to :—

(*a*) The daily weather report and forecast to the Colombo Broadcasting Station (now Radio Ceylon), for broadcast *en clair* at noon, to the *Post Office Daily List* and the Press ;

(*b*) The monthly weather summary to the *Tropical Agriculturist* and the Press ;

(*c*) The times of rising and setting of the sun and moon and lighting-up times at Colombo to the Press, monthly in advance ;

(*d*) The monthly observations in Ceylon comprising of the meteorological data at all the climatological and rain gauge stations in the Island ;

(*e*) The astronomical ephemeris for publication in the *Ceylon Almanac ;* and

(*f*) The Annual Report on the Colombo Observatory with maps and statistics, for distribution in Ceylon and issue to the Meteorological Services abroad.

EXPANSION SCHEME

Further progress was made in 1949, with the scheme of expansion of this Department.

Additional staff, equipment and buildings were provided. Six Technical Officers were trained in U. K. as meteorologists. The strength of the staff of this service before expansion was 42. At the end of 1949 the sanctioned strength was 173.

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A radio-sonde station will be established shortly in Colombo. An increase in the number of pilot-balloon stations and the establishment of a radar wind-finding station in Colombo are under consideration.

II. Climate

From the climatic point of view the Island exhibits the following general features :—

(*a*) General warmth throughout the year (averaging 80°F.) with rarely an area recording less than 60°F. (which reading is very localised in the hill country) because of its latitudinal position (5°N. to 9°N.). Range of temperature, (seasonal, monthly or diurnal) is generally small.

(*b*) The relative humidity is rather high (over 75 per cent.) because of its island character, no point in Ceylon being more than 80 miles from the sea.

(*c*) Absence of the traditional seasons so typical of temperate lands—Spring, Summer, Autumn and Winter. Seasons in Ceylon are purely a function of rainfall—a wet and dry season alternating through a cool and hot season can be recognised. Frost, mist, and sometimes hail do occur in the hilly areas. Snow, however, is completely absent.

(*d*) Rainfall is generally heavy and forms the only mode of precipitation, and is fundamentally of a convectional type (land and sea breezes), though the monsoons dominate during their respective seasons.

(*e*) Cyclonic activity is not of great dominance as in temperate areas and, when operating, occurs generally during the north-east monsoon period (November to February) and is of the tropical variety which operates in the Indian Ocean—especially the Bay of Bengal.

TEMPERATURE

The temperature of Ceylon is dependent on two important factors :—

(1) *Latitudinal position.*—The average high temperature of the Island is attributable to its position in the ' Doldrum belt ', thus lying in close proximity to the thermal equator (the overhead sun during the equinoxes). The direct incidence of the vertical rays of the sun is thus responsible for the high temperature.

(2) *Insularity.*—With a maximum breadth of only 140 miles, no place in the Island is so remote as not to feel the influence of insularity. This oceanic effect is to temper the high degree of insolation which prevails.

Other secondary factors affecting temperatures are :—

(*a*) *Relative humidity.*—The relatively high humidity is responsible for the even temperature that is exhibited throughout the Island. Thus, in the south-western section of the Island the average temperature (as obtained from actual temperature, not reduced to sea level) is never above 80°F.—while elsewhere (except the hilly region), the Lowlands show a higher temperature. This is of course attributed to the high relative humidity (larger percentage of water vapour per unit cubic area) prevailing in the south-west.

(*b*) *Altitudinal effect.*—It is observed that all regions recording less than 80°F. are in the hilly portion of the Island. The effect of altitude is clearly exemplified here, for the almost concentric contours seem to coincide with the isotherms—while the 1°F. decrease for every 300 feet in height is best brought out by Nuwara Eliya (6,170 feet), which has a temperature of 60°F.

Temperature analysis of Coastal Stations.—Colombo, Jaffna and Hambantota all show very little seasonal variation about 3°F. They also indicate a fall in temperature with the arrival of the monsoon rain (Colombo in June ; others in November), while the period March to April shows an increase of temperature.

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CEYLON

SHOWING
ANNUAL AVERAGE RAINFALL
(1911 - 40)

Scale: 34 Miles to One Inch

25 - 50	INCHES
50 - 75	"
75 - 100	"
100 - 125	"
125 - 150	"
150 - 200	"
>200	"

80° 81°

9° 8° 7° 6°

Kankesanturai · Point Pedro · Ramanathan College · Jaffna College · Kayts · J. Farm School · JAFFNA · Chavakachcheri · Pallai · Delft · Saltern Elephant Pass · Paranthan · Kilinochchi · Iranaimadu · Mullaittivu · Kanukkeni · Talaimannar · Mankulam · Kanakarayankulam · Nedunkeni · Mannar Water Works · MANNAR · Puliyankulam · Mantota · Velakulam · Tiriyai · Murunkan · Silavatturai · Vepp · Madhu Road · Puvarasankulam · Vavuniya · Gomarankadawela · Periyakulam · Kebitigollewa · Andankulam · TRINCOMALEE · Marichchukkaddi · Horowupotana · Palampodda · Madawachchiya · Sangilikanadarawa · Karativu · Oopar · Kahatagasdigiliya · Pomparippu · A'pura Expt: Station · ANURADHAPURA · Kantalai · Allai · Mihintale · Kal Aar · Kalpitiya · Kadiraveli · Nachchaduwa · Nachchikkali · Ihala Hammillewa · E. Saltern · Illuppallama · Maradankadawala · Gal Oya · W. Saltern · Tabbowa · PUTTALAM · Kagama · Hingurakdamana · Minneriya · Palavi · Galgamuwa · Kalawewa · Welikanda · Vaganeri · Madurankuli · Maha Uswewa · Sigiriya · Topawewa · Pelwehera · Anamaduwa · Mediyawa · Dambulla · Angamedilla · Kirimutti · Maho · Pilacholai · Mylambavelly · BATTICALOA · Galewela · Bakamunanne · Battulu Oya · Magallewewa · Ridi Bendi Ela · Flensburg · Ganewatta · Karadiyan Aru · Siyambalawewa · Kosgolla · Rukam · Palugaswewa · Millawana · Hankole · Wariyapola Exp. · Gokarella · Ubichchai · Kadukkamunai · Chilaw · Bingiriya · Katupota · Pallakottuwa · Lenawihare · Illukkumbura · Pallegama · Manalpuddy Aar · Karukkuwa · Batalagoda · Maha Oya · Pulukunavi · Loxton · Thumpenkeni · KURUNEGALA · Periya Aru · Horakele · Dandagamuwa · New Foundland · Diwulana · Navatkiri Aar · Pathregalla · Horaborawewa · Kalmunai · LUNUWILA · Pannala · Giriulla · Alutnuwara · Chadaiyantalavai · Viragoda · Amparai · Kudawewa · Potuliyadde · Kanankadu · Irakkamam · Negombo · Wester Seaten · Damunuwinna · Ekiriyankumbura · Inginiyagala · Nilgala · Neethai · Franklands · Minuwangoda · Bibile · Sakamam · Alexandra · Gala Oya · Thottama · Tirrukovil · Henaragoda · Baduluwela · Rufuskulam · Horagahalande · Ruvalwela · Orange Hill · Medagama · Timitar · Hunupitiya · Ragama · Mahadowa · BADULLA · Kehellandewewa · Elie House · COLOMBO · Angoda · Dambagalla · Siyambalanduwa · Hanwella · Monaragala · Rotawewa · Pottuvil · Aturugiriya · Lahugala · Dehiwala · Kumbukkan · Naula · Ratmalana · Sudupanawela · Moratuwa · Buttala · Panawa · Horana · Panadure · Galatura · Halwatura · BATHAPURA · Uggalkaltota · Telulla · Kalutara · Mahawalatenna · Hambegamuwa · Maggona · Dolabadakanda · Godakawela · Kumana · Kokkawita · Depedene · Wellawa · Tangamalwila · Kataragama · Kanana · Kumbaduwa · Kolonna · Migahajandura · Embilipitiya · Yala · Welitara · Hinidama · Millawa · Middeniya · Tissamaharama · St. Leonards · Liyangahatota · Uduwila · Palatupana · Batapola · Morawaka · Ridiyagama · Kirama · Galagoda · Nagoda · Mawarella · Udukiriwila · Mamadola · Udugama · Baddegama · Arachchi Amuna · Maha Lewaya · Beausejour · Donagama · HAMBANTOTA · Batavata · Maliduwa · Ambalantota · Labuduwa · Hali Ela · Ella Wella · Hiyare · Semidale · GALLE · Dandeniya · Tangalla · Weligama · Kekanadure · Matara

25-50 · 50-75 · 75-100 · 100-125 · 125-150 · 150-200 · >200

For names of stations shown in the Map by abbreviation, see Table.

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CEYLON

SHOWING

AVERAGE RAINFALL

S. W. MONSOON

MAY - SEPT. (1911 - 1940)

Scale : 34 Miles to One Inch

	< 10 INCHES
	10 - 20 "
	20 - 40 "
	40 - 60 "
	60 - 80 "
	80 - 100 "
	100 - 120 "
	> 120 "

80° 81° 9° 8° 7° 6°

Kankesanturai · Point Pedro · Ramanathan College · Jaffna College · Kayts · J. Farm School · JAFFNA · Chavakachcheri · Pallai · Delft · Saltern Elephant Pass · Paranthan · Kilinochchi · Iranaimadu · Mullaittivu · Kanukkeni · Mankulam · Kanakarayankulam · Nedunkeni · Puliyankulam · Tiriyai · Vavuniya · Tataimannar · Mannar Water Works · MANNAR · Mantota · Velakulam · Murunkan · Silavatturai · Vepp · Madhu Road · Puvarasankulam · Marichchukkaddi · Madawachchiya · Sangilikanadarawa · Karativu · Pomparippu · A'pura Expt. Station · ANURADHAPURA · Mihintale · Kalpitiya · Nachchaduwa · Nachchikkali · Ihala Hammillewa · Illuppallama · Maradankadawala · Gal Oya · E. Saltern · Tabbowa · W. Saltern · PUTTALAM · Kagama · Palavi · Galgamuwa · Kalawewa · Madurankuli · Maha Uswewa · Sigiriya · Anamaduwa · Mediyawa · Pelwehera · Dambulla · Maho · Topawewa · Angamedilla · Magallewewa · Ridi Bendi Ela · Galawela · Bakamunanne · Battulu Oya · Flensburg · Siyambalawewa · Ganewatta · Kossella · Nal · Palugaswewa · Hankole · Wariyapola Exp. · Millawana · Gokarella · Gam · Doo · Illukkumbura · Lenawihare · Pallegama · Chilaw · Katupota · Pallakottuwa · Karukkuwa · Batalagoda · Dew · Ratt · Cr.H · Vic · Matl · Berna · KURUNEGALA · Wap · Dandagamuwa · New Foundland · Horakele · Pathregalla · Wen · StM · Wag · Gal · Kob · Duc · Den · Mag · Ida · Horaborawewa · Alutnuwara · Kudawewa · Damunuwinna · Minipe Irrg · Ekiriyankumbura · Potuliyadde · Kanankadu · Inginiyagala · Nilgala · Viragoda · Chadaiyantalavai · Amparai · Irakkamam · Neetha · Sakamam · Tholtama · Tirrukovil · Rufuskulam · Timitar · LUNUWILA · Pannala · Giriulla · Por · Pol · Kemp · Al · Kat · NAWALAPITIYA · Raj · Wo · Negombo · Western Seaten · Etn · Kegalle · Kadu · Diw · Gamp · Pag · Ki · Arawa · Bibile · Gala Oya · Lugaloya · Baduluwela · Ruvalwela · Medagama · Alexandra · Frankland · Minuwangoda · Pind · Yatadertara · Kal · Hay · Sog · Poo · Hopes · Matr · Udm · Ta · Kek · Mahadowa · Kehellandewewa · Dambagalla · Siyambalandowa · Rotawewa · Pottuvil · Monaragala · Lahugala · Walton · Naula · Panawa · Henaratgoda · Vin · Homagahalande · Orange Hill · Bur · Dund · We · Sena · Oom · Kab · Hunupitiya · Ragama · Pad · Dus · Lak · Kirklees · BADULLA · Elie House · COLOMBO · Malg · Angoda · Dompe · Av · Dig · Ken · Wew · Nan · NUWARA ELIYA · NAWALAPITIYA · Deb · Ras · Hanwella · Av E · Dak · Hatton · Cal · Con · Wel · Dy · Lsv · TR · Mo · Dehiwala · Ratmalana · Sun · Eh · Mab · Lag · Ker · The Bush · Ella · Gou · Str · DIYATALAWA · Kumbukkan · Sudupanawela · Butiala · Moratuwa · Panadure · Horana · Galatura · Gilimalay · Nagrak · Bid · Lem · Kos · Halwatura · Bandaragama · GALLE · Hallayen · Pelmadulla · Uggalkaltota · Telulla · Kalutara · Pelenda · Niviligala · Mahawalatenna · Gona Penigala · Hambegamuwa · Maggona · Dolabadakanda · Godakawela · Kokkawita · Depedene · Wellawa · Kataragama · Tanamalwila · Kanaya · Kumbaduwa · Kolonna · Migahajandura · Embilipitiya · Yala · Welitara · St. Leonards · Hiniduma · Millawa · Middeniya · Tissamaharama · Opata · Morawaka · Liyangahatota · Uduwila · Palatupana · Batapola · Galagoda · Nagoda · Mawarella · Kirama · Ridiyagama · Udugama · Baddegama · Arachchi · Udukiriwila · Mamadola · Maha Lewaya · HAMBANTOTA · Beadesejoin · Denagama · Maliduwa · Hali Ela · Bata-ata · Ambalantota · Labuduwa · Elia Wella · Hiyare · Somidale · Dandeniya · Tangalla · Kekanadure · Weligama · Matara · Kumana · Batticaloa · Karadiyan Aru · Rukam · Unichchai · Manalputty Aar · Kadukkamunai · Puhukunavi · Maha Oya · Thumponkeni · Loxton · Periya Aru · Navatkiri Aar · Diwulana · Kalmunai · Pilacholai · Mylambavelly · BATTICALOA · Oopar · Allai · Kal Aar · Kantalai · Kadiraveli · Welikanda · Vaganeri · Kirimutti · Hingurakdamana · Minneriya · Gomarankadawela · Periyakulam · Andankulam · TRINCOMALEE · Horowupotana · Palampodda · Kebitigollewa

10 · 10-20 · 20 · 20-40 · 40 · 40-60 · 60-80 · 80-100 · 100-120 · >120 · <10

For names of stations shown in the Map by abbreviation, see Table.

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CEYLON

S. W. MONSOON (MAY-SEPT)

Offsets in 1948 Above & Below Average

Scale-34 Miles to One Inch

DEFICIT	30 - 40 Inches	
	20 - 30	"
	10 - 20	"
	5 - 10	"
EXCESS	0 - 5	"
	0 - 5	"
	> 5	"

80° 81° 9° 8° 7° 6°

Kankesanturai · Point Pedro · Ramanathan College · Jaffna College · Kayts · J. Farm School · JAFFNA · Chavakachcheri · Pallai · Delft · Saltern Elephant Pass · Paranthan · Kilinochchi · Iranaimadu · Mullaittivu · Kanukkeni · Talaimannar · Mankulam · Kanakarayankulam · Nedunkeni · Mannar Water Works · MANNAR · Mantota · Vetakulam · Puliyankulam · Tiriyai · Murunkan · Silavatturai · Vepp · Madhu Road · Puvarasankulam · Vavuniya · Kabiligollewa · Gomarankadawela · Periyakulam · Andankulam · TRINCOMALEE · Marichchukkaddi · Horowupotana · Palampodda · Madawachchiya · Sangilikanadarawa · Karativu · Kahatagasdigiliya · Oopar · A'pura Expt: Station · ANURADHAPURA · Pomparippu · Mihintale · Kantalai · Alai · Kal Aar · Kalpitiya · Nachchaduwa · Kadiraveli · Nachchikkali · Ihala Hammillewa · Illuppallama · Maradankadawala · Gal Oya · E. Saltern · Tabbowa · W. Saltern · PUTTALAM · Kagama · Hingurakdamana · Minneriya · Palavi · Galgamuwa · Kalawewa · Sigiriya · Welikanda · Vaganeri · Madurankuli · Maha Uswewa · Medhiyawa · Pelwehera · Topawewa · Kirimutti · Anamaduwa · Dambulla · Angamedilla · Maho · Galawela · Pilicholai · Bakamunanne · Mylambavelly · BATTICALOA · Batulu Oya · Magallewewa · Ridi Bendi Ela · Flensburg · Karadiyan Aru · Siyambalawewa · Ganewatta · Kosgolla · Millawana · Rukam · Hankole · Wariyapola Exp · Gokarella · Lenawihare · Pallegama · Unichchai · Kadukkamunai · Manalpully Aar · Chilaw · Bingiriya · Katupota · Pallakottuwa · Batalagoda · Pulukunavi · Maha Oya · Thumpankeni · Loxton · Korukkuwa · Horakele · Dandagamuwa · Borne · KURUNEGALA · New Foundland · Pathtegalla · Periya Aru · Navaikiri Aar · Diwulana · Kalmunai · Viragoda · Chadaiyantalavai · Amparai · Negombo · Wester Seaton · Franklands · Alexandra · Henaratgoda · Horagahalande · Orange Hill · Ragama · Hunupitiya · Elie House · COLOMBO · Angoda · Dompe · Av E · Attugiriya · Dehimala · Ratmalana · Moratuwa · Panadure · Bandaragama · Hallayen · Pelmadulla · Nivitigala · Kalutara · Gona Panigala · Maggona · Kanana · Kumbaduwa · Welitara · Leonards · Batapola · Galagoda · Nagoda · Udugama · Baddegama · Beausejour · Maliduwa · Labuduwa · Hiyare · Hali Ela · Ella Wella · Semidale · Pandipola · GALLE · Kekanadure · Matara · Irakkamam · Potuliyadde · Kanankadu · Damunuwinna · Ekiriyankumbura · Minipe Irrg · Inginiyagala · Nilgala · Neethai · Sakamam · Thottama · Tirukovil · Rufuskulam · Timitar · Arawa · Bibile · Lugalooa · Gala Oya · Baduluwela · Ruvalwela · Medagama · Mahadowa · Kehellandewewa · Dambagalla · Siyambalanduwa · Rotawewa · Pottuvil · Monaragala · Walton · Lahugala · Naula · Kumbukkan · Sudupanawela · Buttala · Panama · Alutnuwara · Udawewa · Idd · Horaboranewewa · Hambegamuwa · Godakawela · Wellawa · Uggalkaltota · Telulla · Mahawalatenna · Kumana · Tanamalwila · Kataragama · Migahajandura · Yala · Kolonna · Embilipitiya · Middeniya · Liyangahatota · Ridiyagama · Uduwila · Tissamaharama · Palatupana · Kirama · Usukiriwila · Maha Lewaya · HAMBANTOTA · Mamadola · Denagama · Ambalantota · Tangalla · Weligama · Matara · Ella · Mihintale · Kahatagasdigiliya · Gomarankadawela · Periyakulam · Andankulam · Oopar · Kantalai · Alai · Kal Aar · Kadiraveli · Gal Oya · Hingurakdamana · Minneriya · Welikanda · Vaganeri · Kirimutti · Pilicholai · Mylambavelly · Karadiyan Aru · Rukam · Unichchai · Kadukkamunai · Manalpully Aar · Pulukunavi · Maha Oya · Thumpankeni · Loxton · Periya Aru · Navaikiri Aar · Diwulana · Kalmunai · Viragoda · Chadaiyantalavai · Amparai · Irakkamam · Potuliyadde · Kanankadu · Damunuwinna · Ekiriyankumbura · Minipe Irrg · Inginiyagala · Nilgala · Neethai · Sakamam · Thottama · Tirukovil · Rufuskulam · Timitar · Baduluwela · Ruvalwela · Medagama · Kehellandewewa · Dambagalla · Siyambalanduwa · Rotawewa · Pottuvil · Monaragala · Walton · Lahugala · Naula · Kumbukkan · Sudupanawela · Buttala · Panama · Alutnuwara · Udawewa · Idd · Horaboranewewa · Hambegamuwa · Godakawela · Wellawa · Uggalkaltota · Telulla · Mahawalatenna · Kumana · Tanamalwila · Kataragama · Migahajandura · Yala · Kolonna · Embilipitiya · Middeniya · Liyangahatota · Ridiyagama · Uduwila · Tissamaharama · Palatupana · Kirama · Usukiriwila · Maha Lewaya · HAMBANTOTA · Mamadola · Denagama · Ambalantota · Tangalla · Weligama · Matara · Ella · Mihintale · Kahatagasdigiliya · Gomarankadawela · Periyakulam · Andankulam · Oopar · Kantalai · Alai · Kal Aar · Kadiraveli · Gal Oya · Hingurakdamana · Minneriya · Welikanda · Vaganeri · Kirimutti · Pilicholai · Mylambavelly · Karadiyan Aru · Rukam · Unichchai · Kadukkamunai · Manalpully Aar · Pulukunavi · Maha Oya · Thumpankeni · Loxton · Periya Aru · Navaikiri Aar · Diwulana · Kalmunai · Viragoda · Chadaiyantalavai · Amparai · Irakkamam · Potuliyadde · Kanankadu · Damunuwinna · Ekiriyankumbura · Minipe Irrg · Inginiyagala · Nilgala · Neethai · Sakamam · Thottama · Tirukovil · Rufuskulam · Timitar · Baduluwela · Ruvalwela · Medagama · Kehellandewewa · Dambagalla · Siyambalanduwa · Rotawewa · Pottuvil · Monaragala · Walton · Lahugala · Naula · Kumbukkan · Sudupanawela · Buttala · Panama

For names of stations shown in the Map by abbreviation, see Table.

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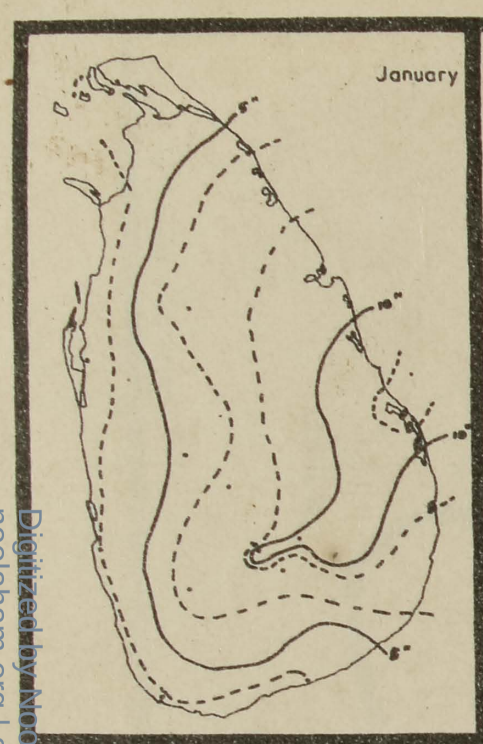
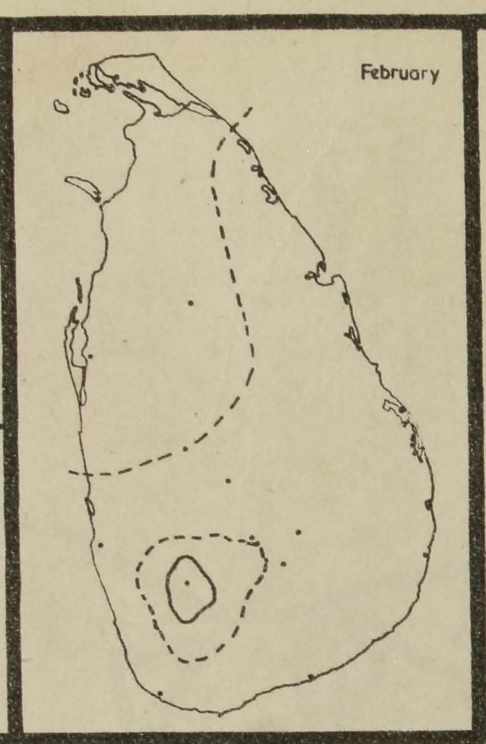
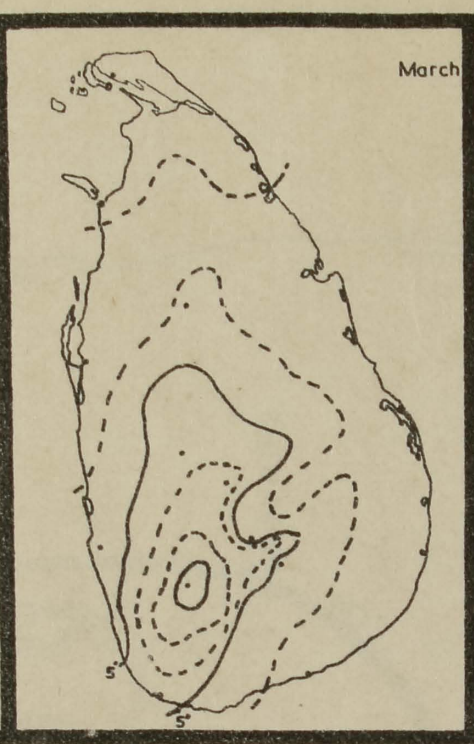
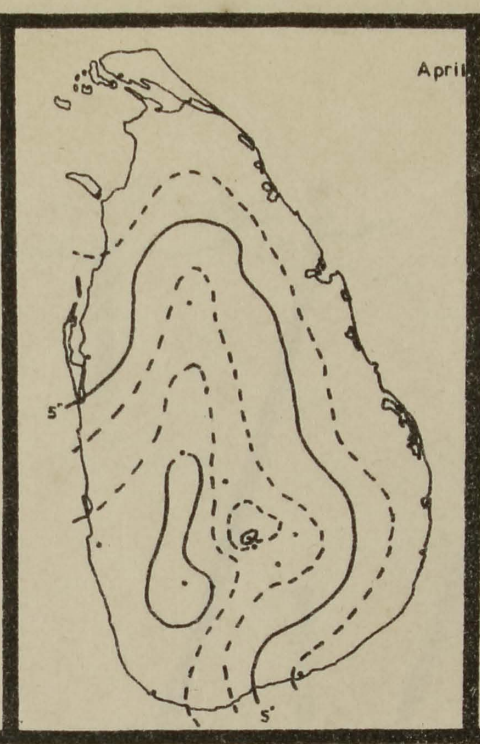
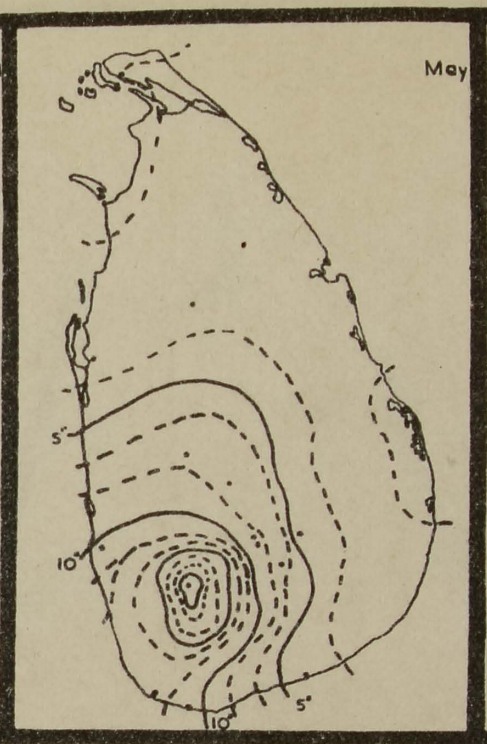
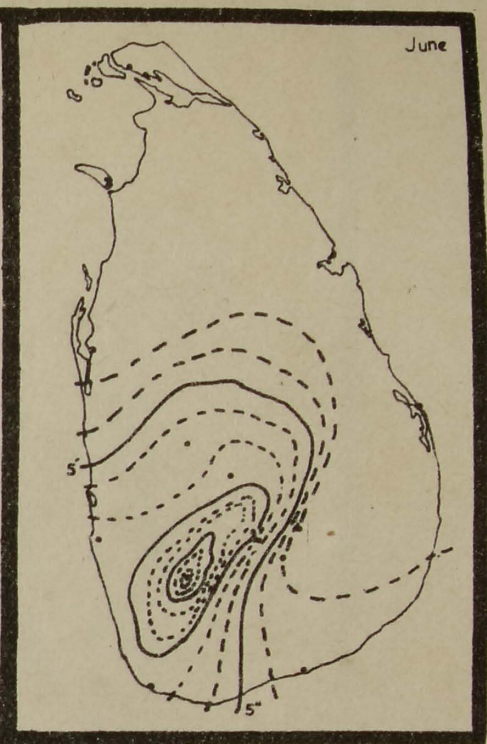




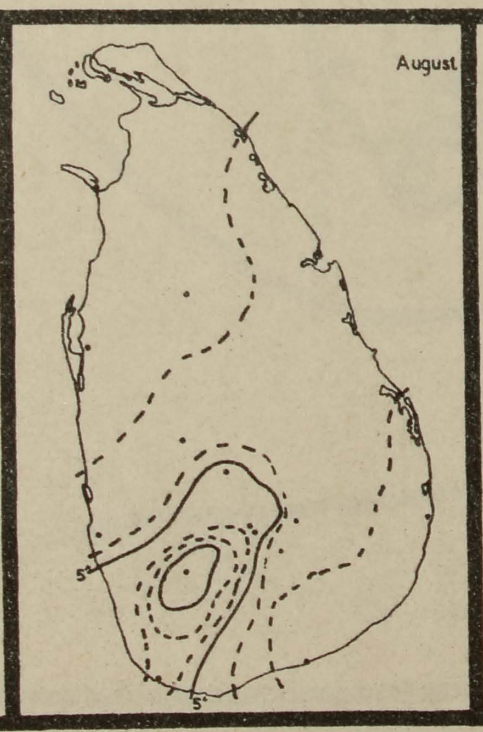


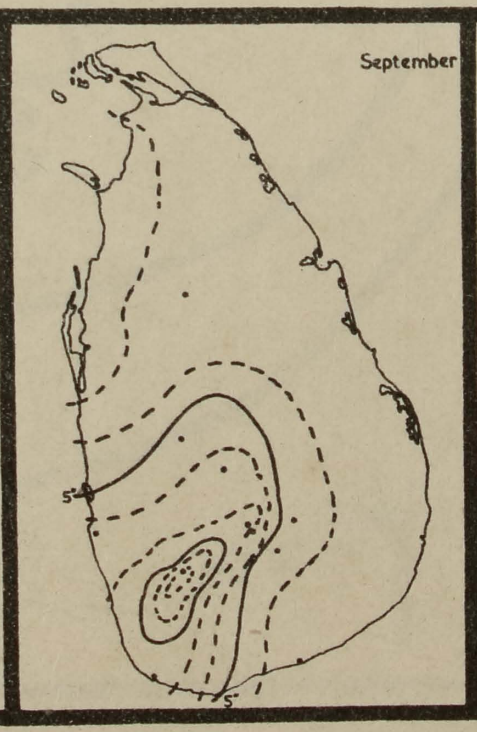


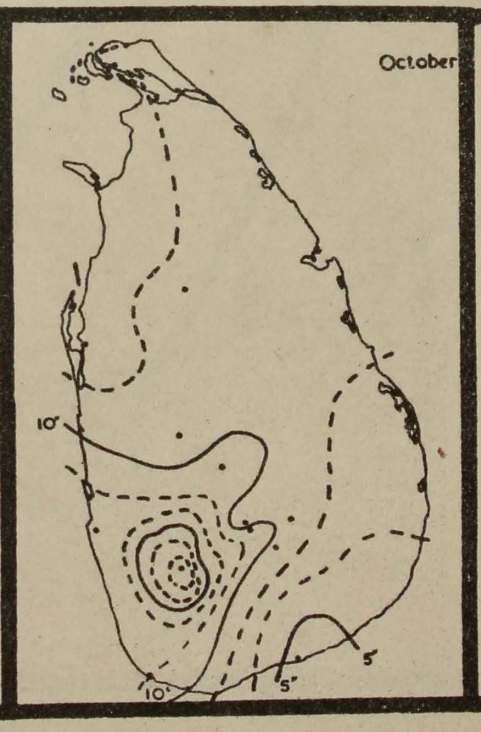


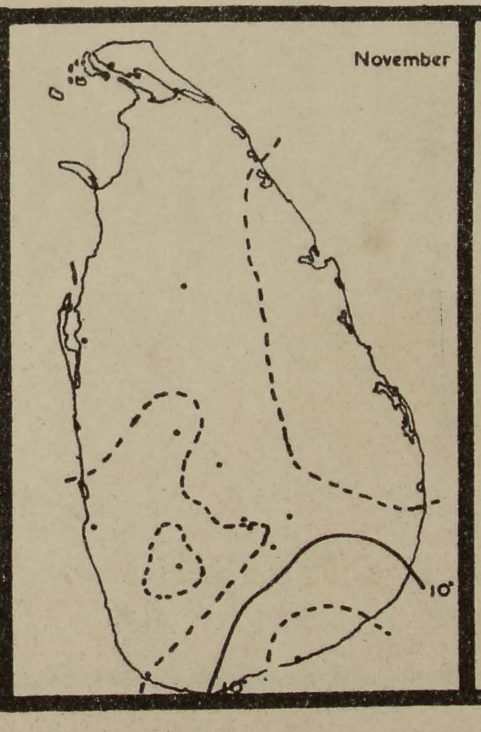


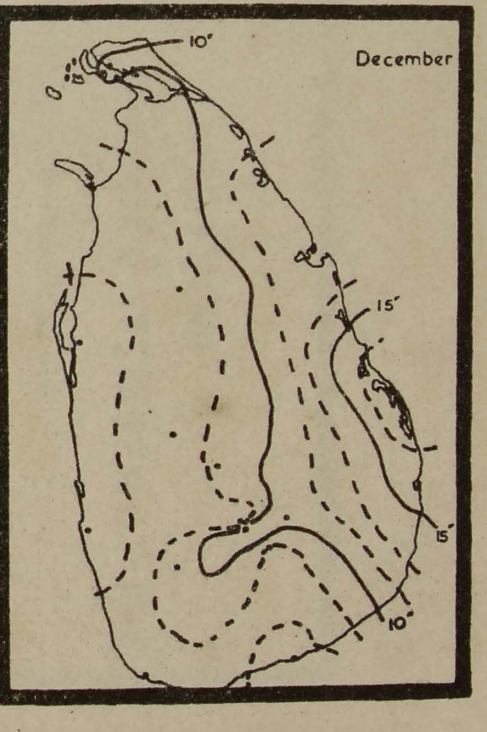
GENERALIZED AVERAGE MONTHLY RAINFALL DISTRIBUTION (1911-1940)











Drawn by Edmund.V.Christian

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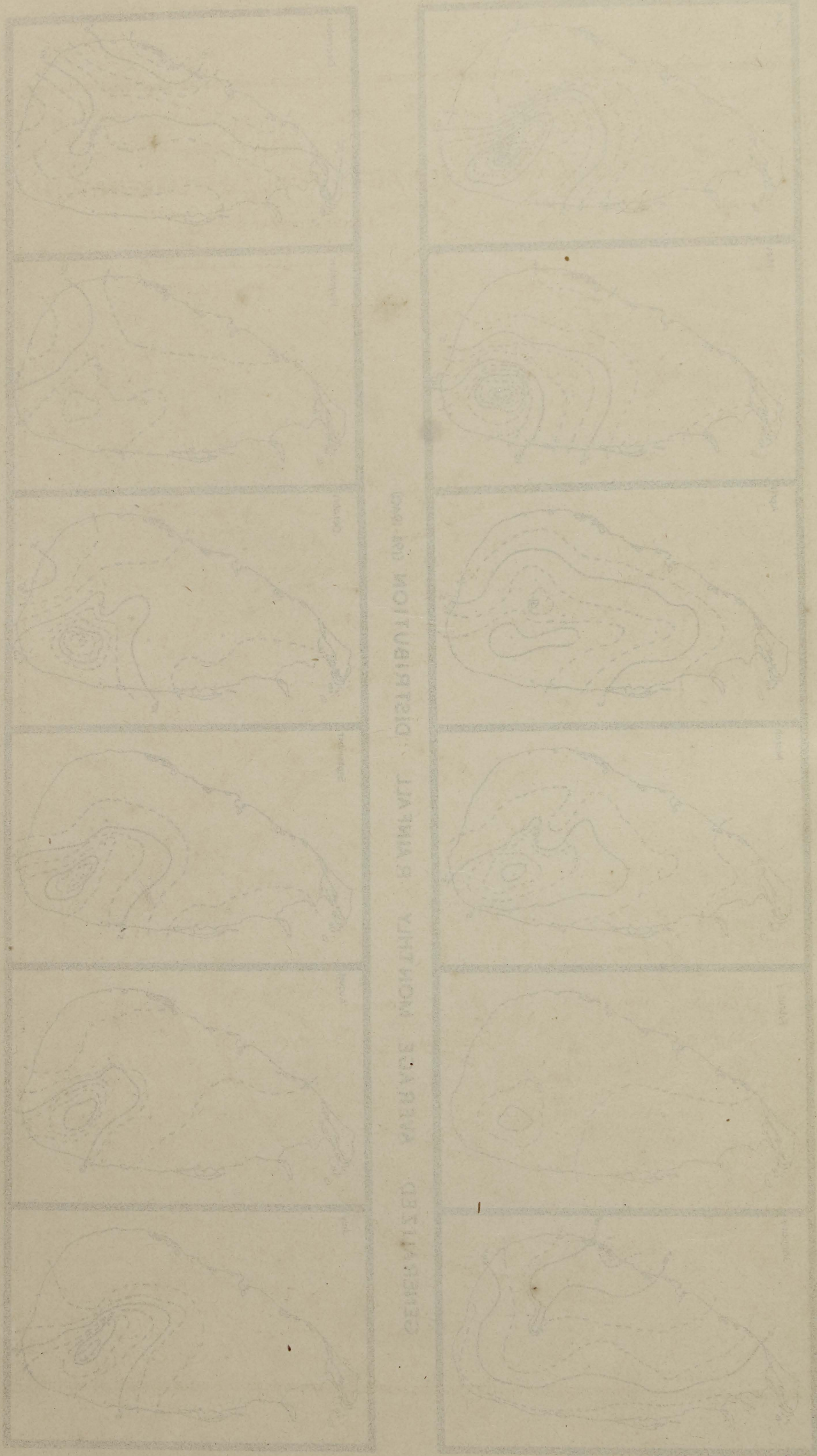

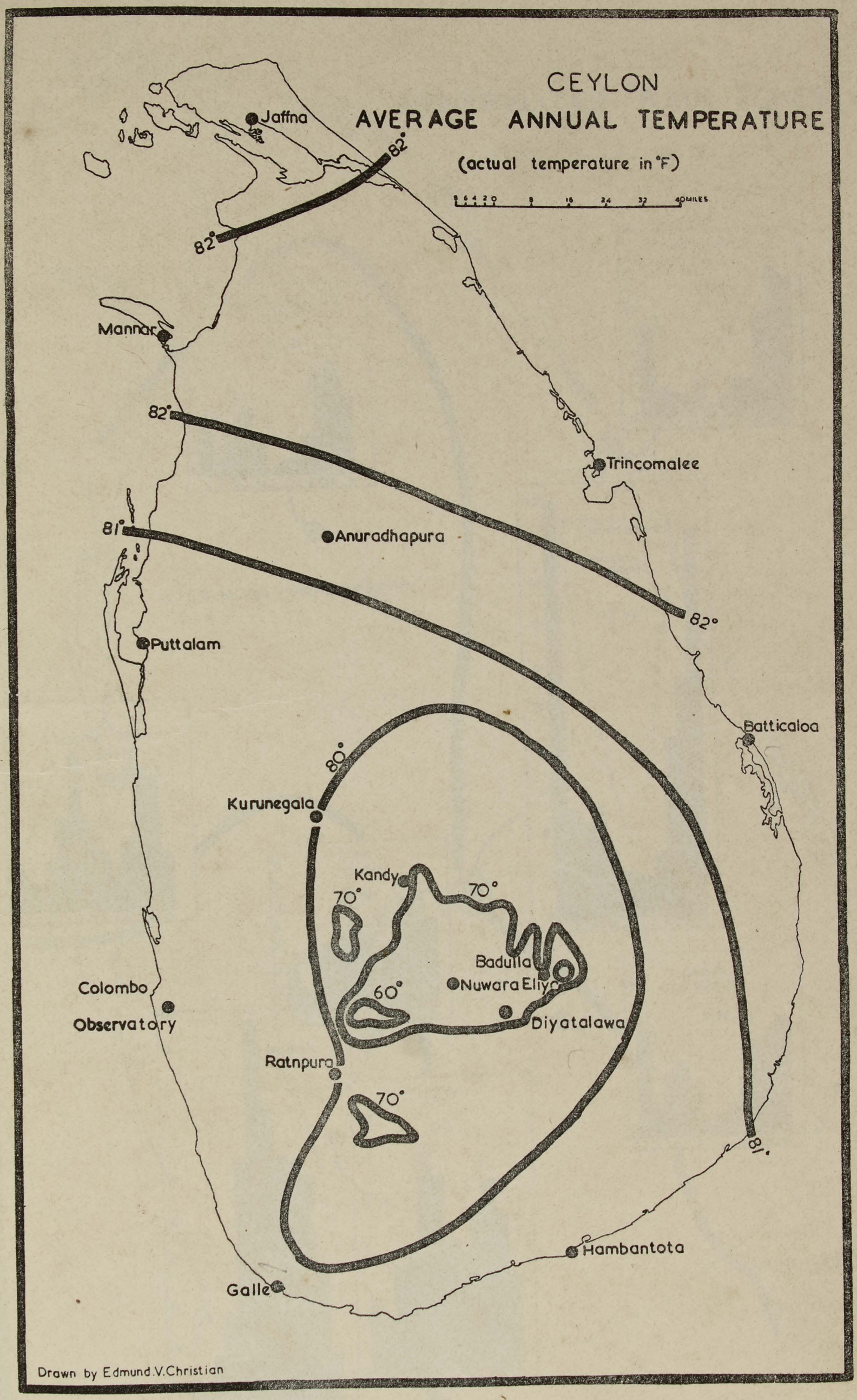

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CEYLON
GENERALIZED "RAIN ZONES"

8 6 4 2 0 8 16 24 32 40 MILES.

ANURADHAPURA
300 Ft
56.99"
J.F.M.A.M.J.J.A.S.O.N.D

TRINCOMALEE
30Ft
64.85"
J.F.M.A.M.J.J.A.S.O.N.D

St Martins Estate (upper)
Rangala
3,800 Ft
173.42"
J.F.M.A.M.J.J.A.S.O.N.D

INTER-MONSOONAL REGIME

Colombo Observatory
20 Ft
23.17"
J.F.M.A.M.J.J.A.S.O.N.D

Kandy
1610 Ft
86.80"
J.F.M.A.M.J.J.A.S.O.N.D

Badulla
2,220 Ft
71.99
J.F.M.A.M.J.J.A.S.O.N.D

Watawala
3,260
218.55
J.F.M.A.M.J.J.A.S.O.N.D

Ratnapura
130 Ft
153.57"
J.F.M.A.M.J.J.A.S.O.N.D

NORTH-EAST MONSOONAL REGIMES

SOUTH-WEST MONSOONAL REGIMES

Drawn by Edmund.V.Christian

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This period, however, is one of intense insolation and cloud-free skies throughout Ceylon. Daily ranges of temperature are marked. Thus Colombo shows 15°F. in February and 8°F. in June and July—cloudiness being the determinant factor. In Jaffna, March to July show only 7°F. range of temperature, while the relative humidity is 78 per cent ; in February the respective figures are 15°F. and 66 per cent. (lowest for the year). Again at Hambantota the figures are 11°F. and 73 per cent. Anuradhapura has 20°F. in March and 60 per cent. humidity. August and September record 15°F. and 61 per cent., March to June 13°F. and 68 per cent., while November and December 13°F. and 77 per cent.

Temperature analysis of Hill Stations.—Here the effect of relief is significant. The monthly variation is on the average only 5°F. The daily range of temperature is, however, considerable.

Kandy, whose range is 20°F. in March and 12°F. in July, has a low range during the south-west monsoon. Badulla has its greatest range during June to September. These months are dry and the sky is cloud-free. Diyatalawa has a range of 18°F. during the inter monsoonal and south-west monsoonal period. Nuwara Eliya while having the greatest range yearly, of 46.9°F., shows 25°F. in February and 20 to 25°F. in March and April. During the south-west monsoon period it is only 11°F.

RAINFALL

Regional variations are found to be marked. The annual average rainfall map shows a concentration in the south-west quadrant of the Island, and more particularly on the south-west facing slopes of the hill country. From this central tract rainfall diminishes on either side. The north-east north-west and south-east experience rainfall of less than 75 inches. The comparatively low rainfall of two regions within the hill country—the Malpitiya hollow and the Uva basin is due to structural features. Seasonal distribution is widely at variance, owing to the predominance of the south-west monsoon, and to a lesser extent the north-east monsoon. Yet they are two periods of heavy falls.

Ceylon receives rainfall from both south-west and north-east monsoons and is also influenced by convectional rains in the inter-monsoonal periods and also by cyclonic activity.

(*a*) *Convectional Rains* (Inter-Monsoonal rain period). In October rain is widespread and not confined to any particular quarter. The hilly region, however, still receives the highest rainfall. The month is typical of the establishment of equatorial calm conditions. Both temperature and rainfall regimes are characteristic of the Doldrum belt. The type of rainfall received during this period is of the convectional type, which is actually to be expected in an area lying in this latitude. Thus, the normal rainfall is of this type while the monsoonal rains are really disruptions in the normal system. This convectional circulation is the result of the alternative relative warmth of the land and sea breezes respectively which account for the early-morning showers near the coast and the afternoon-showers towards the interior. Thunderstorm activity is characteristic while the air pressure is more or less uniform.

(*b*) *Monsoonal Rains.*—South-west Monsoon Rainfall period (May to September). In May when the monsoonal activity is in its incipient stages the rainfall is confined to the extreme south-west quadrant and especially to the coastal areas.

The south-west slopes of the hill country receive the heaviest fall, 20 to 25 inches owing to the uplift of the monsoon wind by the still dominant convection currents. The uplifted monsoon winds meeting the obstruction of relief deposit their moisture on their south-west slopes.

June.—The monsoon has strengthened and the respective rain ' belts ' having shifted landward towards the hill country, hill stations receive up to 35 inches, while the 5 to 10 inches belt has now constricted itself. On the leeward side the rainfall has fallen to less than 2 inches ; this can be

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attributed to the barrier relief which forces the south-west monsoon winds to yield all the moisture on the hill slopes. The winds, whenever they get across, flow as dry winds on the leeward side, thus lessening the scope for thunderstorm activity.

July.—The rainfall distribution is the same as for June, but now the monsoon is in full force. The highest rainfall belts are confined to the hill country. No convectional activity is present at all. The rainfall on the leeward side is still scanty and below 2 inches.

August.—The monsoon begins to weaken and the rainfall on the leeward side increases (2 to 5 inches) —thus indicating the correlation between monsoon and convectional rainfall. A battling of the two forces to gain dominance may be visualised. As one weakens the other strengthens, and thus convectional activity is re-established.

September.—This is the month of the ' retreating ' monsoon. The rainfall distribution is closely akin to that of May, when the monsoon was just on the ' advance '. By now the monsoon winds begin to fill the depressions in north-west India, blowing towards the low pressure centre of the Thar desert the ' Pot-hole ' of north-west India. Convectional activity thus begins to gain dominance intermittently and heavier rainfall occurs towards the coast. The rainfall on the leeward side during the full force of monsoonal activity may not be due to thunderstorms but to the fact that masses of air or ' air cushions ' can act as barriers to horizontal wind movements. Thus the not totally dry south-west monsoon winds crossing the hilly countries may be forced upwards to higher levels by ascending air masses to yield rain. In November the north-east monsoon begins to set in. The 10 to 15 inches rainfall is now all over the Island save in the arid belt of the north-west and south-west. Again the 15 to 20 inch belt is confined to the north-east coast, the Matale hills and the very high relief of the third peneplane. The cyclonic activity in the south-east may be responsible for the rain in the south-west slopes—for the north-east monsoon is too feeble to travel so far. This month is interesting, more due to the exceptionally heavy rainfall on the lowlands resulting from the passage of depressions originating in the Bay of Bengal and moving south-west to north-west across the Island.

December.—The north-east monsoon is now firmly established and controls the weather conditions. The Matale hills receive 20 to 25 inches of rain and the south-west hills 10 to 15 inches, while the north-eastern coastal belt receives the heaviest fall.

January.—The north-east monsoon has weakened and the 15 to 20 inches belt has shrunk considerably and the rainfall begins to be less localized towards the end of the month.

February and March.—During these two months the weakening and retreating of the north-east monsoon occurs and rainfall is widespread.

April.—Conditions are similar to those in October but there is very much less rain. The weather is calm with thunderstorms and widespread afternoon rain. No area gets over 15 inches.

(*c*) *Cyclonic Rains.*—Though the rainfall of the Island is often explained in terms of convectional and monsoonal varieties, there is yet a further cause. During especially the north-east monsoonal period (November to March) irregular, intensive and sudden falls of rain, much restricted to localised areas in point of time, have been recorded and by a process of *correlation of time and place of such rainfall*, it has been clearly ascertained that these are the result of tropical revolving storms moving over the Island. They probably originate in the Bay of Bengal and move over the Island from about the Mullaitivu-Trincomalee coast, across Vavuniya-Anuradhapura and follow a curvilinear direction towards the north-west coast leaving the Island off the Puttalam-Mannar coast. This belt seems to be the most favoured area for the movements of these storms. However, such storms have passed over the south-west coastal region (*e.g.*, over the Galle-Gintota area in May, 1950, as well). Such rainfall is characterised by its intensity, short period of fall and its sudden lapse accompanied by violent gales.

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CHAPTER IV

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT

I. The Evolution of the Constitution

THE modern constitutional development of Ceylon may be regarded as having commenced with the British occupation of the Island in 1798 and more particularly with the cession of the Kandyan Provinces in 1815, after which the whole Island came under the administration of the British.

The Maritime Provinces were ceded by the Dutch to the British on February 16, 1798. The Government of the Island was at first carried on by the Madras Government since it was not certain whether the Island would be handed over to the Dutch at the conclusion of hostilities. The first Governor of Ceylon was the Honourable Frederick North (later Earl of Guildford) who assumed duties on October 12, 1798, but the former administration continued in that the Governor had to take orders in some matters from the East India Company Officials. This dual control was ended in 1802 when under the terms of the Treaty of Amiens Ceylon became a Crown Colony.

Under the new administration, the Governor was advised by a Council consisting of the Commander-in-Chief, the Chief Justice, the Chief Secretary to the Government and two others. The Governor was, however, not bound to follow the advice of this Council though he would have had to proffer his reasons for his failure to do so to the Secretary of State for the Colonies. This state of affairs continued till the British annexation of the Kandyan Kingdom. There was a suggestion for reforms between the years 1805 to 1812. Sir Alexander Johnston, the Chief Justice, was the chief protagonist ; but his proposals, which included such liberal measures, as the establishment of a Legislative Council with members elected on a territorial basis, a locally recruited civil service and the extension of the Habeas Corpus Act to Ceylon, were regarded as too far reaching and premature for a newly acquired country like Ceylon.

KANDYAN CONVENTION

The next significant event in the constitutional evolution of Ceylon was the British occupation of the Kandyan Kingdom. An Act of Settlement was read at the Kandyan Convention of March 2, 1815, the more important provisions of which included a promise by the British Government, to safeguard the interests of the Buddhist religion, to administer civil and criminal justice over the Kandyans according to the prevailing forms and to permit the various chiefs to exercise their rights and privileges in so far as they did not come into conflict with the new administration. The new acquisitions were placed under a Board, consisting of a British Resident, a Judicial Commissioner, a Revenue Commissioner and the officer commanding the troops with a secretary for the Kandyan Provinces. This arrangement, however, proved to be a failure from the very start both from the point of view of administration and from the economic angle. The introduction of free trade between the maritime and hill country regions infuriated some of the chiefs who lost their revenue and perquisites. The influx of low-country headmen in palanquins—a mode of conveyance which previously used to be only the special preserve of the Kandyan king—was looked upon with irritation by the chieftains of the hill country. These factors contributed to the outbreak of a rebellion in 1817. The British administration in the Kandyan Kingdom was in grave peril and it was with some difficulty that order was restored.

The immediate result of this rebellion was a reform of the administration. The chiefs lost most of the powers that had been secured to them under the Convention. The Kandyan Provinces were placed under the immediate supervision of the Governor who was assisted by a Board of Commissioners.

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COLEBROOKE COMMISSION

In 1829 William Colebrooke was appointed to conduct an investigation into the constitutional and administrative system of the Island. Colebrooke was inspired by a liberal attitude to politics and this led him to recommend a number of important changes in the administrative and constitutional set-up of the country. We are here only interested in the constitutional aspects of the reforms Colebrooke advocated.

He recommended, firstly, the unification of Kandyan and Maritime Provinces on the ground that separation benefited only a minority of chiefs. More important, however, was his proposal to establish an Executive and a Legislative Council. The Executive Council was to consist of a few officials who were to assist the Governor in matters of administration and revenue. The Legislative Council was to be a sort of representative body consisting of nine official members and six unofficial members. The latter's main responsibility was to ensure that there was sufficient discussion on all public matters before any decision was arrived at by the Government. The unfortunate feature in this new system was that election was completely ruled out ; nomination would result in the appointment of the Governor's men ; even if the unofficials turned out to be hostile to the Government, the latter would be assured of a safe majority as a result of the presence of the nine officials. With all these defects the Colebrooke reforms established in Ceylon the beginnings of representative government. With the establishment of an independent press and the spread of education, together with the increasing participation of Ceylonese in commerce and trade, there developed an insistent demand for further reforms. Concessions were made by the Colonial authorities. But the pattern remained practically the same.

THE REFORMS OF 1910

As a result of persistent agitation, a substantial measure of reforms was granted in 1910. The Legislative Council was remodelled so as to consist of twenty-one members, eleven officials and ten unofficials. Of the ten unofficials, four were to be elected while the six others were to be nominated to represent the various communities, not according to their relative population strengths but on a rather arbitrary basis. However, an important advance was made in that the unofficial majority was reduced to one. Yet the principle of nomination tended to minimise the prospect of any serious embarrassment to the Government, while at the same time the European community which had been in the vanguard of the reform movement in earlier times began to now show less and less interest in the constitutional progress of the Island. A start had, however, been made in the introduction of the elective principle, and this led the educated middle class to demand for a greater measure of reform, especially, reform that would progressively lead towards the realisation of dominion status.

REFORMS OF 1920 AND 1924

The next stage was the reforms of 1920–1924. The war, the riots and the formation of a nationalist Ceylonese organisation, called the Ceylon National Congress, contributed towards the decision of the British Government to grant fresh instalment of reforms. In 1920 the Secretary of State for the Colonies secured the reconstitution of the Legislative Council. For the first time there was to be an unofficial majority. In a Council of thirty-seven members there were twenty-three unofficials, eleven of whom were to be elected on a territorial basis and five to represent special constituencies. In addition the Executive Council was to have in it for the first time three unofficials. But the Governor yet continued to wield immense powers. He had the emergency power to declare that a measure was of paramount importance and carry it through with the votes of the official members. He had the further important power to stop the proceedings of the Council.

There was, however, much opposition to these reforms and to meet this in 1924 further changes of a minor nature were effected. The Legislative Council was reconstituted so as to consist of twelve official members and thirty-four elected members of whom twenty-three were to represent territorial constituencies. Communal representation continued, in that six members were to be elected to represent the European, the Burghers and the Western Province Tamil interests, while five were

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to be nominated to represent Muslim and Indian interests. The Governor retained the important power of declaring any measure of paramount importance. In such an event only the votes of the ex-officio members and the nominated officials would be taken into consideration. The Executive Council was also broadened so as to consist of four unofficials.

These reforms did not work satisfactorily, chiefly for the reason that the Executive Council was paralysed by the control which the Legislative Council exercised over finance. The members of the Legislative Council denied of responsibility tended to act in a manner which proved embarrassing to the Government.

THE DONOUGHMORE CONSTITUTION

These defects led the Governor Sir Hugh Clifford to recommend the appointment of a special Commission to investigate into the working of the constitution and to consider the feasibility of introducing any worthwhile reforms which might correct existing evils. The Commission came out to Ceylon in 1927 under the Earl of Donoughmore and it recommended a unique type of consitution.

The Commissioners were quick to discover that the fundamental defects of the Legislative Council was that its members enjoyed power without responsibility. It had been relegated to a permanent state of opposition with the result that members far from assisting in the smooth working of the Governmental process, resorted to petty methods of irresponsible obstruction and criticism. The Commissioners, therefore, recommended a scheme which attempted to combine a certain measure of power with responsibility. For this they entrusted the representative Council with control over administrative and legislative matters. They were further desirous of giving the unofficial members a training in administration and with this in view they recommended that the new Council should be grouped into seven executive committees, each of which was to be in charge of certain departments of state. The committees were to elect their own chairmen and each of the chairmen would be the minister in charge of the departments entrusted to their respective executive committees. As for the franchise, for the first time in this country's history universal adult franchise was conferred on every person over twenty-one years of age. Above all, the most salutary feature of the new proposals was the decision to abolish the system of communal representation. There was only a provision for the Governor to nominate certain members to represent certain interests he felt had failed to gain sufficient representation in a future Council which was to be elected on a territorial basis. These were indeed the more heartening aspects of the Donoughmore Constitution. There were however certain other provisions which had in them the instruments of imperial control. The Governor continued to retain the power of veto though he would have to exercise these in the future only when the decisions of the State Council were such as to conflict with the Royal Instructions. The Governor had further the power to refer back any specific item to the Council for further consideration or suspend the operation of a bill for a certain period of time. Above all control over the most important departments of state such as finance, justice and the public service were to be vested in three officials who were to be members of the State Council, participate in its proceedings but take no part in the voting. Their presence was to be a source of annoyance and embarrasment to the elected chairmen of the executive committees.

There was widespread dissatisfaction with the Donoughmore reforms, so widespread that it was only accepted by a majority of two. In fact, scarcely had the constitution been promulgated, than there was a demand for reform. A landmark in this Reforms Movement was the despatch of the Governor, Sir Andrew Caldecott. In this he alluded to the numerous defects of the Executive Committee system and in its place recommended a modified form of Cabinet government. In particular he pointed out to the deadening and paralysing nature of the Executive Committee system. There was no co-ordinating or driving influence behind the Governmental process. The Board, he stated, merely wielded the blue pencil in the matter of finance but did not mould the budget. There was much dissatisfaction and chaos in the public service particularly as public servants had to serve in a dual capacity—take orders from the Chief Secretary on the one hand and submit to humiliating inquisitions from members of the various executive committees on the other hand.

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SOULBURY COMMISSION

The outbreak of war resulted in no action being taken on the Reforms Despatch of Governor-Caldecott. Later, however, with Japan's entry into the war, the necessity to ensure Ceylon's whole hearted co-operation in the war effort led the Secretary of State for the Colonies to declare that His Majesty's Government wished to renew their pledge that when victory was won the question of constitutional reforms would immediately be re-examined. On September 20, 1944, it was announced that His Majesty had decided to appoint a commission consisting of Lord Soulbury, Sir J. F. Rees and Sir F. J. Borrows. The Commission visited Ceylon, conducted investigations and recommended a series of reforms which gave Ceylon a large measure of control over her internal affairs. External Affairs and Defence were, however, to be in the hands of the imperial authorities. Further, certain important bills were to be reserved by the Governor-General for the signification of His Majesty's pleasure. These included bills relating to Defence or External Affairs, any bill of an extraordinary or unusual nature and any bill which was likely to cause any serious injustice to any community or religion.

The Parliament of Ceylon was to consist of two houses—the House of Representatives consisting of 101 members, ninety-five of whom were to be elected while the other six were to be appointed by the Governor-General, and the Senate consisting of thirty members half of whom were to be elected by members of the lower house by means of a system of proportional representation through the medium of the single transferable vote while the other half were to be appointed by the Governor-General in his discretion.

The Board of Ministers would be replaced by a Cabinet responsible to the Legislature. The Governor-General was to appoint the Prime Minister while the other Ministers would be appointed by the Governor-General on the advice of the Prime Minister. The Prime Minister in addition to his other duties would be in charge of Defence and External Affairs.

There was, however, keen disappointment over the Soulbury reforms, particularly as the British Government had offered self-government both to India and Burma. An opportunity to put forward Ceylon's claims arose when the Secretary of State for Colonies invited the Leader of the State Council, Mr. D. S. Senanayake to London for consultations. Mr. Senanayake made use of the opportunity to press Ceylon's claims for dominion status and, as a result, succeeded in obtaining a White Paper from the British Government containing a declaration of the policy of the Government. The White Paper modified the Soulbury proposals to a considerable extent, especially where the life of the upper house was concerned, in the reserved powers of the Governor, in Shipping and in the Public Services. These important modifications led the State Council to accept the new constitution by an overwhelming majority. Under the Ceylon Constitution Order-in-Council the only limitations that were imposed on self-government were the reserved power on legislation and the power to reserve bills for the Royal Assent.

The Soulbury Constitution was, however, one of the shortest lived constitutions on record. On June 18, 1947, the Governor summoned a meeting of the State Council and announced the decision of His Majesty's Government to make Ceylon a dominion. There are four important documents which brought about this change of status. They are the Ceylon Independence Act, 1947, the Defence Agreement, the External Affairs Agreement and the Public Officers Agreement.

INDEPENDENCE ACT

The Independence Act extended to Ceylon the powers of a dominion under the Statute of Westminster. Under the Defence Agreement the United Kingdom agreed to provide Ceylon with such military assistance as she may from time to time require while Ceylon on her part agreed to give the United Kingdom ' such military assistance for the security of its territory, for defence against external aggression and for the protection of essential communication as it may be in the mutual interest of the two Governments to provide '. For this purpose, Ceylon will provide the United Kingdom with naval and military bases as the latter may require.

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Under the External Affairs Agreement Ceylon comes into the system of consultation which prevails among Commonwealth countries. The United Kingdom will keep Ceylon fully informed of what is happening in the field of foreign relations while Ceylon on her part will keep the other members of the Commonwealth informed of the foreign commitments she proposes to undertake.

The Public Officers Agreement provides for the protection of public servants. Officers who were appointed by the Secretary of State or who had entered into agreements with the Crown Agents would be protected in their conditions of service. They would be granted the option to retire under the new constitution with suitable compensation for loss of career unless they are transferred to another post in the colonial service. They will henceforth cease to be under the Colonial Office. The developments have made Ceylon a fully independent country within the British Commonwealth of Nations. The Ceylon Parliament, which is a sovereign Legislature, consists of the Governor-General, the House of Representatives and the Senate. The Governor-General is the representative of the King and he will be appointed on the advice of the Prime Minister. Further, section 4 (2) of the Ceylon Independence Order of 1947 provides that ' all powers, authorities and functions vested in his Majesty or the Governor-General shall, subject to the provisions of his Order and of any other law for time being in force, be exercised as far as may be in accordance with the constitutional conventions applicable to the exercise of similar powers, authorities and functions in the United Kingdom by His Majesty, provided that no act or omission on the part of the Governor-General shall be called in question in any court of law or otherwise on the ground that the foregoing provisions of this sub-section have been complied with '.

II. The Machinery of Government

Ceylon to-day possesses a broad based democratic government after the British pattern. Its position is that of an independent nation within the British Commonwealth enjoying the same status as the other Dominions.

LAW OF THE CONSTITUTION

The fundamental law embodying the constitution is contained in an Act of Parliament and a number of Orders-in-Council, viz :—

The Ceylon Independence Act, 1947.
The Ceylon Independence (commencement) Order in Council, 1947.
The Ceylon Independence Order in Council, 1947.
The Ceylon (Constitution) Order in Council, 1946.
The Ceylon (Constitution) (Amendment) Order in Council, 1947.
The Ceylon (Constitution) (Amendment No. 2) Order in Council, 1947.
The Ceylon (Constitution) (Amendment No. 3) Order in Council, 1947.

THE GOVERNOR-GENERAL

The Governor-General is appointed by the King as his representative in Ceylon. All powers, authorities and functions vested in His Majesty or the Governor-General are, subject to the provisions of the constitutional law, to be exercised as far as may be in accordance with the constitutional conventions applicable to the exercise in the United Kingdom by His Majesty. The Governor-General receives a salary of £8,000 a year, which is a charge against the Consolidated Fund.

PARLIAMENT OF CEYLON

The Ceylon Parliament consists of two Houses, the House of Representatives and the Senate.

The House of Representatives is elected on a wide franchise, every adult citizen of Ceylon being entitled to the vote. The representation has been so arranged as to enable every community and interest to have its voice heard in Parliament.

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The first delimitation of the constituencies under the new Constitution was carried out by a Commission. Each Province of the Island was divided into electoral districts, the total number of which is specified in the Order in Council and the aggregate of which totals ninety-five for the whole Island. Each electoral district of a Province has, as far as possible, an equal number of persons subject to a proviso relating to the transport facilities, physical features and community or diversity of interest of the inhabitants of the Province. The electoral districts have, however, been demarcated so as to render possible the representation of minorities united by the tie of race, by the tie of religion, or by any other tie.

Where, after any general election the Governor-General is satisfied that any important interest in the Island is not represented, he may appoint any persons not exceeding six in number, to be Members of the House of Representatives.

The Senate consists of thirty members of whom fifteen are elected by the House of Representatives and fifteen by the Governor-General. One-third of the Senators retire every second year. The House of Representatives consists of 101 members, ninety-five of whom are elected and six are nominated.

The Constitution provides that the House of Representatives shall choose a Speaker, a Deputy Speaker and Chairman of Committees, and a Deputy Chairman of Committees. The Senate at its first meeting shall elect two Senators to be respectively the President and the Deputy President and Chairman of Committees.

POWERS OF PARLIAMENT

Parliament has power to make laws for the peace, order and good government of the Island. It has no power to make laws to :

(*a*) prohibit or restrict the free exercise of any religion ; or

(*b*) make persons of any community or religion liable to disabilities or restrictions to which persons of other communities or religions are not made liable ; or

(*c*) confer on persons of any community or religion any privilege or advantage which is not conferred on persons of other communities or religions ; or

(*d*) alter the Constitution of any religious body except with the consent of the governing authority of that body.

A Bill, other than Money Bill, may be introduced in either the House of Representatives or the Senate. A Money Bill may not be introduced in the Senate. Money Bill is a Public Bill which contains only provisions dealing with taxation, public expenditure or Government loans.

THE CABINET

The general direction and control of the Government of the Island are vested in the Cabinet of Ministers who are collectively responsible to Parliament. The Prime Minister is the Head of the Cabinet.

The Prime Minister is also in charge of the Ministry of Defence and External Affairs in addition to such other matters as he may decide to retain in his charge. Every other Minister shall be charged with the administration of such subjects and functions as may be assigned to him by the Prime Minister. Not less than two Ministers, one of whom shall be the Minister of Justice, must come from the Senate.

The Prime Minister is the leader of the largest party or group in the House of Representatives and he is appointed by the Governor-General. The other Ministers are appointed by the Governor-General on the advice of the Prime Minister. The number of Ministers is not fixed and in Ceylon's first Cabinet there are fourteen including the Prime Minister.

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Parliamentary Secretaries are appointed from the Senate and House of Representatives by the Governor-General on the advice of the Prime Minister, to assist the Ministers in the exercise of their parliamentary and departmental duties. Another purpose of appointing Parliamentary Secretaries is to give training to the younger members of both Houses in the handling of public business.

The Ministers of the Government are :

Prime Minister (Defence and External Affairs).
Health and Local Government.
Industries, Industrial Research and Fisheries.
Home Affairs and Rural Development.
Education.
Labour and Social Services.
Finance.
Transport and Works.
Justice.
Food and Co-operative Undertakings.
Agriculture and Lands.
Posts and Telecommunications.
Commerce and Trade.
Minister of State.

The following table shows the Ministers, Parliamentary Secretaries of the present administration and also Speaker, the Deputy Speaker and Chairman of Committees and the Deputy Chairman of Committees :—

THE HON. SIR FRANCIS MOLAMURE*	Speaker
ALBERT F. PERIES	Deputy Speaker and Chairman of Committees
H. S. ISMAIL, M.B.E.	Deputy Chairman of Committees
THE RT. HON. D. S. SENANAYAKE	Prime Minister and Minister of Defence and External Affairs
THE HON. MR. S. W. R. D. BANDARANAIKE	Minister of Health and Local Government and Leader of the House
THE HON. SIR OLIVER GOONETILLEKE, K.C.M.G., K.B.E.	Minister of Home Affairs and Rural Development
THE HON. DR. L. A. RAJAPAKSE, K.C.	Minister of Justice
THE HON. MR. H. W. AMARASURIYA	Minister of Commerce and Trade
THE HON. MR. A. E. GOONESINHA	Minister of State
THE HON. MR. M. D. BANDA	Minister of Labour and Social Services
THE HON. MR. J. R. JAYEWARDENE	Minister of Finance
THE HON. SIR JOHN KOTELAWALA, K.B.E.	Minister of Transport and Works
THE HON. MR. E. A. NUGAWELA	Minister of Education
THE HON. MR. G. G. PONNAMBALAM, K.C.	Minister of Industries, Industrial Research and Fisheries
THE HON. MR. A. RATNAYAKE	Minister of Food and Co-operative Undertakings

* Sir Francis Molamure died on January 25, 1951, and Mr. Albert F. Peries was elected Speaker in his place. Mr. H. S. Ismail was elected Deputy Speaker and Chairman of Committees.

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THE HON. MR. DUDLEY SENANAYAKE	Minister of Agriculture and Lands
THE HON. MR. C. SITTAMPALAM	Minister of Posts and Telecommunications
MAJOR MONTAGUE JAYAWICKREME	Parliamentary Secretary to the Minister of Labour and Social Services
P. B. BULANKULAME DISSAWE, M.B.E.	Parliamentary Secretary to the Minister of Agriculture and Lands
G. R. DE SILVA	Parliamentary Secretary to the Minister of Justice
A. P. JAYASURIYA	Parliamentary Secretary to the Minister of Posts and Telecommunications
K. KANAGARATNAM	Parliamentary Secretary to the Minister of Education
H. R. U. PREMACHANDRA	Parliamentary Secretary to the Minister of Home Affairs and Rural Development
V. NALLIAH	Parliamentary Secretary to the Minister of Health and Local Government
R. G. SENANAYAKE	Parliamentary Secretary to the Minister of Defence and Externa Affairs
H. DE Z. SIRIWARDANA	Parliamentary Secretary to the Minister of Industries, Industrial Research and Fisheries

FUNCTIONS OF MINISTRIES AND DEPARTMENTS OF GOVERNMENT

A Permanent Secretary, subject to the general direction and control of his Minister, supervises the Department or Departments of Government in the charge of his Minister. When a decision has been taken it is his business to carry it out with all possible energy and skill. The Minister takes responsibility for his Department's acts. He submits to the Cabinet any decision which may have political implications.

Defence and External Affairs.—These departments concerned with Defence and External Affairs are in the special charge of the Prime Minister. In external Affairs the Ministry seeks to maintain friendly relations between Ceylon and foreign countries and to protect Ceylon citizens and their property abroad. The Ministry supervises the work of the Ambassadors, High Commissioners, Ministers, Trade Commissioners, and Consuls abroad.

It makes and enforces treaties and other agreements with foreign countries.

It issues passports to citizens of Ceylon who wish to travel abroad.

It arranges for the reception of foreign Ambassadors, High Commissioners, and Ministers. It helps to decide whether a foreign Government should be recognized by the Government of Ceylon.

It gathers information about economic, political and social conditions in foreign countries.

The Ministry is also in charge of the Ceylon Army, the Ceylon Naval Force and the Air Force and in general all defence matters.

The Police Department is under the same Ministry.

Finance.—The Ministry of Finance manages the finances of the country. It scrutinises the draft estimates of the Annual Appropriation Bill, collects taxes, pays bills and debts of the Government, supervises public expenditure, borrows money, when necessary, and safeguards the currency through financial institutions under its control.

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The Ministry of Finance under which the Treasury functions, is also responsible for Establishments and salary scales of Government Servants. The departments under the Ministry are :

Treasury
Income Tax Department
Customs
Department of Census and Statistics
Information Department
Exchange Control Department
Government Press
Stores Department
Widows' and Orphans' Pension Office

Justice.—The subjects and functions of the Ministry of Justice include the administration of courts of justice (other than the Supreme Court), criminal prosecutions and civil proceedings on behalf of the Government, drafting of legislation and legal advice to public departments.

The departments under the Ministry of Justice are :

Attorney-General's Department
Public Trustee's Department
Legal Draftsman's Department
Custodian of Enemy Property
Compensation Claims
District Courts
Magistrates' Courts
Rural Courts
Fiscal's Department

Home Affairs and Rural Development.—The Ministry of Home Affairs and Rural Development is in charge of provincial administration, prisons and probation services and parliamentary elections, among other duties of a varied nature. It has under it :—

Government Agencies
Excise
Prisons and Probation
Rural Development
Registrar-General
Government Analyst
Department of Parliamentary Elections

Agriculture and Lands.—The responsibility of the Ministry of Agriculture and Lands concerns food production and other forms of agriculture, the custody of Crown land, the development and maintenance of irrigation, colonization and land settlement, the conservation, development and exploitation of forests, flood protection, animal husbandry and veterinary services, game sanctuaries, and elephant kraals. The Ministry has the following departments :—

Agriculture
Land Settlement
Survey
Forest
Irrigation
Meteorology
Land Development
Wild Life
Land Commissioner's Department
Tea Control
Rubber Control
Valuation
Agricultural Corps

Health and Local Government.—The Ministry of Health and Local Government has two important divisions, *i.e.* (*a*) medical and sanitary services, and (*b*) local government. It is responsible for the State health services, and control of hospitals, maternity homes, medical education and research and medical inspection of schools. It conducts health units and promotes health education.

The Ministry has a general supervision of local bodies including municipal councils, urban councils, town councils, and village committees. The departments under the Ministry are :—

Medical and Sanitary Services
Local Government
Quarantine
Indigenous Medicine
Town and Country Planning
Elections (Local Bodies)

Industries, Industrial Research and Fisheries.—The Ministry of Industries, Industrial Research and Fisheries has, among its other functions, the development and control of industries. The departments under the Ministry are :—

Industries
Mineralogical
Salt [1]
Fisheries

1 Now forms part of the Department of Industries.

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Posts and Telecommunications.—The principal functions of the postal department is to maintain inexpensive and efficient public means of communication through the postal and telecommunication services. It is also responsible for broadcasting and the National Savings Movement. The departments under the Ministry are :—

Post and Telegraph
Broadcasting
National Savings

Transport and Works.—The Ministry has, among its subjects and functions, public works, Government roads and buildings, inland waterways, railways, ports, civil aviation, motor transport, electrical undertakings and habour oil installations. The departments concerned are :—

Public Works
Port Commission
Railway
Civil Aviation
Motor Transport
Electrical Undertakings
Salvage

Commerce and Trade.—The duties of the Ministry are promoting and developing the Island's commerce generally. It is concerned with tourism, trade exhibitions, agricultural marketing, export and import control, copyright, patents, trade marks, business names, weights and measures, merchant shipping, registration of accountants and other commercial matters. The departments under the Ministry are :—

Commerce
Government Tourist Bureau
Registrar of Companies
Tea Commissioner
Rubber Commissioner
Commodity Purchase
Control of Imports and Exports
Marketing

Education.—The Ministry of Education has under its jurisdiction schools, training colleges, art galleries, and museums. The departments under the Ministry are :—

Education
National Museums
Government Archivist's Department
Archaeological Department
Technical College

Labour and Social Services.—The Ministry of Labour and Social Services concerns itself with conditions, wages, and hours of work of labour. Its functions include inspection of mines and factories and working places and protecting and safeguarding of workers, unemployment, workmen's compensation, poor relief, industrial disputes and social welfare. It has three departments :—

Labour
Social Services
Employment Bureau

Food and Co-operative Undertakings.—The food supply and distribution are handled by the departments under the Ministry of Food. The co-operative movement comes within its jurisdiction. The departments under the Ministry are those of :—

The Food Commissioner (Control and Distribution)
The Food Commissioner (Supplies)
Co-operative Development
Registrar of Co-operative Societies

III. Local Government

With the inauguration of the Donoughmore Constitution for the Island in July, 1931, an Executive Committee of Local Administration was elected by the State Council to supervise, control and develop Local Government, and a Department of Local Government under the Commissioner of

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Local Government was created as the executive instrument of the Committee. From October, 1947 under the new Constitution these duties devolved on the Minister of Health and Local Government and the Department continued to function under him. The local duties with regard to sanitation, public health, public thoroughfares and generally the protection and promotion of the comfort, convenience and welfare of the people are entrusted to local authorities whose members are now all elected representatives of the people, there being no members nominated by the Governor as formerly.

MUNICIPAL COUNCILS

In Colombo, Kandy, Galle, Jaffna, Kurunegala, Nuwara Eliya and Negombo there are Municipal Councils ; the latter four of these were formerly Urban Councils. Jaffna, Kurunegala and Nuwara Eliya were granted Municipal Status from January 1, 1949, and Negombo from January 1, 1950. Councillors are elected in accordance with the provisions of the Local Authorities Elections Ordinance No. 53 of 1946. The Mayor is elected annually from among the Councillors and is not a Civil Servant as formerly.

URBAN COUNCILS

Until the end of 1932 in eleven towns there were Urban District Councils with elected Chairmen, two-thirds of the members being elected by the rate-payers and one-third being nominated by the Governor (of these Urban Councils two were converted into Municipalities as from January 1, 1949, and one from January 1, 1950). On the recommendation of the then Executive Committee of Local Administration, sixteen more Urban Councils were established from January 1, 1933, ten in place of the Local Boards of Health and Sanitary Boards and one in place of the Board of Improvement of Nuwara Eliya. (The Nuwara Eliya Urban Council was granted Municipal Status from 1949). Thirteen more Sanitary Board Towns were converted into eleven Urban Councils as from January 1, 1945, and another as from January 1, 1947. A part of a Village Committee area was also converted into an Urban Council from January 1, 1948. These Councils are now known as Urban Councils and not as Urban District Councils. In January, 1950, there were thirty-six Urban Councils.

Groups of smaller towns known as Sanitary Board Towns were administered by Sanitary Boards of various districts consisting of the Government Agent or Assistant Government Agent as Chairman, two local officers of the Public Health Department and the Public Works Department and not more than four, nor less than two members nominated by the Governor, until the abolition of this system of administration with effect from December 31, 1946. These towns were either converted into Urban Councils, Town Councils or brought under the jurisdiction of Village Committees.

TOWN COUNCILS

A new Ordinance, the Town Councils Ordinance, No. 3 of 1946, was enacted and a new form of Local Authority, the Town Council, has been established with effect from January 1, 1947. Twenty-four Town Councils have been constituted, twenty of which prior to January 1, 1947, formed twenty-one Sanitary Boards. Parts of two Village Committee areas were converted into two Town Councils while a section of an Urban Council formed another Town Council. The only small town—Minuwangoda—which was administered by a Local Board of Health and Improvement was also converted into a Town Council. Parts of five more Village Committee areas were converted into five Town Councils thus increasing the number of Town Councils to twenty-nine from January 1, 1949. Four more Town Councils were constituted from January 1, 1950 (which were formerly parts of Village Committees), bringing the total number of Town Councils to thirty-three.

In the rural areas, the Local Authorities are the Village Committees each of which comprises groups of villages. These groups are divided into wards, each of which elects one member. The members elect their own Chairman and Vice-Chairman, an Ordinance having been passed in 1932 precluding officials from being ex-officio Chairmen.

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VILLAGE COMMITTEES

There are 400 Village Committees in the Island. Elections to these Village Committees held hitherto under the provisions of the Village Communities Ordinance (Chapter 198) by summoning a meeting of the voters of each ward for the election of a member to that ward have changed with the passing of the Local Authorities Elections Ordinance, No. 53 of 1946. The provisions of this Ordinance for the purpose of elections have since been made applicable to some Village Committees—the procedure adopted in the conduct of elections being similar to that obtaining in respect of elections to other Local Bodies, viz., Municipalities, Urban Councils and Town Councils. In course of time all elections to Village Committees will be held under the provisions of this Ordinance.

These Village Committees were established by Ordinance No. 26 of 1871 to deal with rural affairs. The Principal Ordinance under which they are now dealt with is the Village Communities Ordinance (Chapter 198). The Village Committees are now vested with powers approximating to those of Urban Councils.

The Village Communities Ordinance has been amended by Ordinance No. 60 and 61 of 1938 ; 11, 24, and 31 of 1940 ; 11 and 50 of 1941 ; 54 of 1942 ; 58 of 1943 ; 44 of 1944 ; 12 and 13 of 1945 and 17 of 1947. Some of the important changes effected by these amending Ordinances are the constitution of Village Committees as corporate bodies with perpetual succession and power to hold property, the taxation of land, and the conversion of certain small towns administered under the Small Towns Sanitary Ordinance, to Village Commitee jurisdiction.

With the initiation of the Gal-oya Scheme under the Gal-oya Development Board Act, No. 51 of 1949, the undeveloped areas falling within the area of the scheme will generally be controlled by the Gal-oya Development Board. In pursuance of this policy one Village Committee and the major parts of two other Village Committees will be taken over by the Board. In addition seventeen Village Committees will give over their undeveloped areas to the Board. In developed areas the normal machinery of Government will continue to operate, the Board acting, except as regards control of irrigation water, more as a correlating than an executive authority.

The Community Centre movement, essentially voluntary in character, came into being in 1945 to afford opportunities for people in rural areas to get together for physical and mental recreation and develop among them a corporate sense by means of organized activities, such as music, art, drama, sports, light reading, &c., which would broaden their outlook, remove boredom and make their life fuller. Community Centres receive grants from Government through the Village Committees. These grants can be utilized for purchase of sports equipment, books, wireless sets, &c. There are at present about 2,000 Community Centres in the Island recognized for purpose of grant from the Central Government.

The Local Government (Administrative Regulations) Ordinance, No. 57 of 1946, was brought into operation on February 1, 1947. This Ordinance provides for the devolution of the greater part of the powers, functions and duties hitherto exercised by the Revenue Officers in their districts on the Regional Assistants of the Commissioner of Local Government. There are ten regions, each in charge of an Assistant Commissioner of Local Government.

CENTRAL GOVERNMENT GRANTS

Financial assistance is given by the Central Government towards housing schemes in local body areas by way of outright grants. A sum of Rs. 2,000,000 was allocated to various local bodies in the year 1948–49 under this scheme. Major housing schemes, the entire cost of which is borne by the Central Government are also undertaken in Urban and Municipal towns by the Central Government and in the year 1948–49 a sum of Rs. 5,032,500 was provided for such schemes. The cost of water supply schemes, save the distribution system within the administrative area of a local body, is met by the Central Government. Grants amounting to Rs. 2,499,050 and Rs. 452,300 were awarded to Village Committees for village works and wells respectively, during 1948–49. Block grants amounting to Rs. 2,110,384 to meet the enhanced cost of administration, and grants in lieu of abolished local revenue amounting to Rs. 2,735,671 were paid to Local Bodies during 1948–49.

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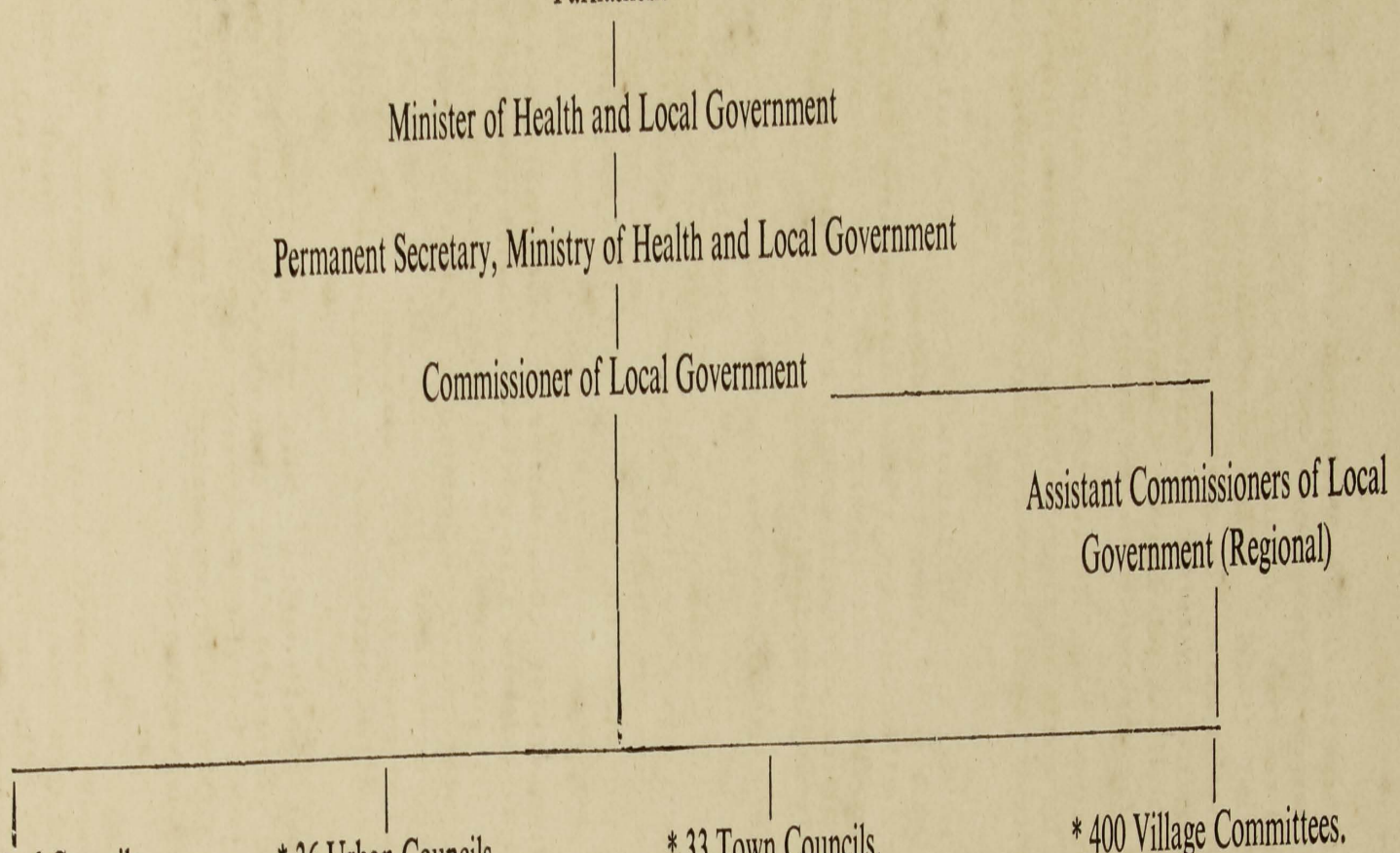
Chart of the present Local Government structure of Ceylon*



* As at January 1, 1950.

The Local Government Ordinances of Ceylon confer on the local authorities powers and duties mainly in regard to public health and sanitation, public thoroughfares and public utility services. Generally the protection and promotion of the comfort, convenience and welfare of the people and the development of amenities of local authorities are their responsibility.

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IV. Provincial Administration

Matters affecting local areas and not within the competence of Local Government units are looked after by a system of Provincial Administration directed by the Central Government. For this purpose the Island is divided into nine provinces and nineteen revenue districts, which are shown in the following table :—

Provinces	*Districts*	*Provinces*	*Districts*
Western	Colombo	Eastern	Batticaloa
	Kalutara		Trincomalee
Central	Kandy	North-Western	Kurunegala
	Matale		Puttalam-Chilaw
	Nuwara Eliya		
Southern	Galle	North-Central	Anuradhapura
	Matara	Uva	Badulla
	Hambantota		
Northern	Jaffna	Sabaragamuwa	Ratnapura
	Mannar		Kegalla
	Vavuniya		

GOVERNMENT AGENTS

To the Government Agents is entrusted the work of provincial administration. They also hold a number of other official positions. They are subject to the control of the Ministry of Home Affairs and Rural Development but perform certain functions for other Ministries which have no regional organisation for those purposes. The principal functions performed for other Ministries are land administration and the execution of Government's policy of land development for the Ministry of Agriculture and Lands and the administration of public assistance and schemes for relief of distress due to unemployment, failure of crops or other causes, on behalf of the Ministry of Labour and Social Services. Their offices which are known as Kachcheries are the provincial treasuries for the receipt of revenue and the payment of the local expenses of Government.

The Headquarters office of the province is the Provincial Kachcheri which is in the Government Agent's charge while the office of the sub-division is the District Kachcheri which is in an Assistant Government Agent's charge. Besides the Assistant who is in charge of the sub-division known as a District most Government Agents have a Headquarters Assistant.

HEADMEN SYSTEM

The officer next sub-ordinate to the Government Agent or the Assistant Government Agent is the Divisional Revenue Officer or the Chief Headman. Very few Chief Headmen are in service as it is the policy of Government to replace them and appoint Divisional Revenue Officers in their stead.

The Chief Headman was differently styled in different districts ' Mudaliyar ' in the Maritime Sinhalese Districts, ' Rate Mahatmaya ' in the Kandyan Districts ; ' Maniagar ', ' Adigar ' and ' Vanniah ' in the Tamil Districts. There are at present 101 Divisional Revenue Officers and seven Chief Headmen in service.

Next to the Divisional Revenue Officer or Chief Headman ranks the Superior Headman called in the Maritime Sinhalese districts ' Vidane Aratchchi ', in the Kandyan districts ' Korala ', and in the Tamil districts ' Udaiyar '. These posts are being gradually suppressed and at present only 160 remain.

Lastly comes the Village Headman, who is in charge of one or more villages. The area assigned to a Village Headman is the smallest unit of administration in Provincial Administration. There are Peace Officers, Irrigation Headmen and others appointed for special purposes.

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V. Diplomatic Representation

(*a*) REPRESENTATIVES OF CEYLON ABROAD

Ceylon Embassy in Washington	*His Majesty's Ambassador for the Dominion of Ceylon in the United States of America*—HIS EXCELLENCY MR. G. C. S. COREA *Counsellor of Embassy*—W. D. GUNARATNE, C.C.S. *Secretary of Embassy*—G. S. PEIRIS, C.C.S. (SECOND SECRETARY)
High Commissioner of Ceylon in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland	*High Commissioner*—HIS EXCELLENCY MR. E. A. P. WIJEYERATNE *Deputy High Commissioner*—V. COOMARASWAMY, C.M.G., C.C.S. *Trade Commissioner*—C. E. P. JAYASURIYA, C.C.S. *Secretary*—H. O. WIJEGOONEWARDENE *Staff Officer (Commerce)*—R. C. S. KOELMEYER *Staff Officer (Statistics)*—V. E. SANTIAPILLAI
High Commissioner of Ceylon in Australia	*High Commissioner*—HIS EXCELLENCY MR. J. AUBREY MARTENSZ *Secretary*—S. CRUSE
High Commissioner of Ceylon in India	*High Commissioner*—HIS EXCELLENCY MR. C. COOMARASWAMY, C.B.E. *Secretary*—M. R. PERERA Y. DURAISWAMY
Minister Plenipotentiary and Envoy Extraordinary of the Government of Ceylon in Burma	*Minister*—HIS EXCELLENCY MR. SUSANTA DE FONSEKA *Secretary*—A. BASNAYAKE
Trade Representative	*Trade Commissioner for Ceylon in India**—ANNESLEY DE SILVA *Secretary*—G. A. FERNANDO
High Commissioner of Ceylon in Pakistan	*High Commissioner*—HIS EXCELLENCY MR. T. B. JAYAH *Secretary*—Y. YOGASUNDARAM
The Commissioner for Ceylon in Singapore and the Federation of Malaya	*Commissioner*—M. SARAVANAMUTTU
Consul-General for Ceylon in Indonesia	*Consul-General*—DR. C. W. W. KANNANGARA

(*b*) REPRESENTATIVES OF OTHER COUNTRIES IN CEYLON

I. *Diplomatic Representatives*

Australia	(Vacant), *High Commissioner* A. H. BORTHWICK, *Official Secretary* Gaffoor Building, Colombo 1
Burma	HIS EXCELLENCY U. TINT SWE, *Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary* U. MAUNG MAUNG TOE, *Second Secretary and Consul* U. TIN HLINE, *Third Secretary* 75, Maya Avenue, Colombo 6
France	HIS EXCELLENCY LE BARON LIONEL PINOTEAU, *Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary* M. ARMAND GANDON, *Counsellor* M. MICHAEL SIELLEZ, *Vice-Counsellor* M. ANDRE MOITESSIER, *Commercial Counsellor resident in New Delhi* A. DAHOUI, *First Secretary and Consul de Carriere* H. COURDIER, *Chancellor, French Legation* ANDRE MOITESSIER, *Commercial Adviser* 10, Prince Street, Colombo 1
Italy	G. B. TOFFAH, *Charge 'd Affaires ad interim, Italian Legation*

* This post was abolished with effect from January, 1951 ; its functions being taken over by the High Commissioner of Ceylon in India.

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India	HIS EXCELLENCY MR. K. P. KESAVA MENON, *High Commissioner* N. E. S. RAGHAVACHARI, I.C.S., *First Secretary* B. K. MASSAND, I.F.S., *Commercial Secretary* KANTILAL DALAL, I.F.S., *Third Secretary* K. S. PILLAI, *Third Secretary* E. K. SRINIVASAN, *Passport Officer* Gaffoor Building, Colombo 1
Sweden	HIS EXCELLENCY GUNNER JARRING, *Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary (resident in New Delhi)*
U. K.	HIS EXCELLENCY SIR WALTER HANKINSON, K.C.M.G., O.B.E., M.C., *High Commissioner* M. R. METCALF, O.B.E., *Deputy High Commissioner* B. R. CURSON, *Senior Secretary* C. E. THOROGOOD, *Economic Adviser and Principal Trade Commissioner* BRIG. C. R. MAJOR, *Security Liaison Officer* LT.-COMMANDER R. D. WALL, R.N. (RETIRED), *Information Officer* T. J. O'BRIEN, *Assistant Secretary* R. C. COX, *Passport Officer* Prince Street, Colombo 1
U. S. A.	HIS EXCELLENCY MR. J. C. SATTERTHWAITE, *Ambassador of the U. S. A. in Ceylon* J. B. KETCHAM, *Counsellor* COMMANDER. J. T. HODGSON, JR., U. S. N., *Naval Attache* M. L. BLACK, *First Secretary and Consul* A. J. TRESIDDER, *Public Affairs Officer and Attache* COMDR. MAHLON J. WILLIAMS, *U. S. N. Assistant U. S. Naval Attache* R. J. BECKER, *Third Secretary and Vice-Counsellor* T. LYMAN ELIOT, JR., *Third Secretary and Vice-Consul* WILLIAM M. KAHMANN, *Third Secretary and Vice-Counsellor* American Embassy, Australia Building, Colombo 1

II. *Consular Representatives*

Belgium	C. F. H. EDWARDS, *Consul*, Lee Hedges & Co., Ltd., Colombo 3
Bolivia	F. A. W. MITCHELL, *Consul*, c/o Darley, Butler & Co., Ltd., Colombo 1
Brazil	L. E. HEAL, *Vice-Consul*, Millers, Ltd., Colombo 1
Denmark	J. H. L. KNUDSEN, *Consul*, Ceylon Trading Co., Colombo 1
Greece	PERCY W. ABEYRATNE, *Consul*, Imperial Bank Buildings, Colombo 1
Lebanon	TAREK EL-YAFFI, *Consul-General at Bombay with jurisdiction in Ceylon*
Mexico	C. G. D. CAROLIS, *Consul*, Queen Street, Colombo 1
Netherlands	H. DE WILDT, *Consul*, Gaffor Building, Colombo 1
Norway	A. D. WHITING, *Consul*, Hongkong Bank Building, Prince street, Colombo 1
Panama	W. RUSSELL JEPSON, *Consul*, Firestone (Ceylon) Limited, 9, Hunupitiya Lake Road, Slave Island, Colombo 2
Peru	A. HURST, *Consul*, Delmege Forsyth & Co., Ltd., Colombo 1
Poland	ALBERT MORSKI, *Consul-General at London with jurisdiction in Ceylon*
Portugal	D. DOIG, *Consul*, Delmege Forsyth & Co., Ltd., Colombo 1

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II. *Consular Representatives* (contd.)

Spain	D. DOIG, *Vice-Consul*, Delmege Forsyth & Co., Ltd., Colombo 1
Sweden	E. R. ELMSTED, *Consul*, 19, York Street, Colombo
Switzerland	F. E. SCHMID, *Consul*, Volkart Bros., Colombo 1

III. *Trade Commissioners*

U. K.	C. G. CRUISHANK, *Trade Commissioner*, C. E. THOROGOOD, *Principal Trade Commissioner*, E. J. JEWESSON AND H. M. BULLARD, *Assistants*, Hongkong & Shanghai Banking Corporation, Colombo 1
Canada	PAAUL SYKES, *Trade Commissioner for Canada in Ceylon*, P. O. Box 1006, Galle Face Hotel, Colombo 1
Australia	G. P. H. KNIGHT, Galle Face Hotel, Colombo 3
Pakistan	A. SALIM KHAN, Gaffoor Building, Colombo 1

IV. *Other Representatives*

Maldive Islands	IBRAHIM ALI DIDI, *Maldivian Government Representative*, 25, Melbourne Avenue, Colombo 4
India	P. S. MENON, *Agent of the Government of India at Kandy*
Philippine Islands	Interests are in charge of the American Embassy at Colombo
Turkey	Interests are in charge of the Consul for Netherlands at Colombo

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CHAPTER V

POPULATION

History of the Ceylon Censuses

THE first population Census in Ceylon of which there is any record was made in 1824 during the Governorship of Sir Edward Barnes. Between then and 1871, when the first Census in any modern sense of the word was taken, several estimates of the population were prepared from headmen's returns, registers of births and deaths, &c., but these estimates were of course only approximate. In 1871 under the superintendence of W. J. Macarthy there commenced the services of decennial censuses unfortunately interrupted since 1931. The Census of 1931 was, on account of the financial stringency prevailing at the time, complete in respect of the City of Colombo only. The next Census was held only in 1946.

In collecting information the Census of 1871, with the exception of 'language', 'education' and 'residence', provided for the collection of all the information suggested as an international minimum of the Conference of the International Statistical Institute held at St. Petersburg in 1872. Variations of the schedule were effected at subsequent Censuses held in 1881, 1891, 1901 and 1911, while the adoption of an enlarged schedule considerably widened the scope of the census conducted in 1946 under the superintendence of Mr. A. G. Ranasinha, C.M.G., C.B.E.

Population

GROWTH OF POPULATION

The population of Ceylon numbers at present about 7.3 millions. It has reached its present figure after nearly eighty years of rapid growth involving a three-fold increase. It is not of course possible to go further back, as the first decennial Census was undertaken in 1871. The Census of that year numbered the population at 2,400,380—a figure which was to rise to 6,657,339 at the Census of 1946. In seventy-five years, therefore, the population of Ceylon has increased by 4,256,959 or by 177.3 per cent. The mean rate of increase has been 14.7 per cent. per decennium.

It is worth comparing this with the growth of world population during the same period. The population of the world has increased by 50 per cent. since 1890. Since 1913 it has risen by a little over 30 per cent. but of the actual increase of nearly 570 million, half has occurred in Asia. The population of Asia and Africa together has increased by more than the entire population of Europe before the first World War. World population continues to grow at a rate of about one per cent. per annum in most areas and at two per cent. per annum in Latin America. Kuczynski estimated the world's rate of growth of 5/8ths of one per cent., which would seem to indicate that Ceylon's rate of increase is more than twice the world's rate of growth of population. If this rate is maintained Ceylon will have a population of about 10.8 millions by 1981, having doubled its population within the space of fifty years.

In the following table is indicated the population of Ceylon at the Censuses held in 1871 and since, the amount of increase and per cent. increase.

TABLE I

Census Year	*Population*	*Amount of increase*	*Per cent. of increase*
1871	2,400,380	—	—
1881	2,759,738	359,358	15.0
1891	3,007,789	248,051	9.0
1901	3,565,954	558,165	18.6
1911	4,106,350	540,396	15.2
1921	4,498,605	392,255	9.6
1931	5,306,871	808,266	18.0
1946	6,657,339	1,350,468	25.4

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There was no Census in 1941, the Census due that year being taken in 1946. The estimated population for 1941 was however 6.21 millions, indicating that in the fifty-year period preceding it the population has increased by 100.6 per cent. During that same period only Canada (117.6 per cent.), United States of America (106.3 per cent.), Argentine (341.4 per cent.), Brazil (130.4 per cent.), Australia (123.9 per cent.), New Zealand (153.2 per cent.), Japan (116.1 per cent.), Burma (117.6 per cent.), Thailand (209.5 per cent.), and the Federated Malay States (104.8 per cent.) had higher rates of percentage increase. Most of these countries are the ' New ' countries which have encouraged immigration, while the others are all Asian countries. During the same period the increase in India and Pakistan was only 39.0 per cent. and in England and Wales only 45.1 per cent.

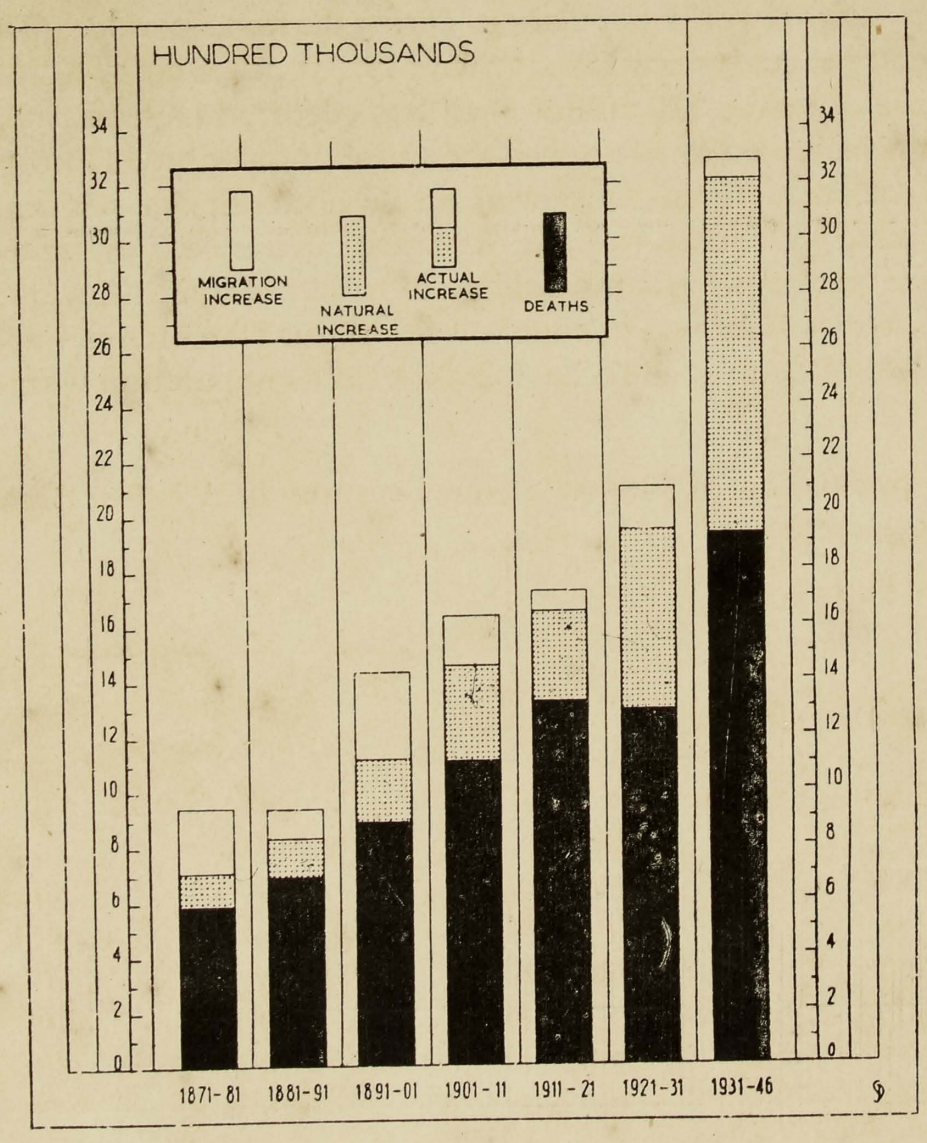
The growth of the Island's population has been occasioned by two factors. Firstly by the natural increase—excess of births over deaths and secondly by the migration increase. The following table shows these two factors in operation and also give the total intercensal increase.

TABLE II

Period	*Natural increase*	*Immigration increase*	*Intercensal increase*
1871–1881	119,792	239,566	359,358
1881–1891	144,260	103,791	248,051
1891–1901	225,406	332,759	558,165
1901–1911	356,147	184,249	540,396
1911–1921	319,410	72,845	392,255
1921–1931	656,990	151,276	808,266
1931–1946	1,280,916	69,552	1,350,468

GROWTH OF POPULATION, 1871–1946

(BIRTHS, DEATHS, NATURAL INCREASE, MIGRATION INCREASE AND ACTUAL INCREASE)



The table clearly shows that in the decades 1871–1881 and 1891–1901 the influx of immigrants was greater than the excess of births over deaths. The causes lay in the coffee boom of 1871–1881 and the boom in tea towards the close of the 19th Century. The depression of the early thirties and the banning in 1939 of emigration from India tended to make the migration increase during 1931–1946 the smallest ever recorded. In the years to come it is unlikely that migration will play any significant part in the growth of Ceylon population. The adoption of a definite policy by the Ceylon Government of discouraging non-Ceylonese labour is bound to make the net inflow of immigrants smaller than it has ever been.

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BIRTHS AND DEATHS

The last two intercensal periods show quite clearly that the increase in population in recent years has been due in a very large measure to the excess of births over deaths. In the period 1921–1931 this excess was 656,990, and in the period 1931–1946 the excess was 1,280,916. Crude birth and death rates for the two intercensal periods are given in the following tables :—

TABLE III

Year	*Births*	*Birth rate per* 1,000	*Deaths*	*Death rate per* 1,000
1921	183,917	40.6	140,749	31.5
1922	179,856	39.1	126,820	27.5
1923	181,437	38.7	141,891	30.3
1924	178,867	37.5	122,958	25.8
1925	193,261	39.9	117,543	24.2
1926	206,888	42.0	124,884	25.3
1927	205,469	41.0	113,003	22.6
1928	213,308	41.9	132,334	26.0
1929	198,005	38.3	135,274	26.2
1930	205,107	39.1	133,709	25.5
Total	1,946,115	Mean 39.8	1,289,165	Mean 26.5

TABLE IV

Year	*Birth*	*Birth rate per* 1,000	*Deaths*	*Death rate per* 1,000
1931	199,170	37.4	117,452	22.1
1932	199,370	37.0	110,649	20.5
1933	209,032	38.6	114,690	21.2
1934	206,512	37.2	127,069	22.9
1935	192,755	34.4	204,823	36.6
1936	192,060	34.1	123,039	21.8
1937	216,072	37.8	124,210	21.7
1938	208,389	35.9	122,299	21.0
1939	212,111	36.0	128,611	21.8
1940	212,980	35.8	122,738	20.6
1941	219,864	36.5	113,003	18.8
1942	221,064	36.7	112,044	18.6
1943	284,820	40.6	131,061	21.4
1944	232,827	37.1	133,985	21.3
1945	238,494	36.7	142,931	22.0
Total	3,209,520	Mean 36.8	1,928,604	Mean 22.2

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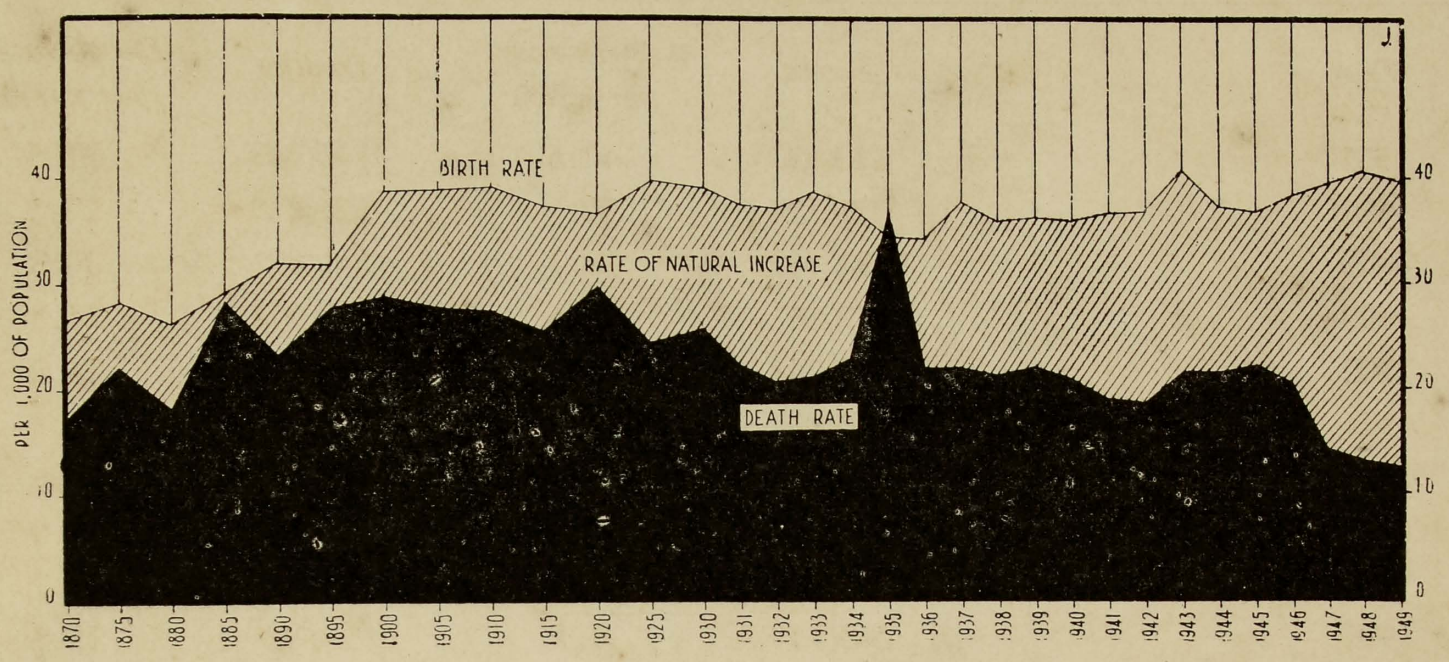
BIRTH RATE, DEATH RATE AND RATE OF NATURAL INCREASE OF POPULATION, 1870–1949



During the fifteen year period 1931–1945 the mean crude birth rate has fallen to 36.8 from 39.8 which was the mean for the decade immediately preceding it. But the decline in the death rate has been from 26.5 in the period 1921–1930 to 22.2 in the period 1931–1945. This would seem to indicate that the growth of population has been due not so much to an increase in fertility but to a greater control over death. Nor do the figures available for later years invalidate this conclusion. For in 1948 the births recorded were 287,655 and the birth rate was 40.6. In 1949 the figures were 291,191 and 39.9 respectively. The births in 1949 were no doubt the highest ever recorded, but the birth rate was lower than the rate for 1948 though higher than the rate for 1944–1947. But the decline in the death rate in recent years has been most marked. In 1948 the number of deaths fell to 93,711 and the death rate to 13.2. In 1949 the figures were 91,889 and 12.6 respectively. In this connection it is worth quoting from the December 1949 issue of ' For a Healthier World ' published by the International Division of Health.

' Up to and including 1946 the general death rate of Ceylon had been from 20 to 22 per thousand population in good years. In the years of severe Malaria Epidemic it rose above 30 per 1,000. All of a sudden it fell to 14.3 per 1,000 in 1947. This was not a freak incident. In 1948 the rate was 13.2 per 1,000 and indications were that it is going to remain low. This is an event without precedent in the annals of World Demography '.

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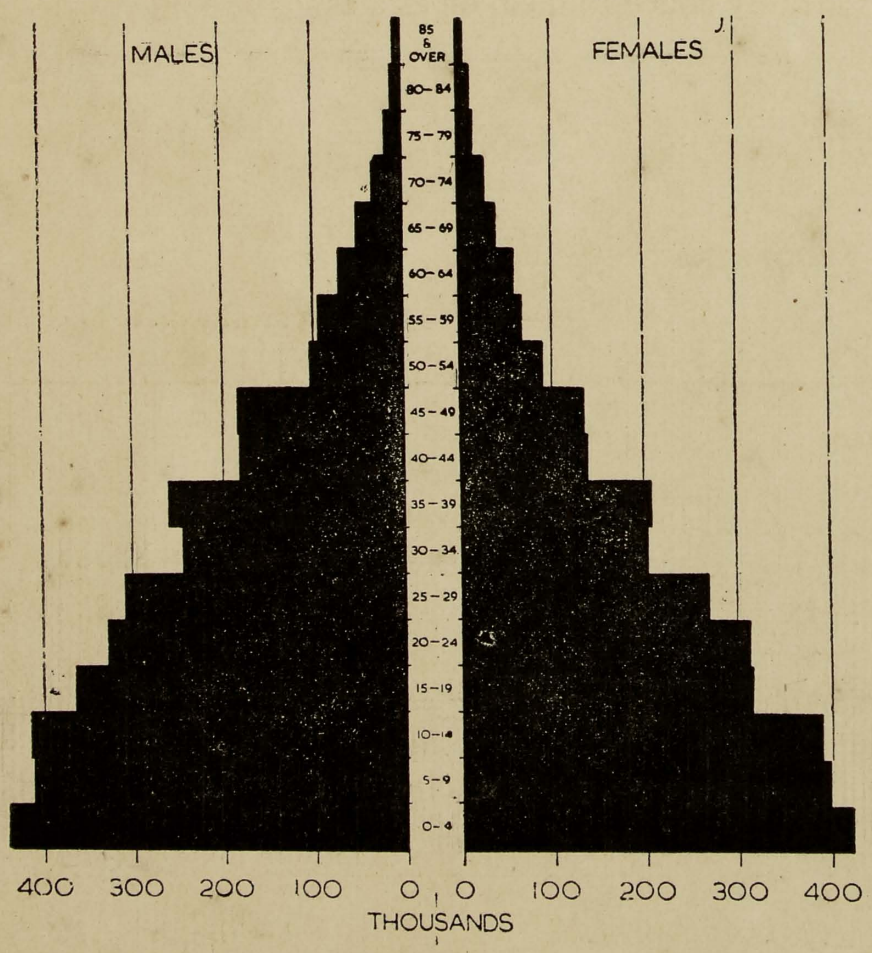
Distribution of the Population by Age and Sex

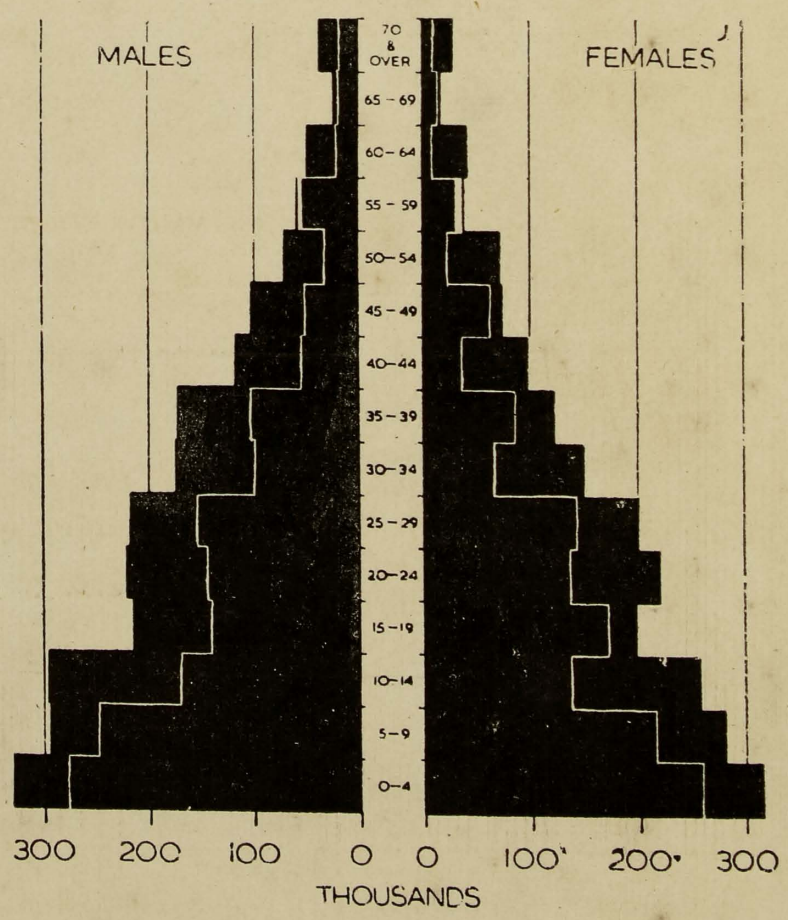
[Thousands]

Age-groups	1891 Males	1891 Females	1921 Males	1921 Females	Age-groups	1946 Males	1946 Females
0–4	276.5	259.2	328.5	315.0	0–4	437.4	424.0
5–9	247.1	217.6	293.3	281.6	5–9	411.8	399.5
10–14	169.4	136.5	295.2	257.8	10–14	414.6	391.0
15–19	141.2	172.0	214.5	199.3	15–19	364.5	316.1
20–24	142.4	137.5	221.5	220.1	20–24	327.8	313.7
25–29	155.1	143.7	219.1	201.5	25–29	307.3	270.3
30–34	97.5	65.7	174.2	150.5	30–34	246.5	203.4
35–39	103.8	86.2	174.1	123.1	35–39	261.1	207.2
40–44	55.8	37.3	117.2	99.7	40–44	182.4	139.9
45–49	55.4	62.0	102.8	73.8	45–49	183.4	136.1
50–54	34.4	23.8	71.2	73.7	50–54	104.8	91.3
55–59	58.7	37.8	58.9	35.9	55–59	94.7	68.5
60–64	19.6	9.6	49.1	39.0	60–64	71.2	59.3
65–69	18.5	12.7	24.3	15.9	65–69	51.8	41.1
70 and over	17.3	12.5	37.8	29.9	70–74	33.3	28.4
					75–79	19.2	16.9
					80–84	12.2	10.4
					85 and over	8.1	7.6
Total	1,469.6	1,414.4	2,381.8	2,116.8	Total	3,532.1	3,124.7

AGE AND SEX-COMPOSITION OF THE POPULATION
(CENSUS YEAR, 1946)



AGE AND SEX-COMPOSITION OF THE POPULATION
(CENSUS YEARS, 1891 AND 1921)



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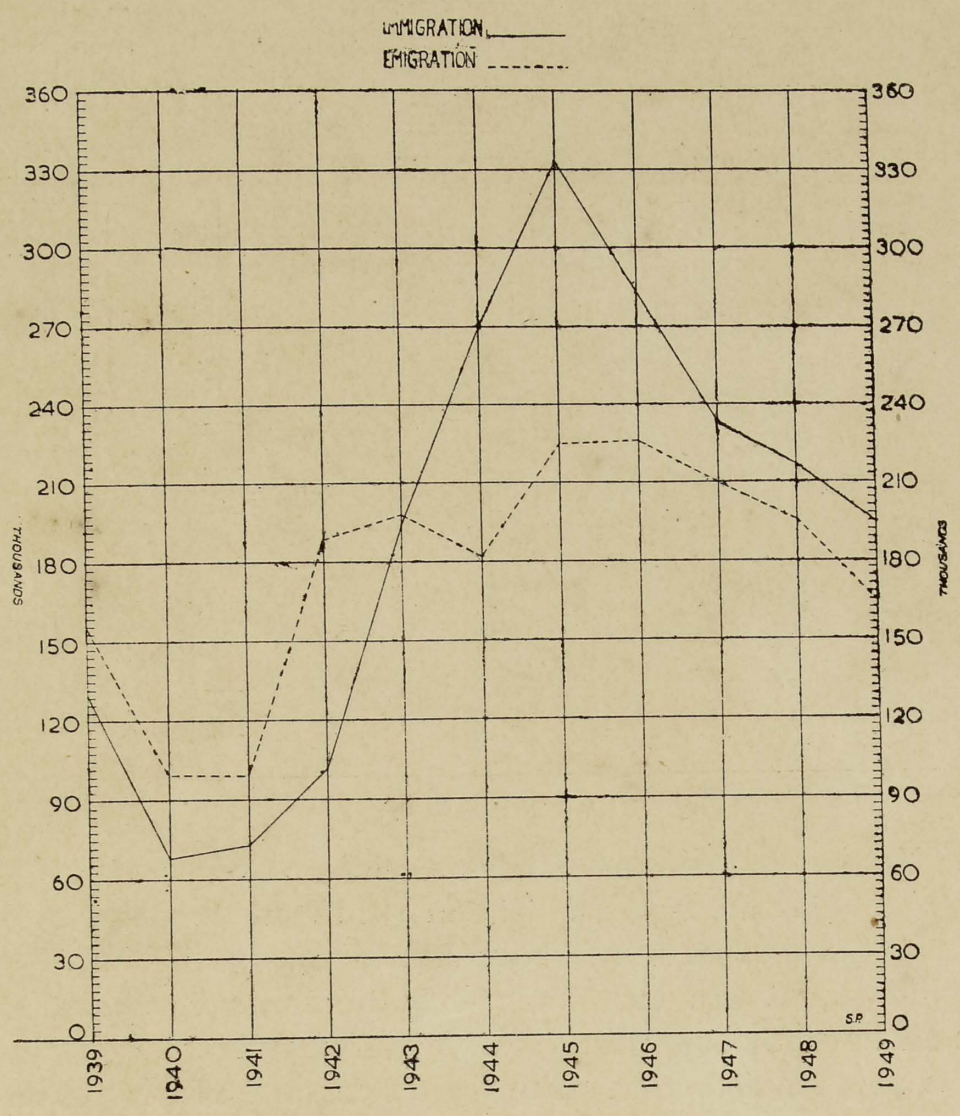
IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION, CEYLON



MIGRATION

The Immigrants and Emigrants Act, No. 20 of 1948, was brought into force on November 1, 1949. As from that date all persons other than citizens of Ceylon are required to possess national passports and, in addition, entry permits in the form of a *visa* or a permanent or temporary residence permit. Nationals of the United Kingdom and Colonies, India, Pakistan, Canada and Eire, who are on short visits on business or holiday, do not require any permit for a stay not exceeding six months in Ceylon.

Arrangements were made for the issue of entry permits by representatives of Ceylon. In countries where there were no representatives, United Kingdom Passport and Consular Officers and Dominion Passport Officers in the Dominions, have agreed to issue entry permits on behalf of the Government of Ceylon. Sub-Offices for the issue of these entry permits were set up at Mandapam and Tuticorin, and the issue of entry permits at Trichinopoly was entrusted to the Ceylon Emigration Commissioner, Trichinopoly.

The Immigration Regulations did not affect estate labour which was permitted to move to and fro between India and Ceylon with certificates of identity issued to them on estates.

IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION,

(Thousands)

1939–1949

	Immigration	*Emigration*		*Immigration*	*Emigration*
1939	130	156	1945	333	225
1940	68	100	1946	283	226
1941	73	100	1947	233	210
1942	102	189	1948	217	196
1943	194	198	1949	195	165
1944	270	182			

5——J. N. 4767 (2/51)

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The following table contains the figures of migration for 1949 :—

ARRIVALS AND DEPARTURES FROM TUTICORIN AND TALAIMANNAR

	Arrivals	*Departures*	*Excess of Arrivals over Departures*
January	9,623	14,080	— 4,457
February	11,672	15,552	— 3,880
March	14,872	16,037	— 1,165
April	17,041	17,670	— 629
May	18,157	19,112	— 955
June	17,760	18,117	— 357
July	16,550	10,767	+ 5,783
August	13,573	14,125	— 552
September	20,308	14,710	+ 5,598
October	16,133	11,627	+ 4,506
November	4,697	7,623	— 2,926
December	4,372	8,298	— 3,926

There is a noticeable increase in the immigration figures immediately preceding November 1, 1949, and a decline in the months of November and December, 1949. The marked increase was due to the influx of a large number of passengers who sought entry before the Act became operative. The decrease in the two months November and December was due to the rush in the months immediately preceding and to the fact that passengers did not provide themselves with national travel documents or were not sufficiently familiar with the new requirements. The figures for arrivals have now increased.

The figures of issues of Temporary Residence Permits and *Visas* for November and December, 1949, are as follows :—

	Temporary Residence Permits	*Visas*
November	4,155	210
December	2,212	476

The *visa* figures are in respect of those issed at Mandapam, Tuticorin and Colombo.

DENSITY OF POPULATION

With death rates reduced to the lowest possible levels and with the birth rate swinging between 35 and 40, the over-all tendency is for the pressure of population to be on the increase. Pressure of population on the land is roughly measured by what is known as its ' Density '. The total area of Ceylon is 25,332 square miles, its inland waters cover 296 square miles, leaving a net land area of 25,036 square miles. On the basis of the Census population of 1946 (6,657,339) the density works out to 265 persons per square mile. Should the population rise to 10,000,000 persons this density would work out to nearly 400.

Some idea of its significance may be obtained by comparing it with the densities of other countries. England and Wales with a population of 41 millions has a density of 715 persons per square mile. Belgium with 8.3 millions has a density of 712. The Netherlands (611), Japan (537), Italy (383),

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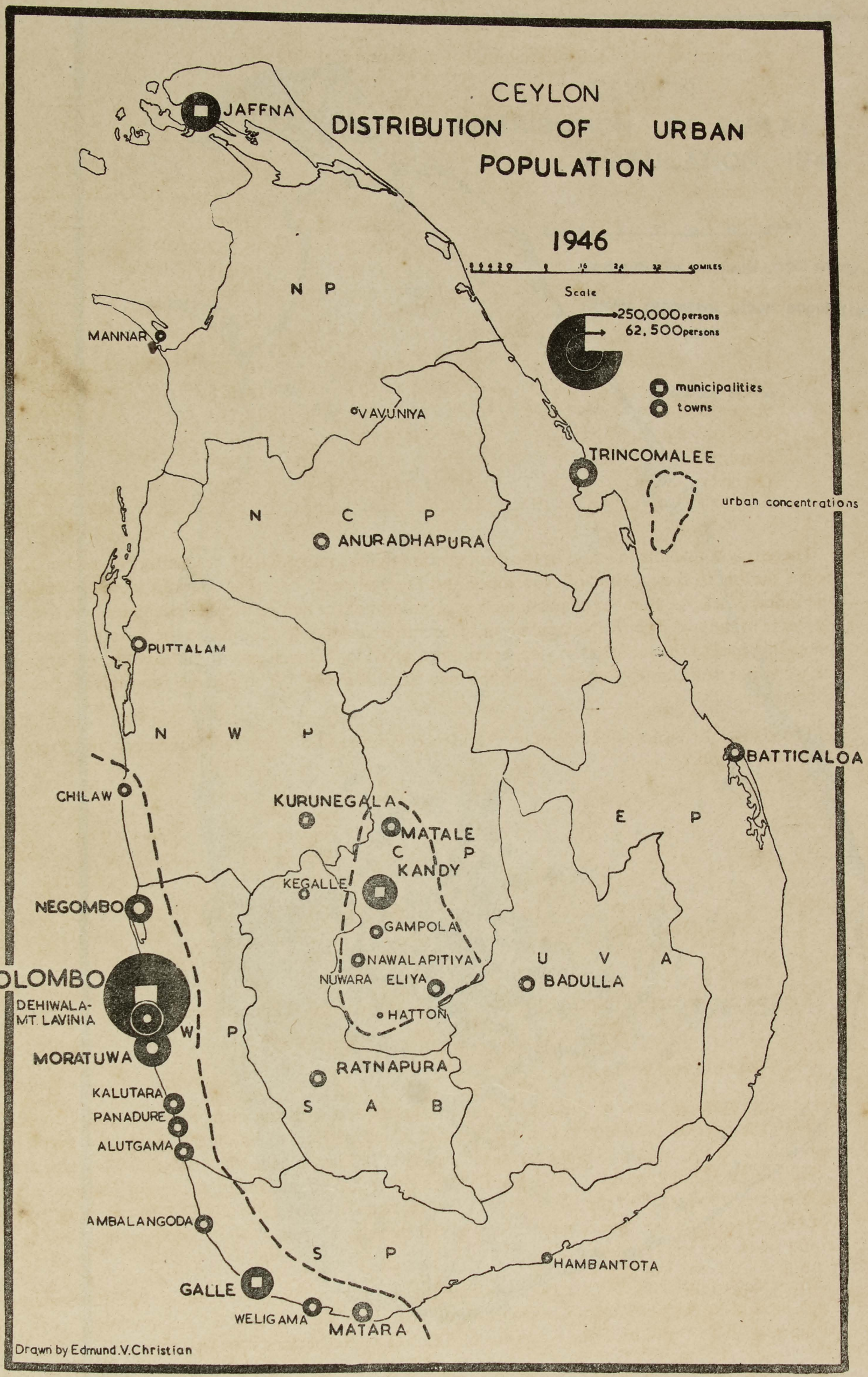
CEYLON
DISTRIBUTION OF URBAN POPULATION
1946



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Switzerland (289), and Pakistan (284) ; all have densities higher than what obtained in Ceylon in 1946. It would appear therefore that by comparison with other countries Ceylon cannot be put down as an over-populated country. This is, of course, not to suggest that the increase in population has not given rise to considerable anxiety.

Some idea of the density of population by the nine provinces into which the island is divided may be ascertained from the following table :—

TABLE V

Province	*Density* 1931	*Density* 1946	*Increase per cent.*
North-Central	24	35	43.3
Eastern	55	73	31.4
Western	1,009	1,310	29.9
Sabaragamuwa	306	394	28.9
Southern	359	448	24.7
Uva	93	114	22.8
North-Western	181	221	22.1
Northern	116	140	20.2
Central	416	496	19.1

The increase is most marked in the North-Central Province, reflecting the efforts of the Ministry of Agriculture and lands at reclaiming the jungle lands of the ancient Raja Rata. The increase is smallest in the Central Province caused in the main by a decline in immigrant addition. In 1946 as in 1931 the Western Province continued to be the most densely populated province in the Island.

URBAN AND RURAL POPULATION

It is of course difficult to distinguish an urban area and a rural area. Nevertheless in Ceylon it is conventional to regard as 'Urban Areas' those areas comprising the Municipalities, Urban Councils, Local Board areas and the towns proclaimed under the Births and Deaths Registration Ordinance. On this basis the urban population in Ceylon in 1946 worked out to 1,032,793 or 15.5 per cent. of the population. That in 1901 the figures were 418,969 or 11.8 per cent., clearly shows the slow pace at which Urbanisation is taking place despite an impression to the contrary. Even now the bulk of the people of Ceylon live in the villages.

PERCENTAGES OF RURAL AND URBAN POPULATIONS

Census Years, 1891–1946

	Rural Per cent.	*Urban Per cent.*		*Rural Per cent.*	*Urban Per cent.*
1891	89.3	10.7	1921	87.1	12.9
1901	88.2	11.8	1931	86.8	13.2
1911	87.7	12.3	1946	84.5	15.5

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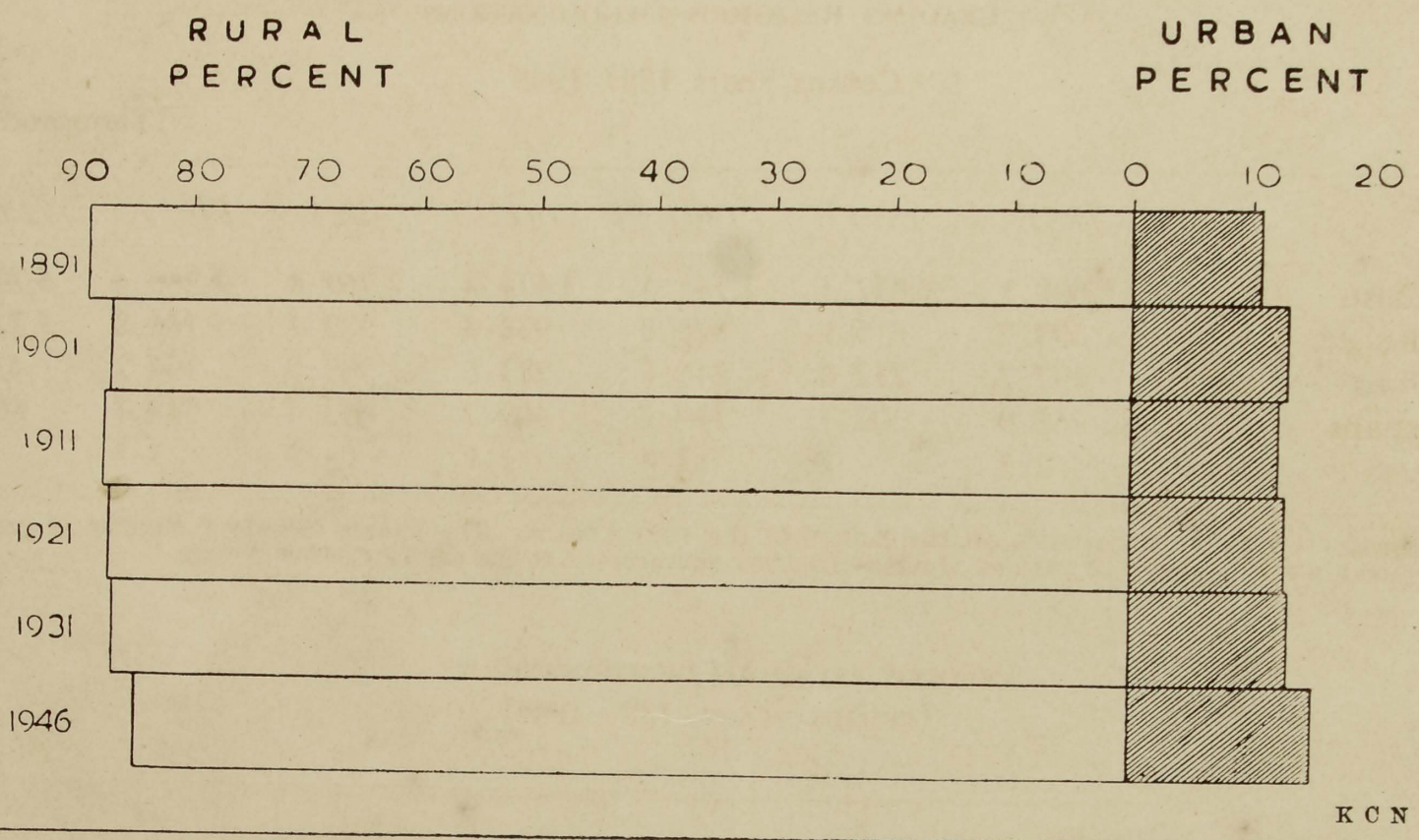
PERCENTAGES OF RURAL AND URBAN POPULATIONS, CEYLON

(CENSUS YEARS, 1891–1946)



RACE

The races of Ceylon comprise the Low-Country Sinhalese, the Kandyan Sinhalese, the Ceylon Tamils, Indian Tamils, Ceylon Moors, Indian Moors, Burghers and Eurasians, Europeans, Malays and Veddahs. The differentiation between Low-Country and Kandyan Sinhalese has no ethnic significance ; generally the Sinhalese who trace their descent to a low-country district are classified as ' Low-Country Sinhalese ', while the rest are classified as ' Kandyan Sinhalese '. The Western and Southern Provinces, the Chilaw District, the western part of Puttalam District are all low-country areas while the Central and North-Central Provinces, Uva, Sabaragamuwa, Kurunegala, the Sinhalese Divisions of the Districts of Batticaloa, Trincomalee and Vavuniya are regarded as Kandyan districts.

At the Census of 1946 the Low-Country Sinhalese formed 43.6 per cent. of the population and on the basis of its age distribution tends to be a somewhat ' progressive ' population. The Kandyan Sinhalese comprised 25.8 per cent. of the population and like the Low-Country Sinhalese population it seems likely to increase. The Ceylon Tamils amounted to 733,731 and the Indian Tamils counted 780,589, the Ceylon Moors numbered 373,559, the Indian Moors 35,624, the Burghers and Eurasians 41,296, the Malays 22,508 and the Europeans 5,418. The most significant feature is that on the basis of the age distribution of each of these races, their respective populations show a tendency to increase over the years. This is true of all races in Ceylon excluding the Europeans and the Veddahs. The former exhibits a tendency to decrease, while the decrease of the latter would suggest that this race is being absorbed by the Sinhalese and Tamil races.

RELIGION

The results of the 1946 Census indicate that nearly 4,294,932 persons professed the Buddhist faith in Ceylon. The Buddhists are mainly Sinhalese and according to the ancient Sinhalese chronicles, Buddhism was introduced into the Island in the reign of Devanampiya-Tissa (300 B.C.) with the result that Buddhism has been the predominent religion for over 22 centuries.

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Next to Buddhism, Hinduism has the largest following in Ceylon. Roughly 198 of every 1,000 persons in Ceylon were Hindus at the Census year 1946. It is of course the predominant religion of the Tamil population. Numerically the Christians come third and of them over 80 per cent. are Roman Catholics. The Moors and the Malays embrace Islam as their religion, and numbered 436,556 in 1946.

LEADING RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS

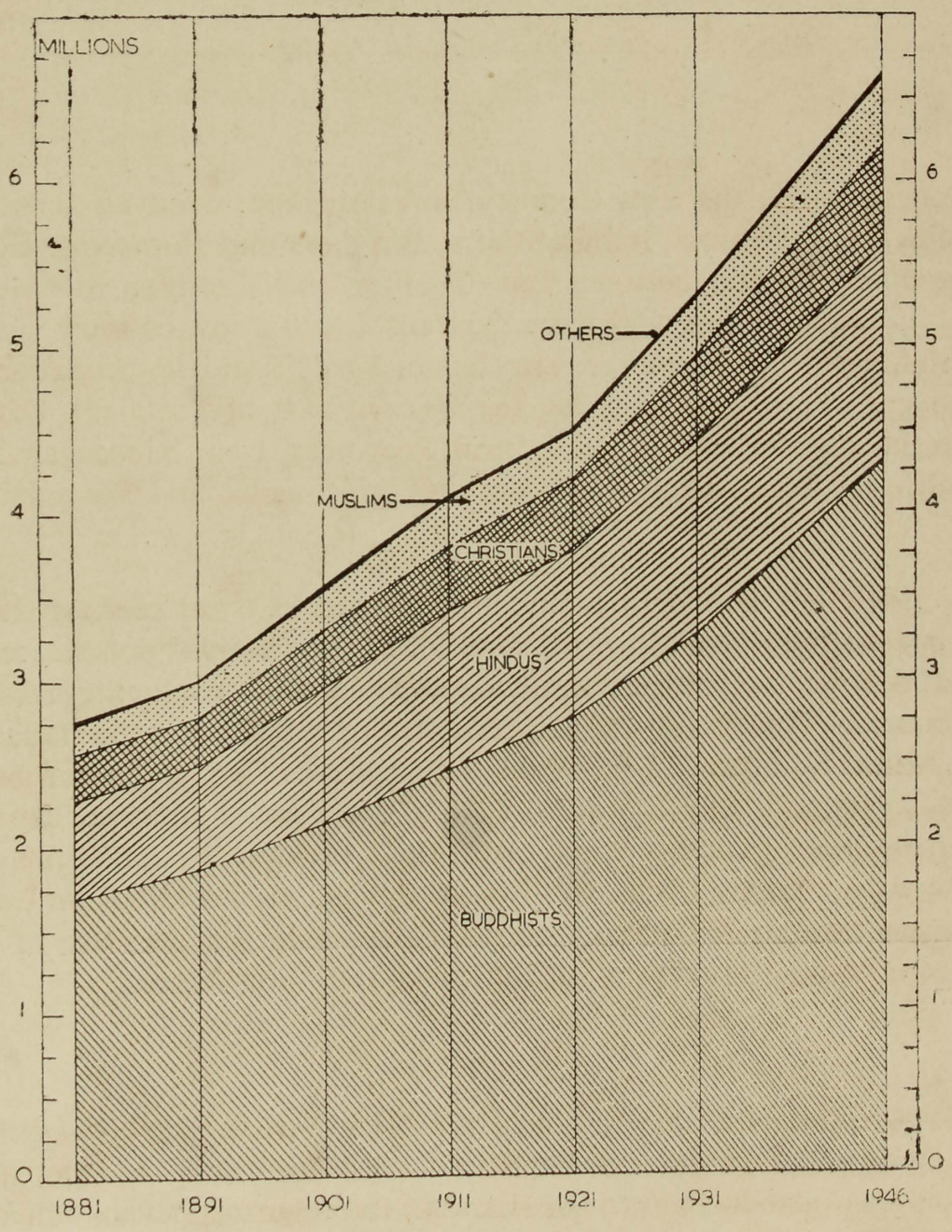
Census Years, 1881–1946

[Thousands]

	1881	*1891*	*1901*	*1911*	*1921*	*1931* [1]	*1946*
Buddhists	1,698.1	1,877.1	2,141.4	2,474.2	2,769.8	3,266.4	4,294.9
Hindus	593.7	615.9	826.8	938.3	982.1	1,166.8	1,320.4
Muslims	197.7	212.0	246.1	283.6	302.5	354.2	436.6
Christians	268.0	302.1	349.2	409.2	443.4	518.1	603.2
Others	2.3	.7	2.4	1.1	.8	1.1	2.3

1 Estimated on a Pro Rata basis on the figures of the 1921 Census. The figures include a number of persons included in the total of 442 persons of unspecified sex enumerated at the partial Census in 1931.

LEADING RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS
(CENSUS YEARS, 1881–1946)



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SEX

Most countries in Western Europe have in recent years shown a greater number of females than males. At the Census of 1946 the population of Ceylon was divided in terms of sex into 3,532,218 males and 3,125,121 females. Nor was this a new development in the Island's population. In Ceylon the number of males has always exceeded that of females as is shown in the following table :—

Year	*Males*	*Females*	*Masculinity Ratio*
1871	1,280,129	1,120,251	1,143
1881	1,469,553	1,290,185	1,139
1891	1,593,376	1,414,413	1,127
1901	1,896,212	1,669,742	1,136
1911	2,175,030	1,931,320	1,126
1921	2,381,812	2,116,793	1,125
1946	3,532,218	3,125,121	1,130

This high masculinity has been brought about by the operation of a number of factors. In the first place, the number of male births has throughout exceeded the number of female births every year. In this respect Ceylon's experience has been not unlike that experienced in most other countries. The female death rate at most ages (excluding deaths under one year) is generally higher than that of the male. The balance in favour of males at birth is thus enhanced throughout life.

Some explanation of the higher female death rate may lie in the fact that although the two sexes have many things in common each has its own peculiar risk. For males the risks are mainly occupational and for females the risks are associated with the puerperal state. Occupational hazards in Ceylon are unlike those in any other country. The bulk of the working population being agricultural workers, there is an absence of these occupational and other environmental hazards which constitute to a higher mortality of males. Added to this there is the high maternal mortality rate which has shown a downward trend only in very recent years, touching the lowest figure, 6.5 in 1949.

LENGTH OF LIFE

The effect of changes in the death rate at different periods can best be seen in changes in the 'expectation of life' at birth. The expectation of life for men has increased from 34.60 in 1921 to 47.19 in 1946 and for women from 31.84 to 43.81 in the same period. Though this represents a remarkable improvement for a twenty-five year period—it may be compared with New Zealand where expectation of life is greatest—the rates being 65.04 for males and 67.88 for females.

What is remarkable about the expectation of life in Ceylon is one fact that in 1946 as in 1921 the expectation was greater for males than for females. From the days of Graunt, Vital Statistics throughout the world has pointed to a higher mortality for men as compared with women. An exception was India, where in 1931 the expectation of life was more or less the same for both sexes. Perhaps the situation in Ceylon as in India is characteristic of all backward areas where high birth rates, high infant mortality rates and also high maternal mortality rates all tend to operate against the female rather than the male.

Recent figures would seem to indicate greater control over death, perhaps arising from the success of Medical and Sanitary measures of the last decade or two. The figures for the five years ending 1949 are given in the table below :—

Year	*Death Rate*	*Infant Death Rate*	*Maternal Death Rate*
1945	22.0	140	16.5
1946	20.3	141	15.5
1947	14.3	101	10.6
1948	13.2	92	8.3
1949	12.6	87	6.5

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CHAPTER VI

PUBLIC HEALTH

I. Medical and Public Health Services

GENERAL

THE present day organisation of Medical and Health Services has evolved from a Military and Estate Medical Service and some traces of its origin might still be seen. The Civil Medical Department was established in 1859 primarily for the care of the sick and the only type of Public Health work that may have received attention in the early days was the control of large scale epidemics, particularly of small-pox. The Contagious Disease Ordinance of 1866, which is one of the earliest Public Health Ordinances laid special stress on this disease, the prevention of which, was then as much a police function as a public health activity.

The Medical Department continued its activities with a single type of Medical Officer engaged primarily in the treatment of the sick and attending to any major public health needs of the country until 1912, when a Committee was appointed by the Governor to consider the establishment of a Sanitation Department for Ceylon. Its recommendation was given effect to in 1913, by the formation of a Sanitary Branch of the Department. Owing to the outbreak of the first world war, and the limited personnel that was available, the only kind of public health work that could be undertaken was what was termed the District type of Health Work, where wholetime Government Medical Officers of Health were assigned very large areas and were entrusted with the elementary type of public health work, comprising the sanitation of urban and semi-urban areas and the control of outbreaks of communicable diseases.

An important development of the Public Health Services which was destined in later years to mould the entire shape of the public health administration of the country was the inauguration in 1916 of the Hook-worm Campaign with the co-operation of the Rockefeller Foundation. This campaign which encountered considerable opposition in its early stages, demonstrated effectively the value to the community of public health work and the need to incorporate in the Public Health programme the then new aspect of Personal Hygiene. The result was the inauguration in 1926 on an experimental basis, of the Health Unit at Kalutara and subsequently of eight other Health Units located in the different Provinces of the Island.

The next important landmark in the administration of the Health Services was the amalgamation in 1926 of the Curative and Preventive Services under the Director of Medical and Sanitary Services. Ceylon is therefore many years in advance of the Bhore Committee Report for India, and of international organisations like the W. H. O. which have recommended the integration of the Curative and Preventive Services by placing them under a single head.

The inauguration of the Donoughmore Constitution in 1931, placed a Minister of Health in charge of the Health Services of the Island and gave a great impetus to curative as well as preventive work. The great epidemic of malaria of 1934–35 demonstrated effectively the usefulness of the Health Unit type of work ; and in 1937 financial provision was made for the creation of fifty-five additional Health Units in the Island. The amalgamation of Health and Local Government under one Ministry in the Soulbury Constitution marked a further milestone in the progress of public health work in the Island.

ORGANISATION

The Director of Medical and Sanitary Services has two principal assistants, the Assistant Director of Medical Services, who is in charge of the Curative work of the Department and the Assistant Director of Sanitary Services in charge of Preventive work. In addition to the two Assistant Directors there are on the Medical side, two Senior Medical Officers and five Grade I Medical Officers ; on the Health side there are two Senior Medical Officers of Health and three Medical Officers of Health.

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The Supervisory Officers who are not at Headquarters are of two types—the Divisional Medical Superintendents and the Officers in charge of Special Divisions. The latter officers, with a few exceptions like the Judicial Medical Officer and the Medical Superintendent, General Hospital, are common to both the Curative and the Preventive sides. There are eight Divisional Medical Superintendents and they are in general supervisory charge of all the Medical Officers in the districts. The other officers in the field doing curative work comprise of 530 Medical Officers, 18 Dental Surgeons, 330 Apothecaries, 1,079 Matrons, Sisters and Nurses, 317 Midwives, 2,490 Male Attendants, 2,160 Female Attendants and 5,477 other minor employees, making a total of 12,401 officers, exclusive of those in charge of special divisions.

The organization of the Field Services on the Preventive side is similar to that of the Curative side and consists of Divisional Medical Superintendents of Health and officers in charge of specialist divisions, who as already stated, are with a few exceptions common to both the services. The field staff working under the Divisional Medical Superintendents of Health consist of 76 Medical Officers of Health, 658 Sanitary Inspectors, 45 Public Health Nurses, 878 Public Health Midwives, 323 Apothecaries in Rural Hospitals and Dispensaries, 75 Vaccinators, and 21 Ankylostomiasis Dispensers.

HOSPITALS AND DISPENSARIES

Medical care is administered in three types of institutions. There is the Provincial Hospital, which is a large institution intended to have a capacity of 500 to 700 beds for types of diseases where the services of specialists are required ; next in order is the District Hospital varying in size from 50 to 200 beds and equipped to cater for the ordinary types of medical, surgical and obstetrical cases ; and finally there is the Central Dispensary. To most of them is attached a Maternity Home for normal cases of pregnancy, and a small hospital for the very simple types of diseases.

There are 256 Government Hospitals in the Island providing 19,809 beds which include 6,181 in special institutions. Besides dispensaries attached to these hospitals there are 225 Central Dispensaries in charge of apothecaries ; in addition there are 184 Branch Dispensaries and 551 Visiting Stations attached to these Central Dispensaries. During the year 1949, 741,202 patients were treated as in-patients at these hospitals. There were 20,619 deaths. There were 9,420,091 out-door cases to the Dispensaries. This figure does not indicate the number of patients treated. Repeated visits of the same patients after short intervals have been regarded as new cases.

THE CUMPSTON REPORT

In 1949 Mr. J. H. L. Cumpston, late Director-General of Health Services of the Commonwealth of Australia, was entrusted ' to report on the working of the Medical and Public Health Organization of Ceylon and to advise the Government on the nature of the reforms and improvements that are required to be made '. His report was published in February, 1950, as Sessional Paper III of that year.

EXPENDITURE ON PUBLIC HEALTH

The following figures and the accompanying graph illustrate how the Island's expenditure on public health has increased during the period, 1938–49 :—

TABLE 6.1. EXPENDITURE ON PUBLIC HEALTH, 1938–49

Year	*Total Expenditure Rs. (thousand)*	*Per Capita Expenditure* Rs. c.	*Year*	*Total Expenditure Rs. (thousand)*	*Per Capita Expenditure* Rs. c.
1938	12,715	2.19	1944	18,752	2.99
1939	13,577	2.30	1945	22,312	3.43
1940	13,537	2.27	1946	29,507	4.41
1941	14,035	2.33	1947	38,217	5.71
1942	14,872	2.47	1948	53,304	7.52
1943	16,111	2.63	1949	58,771	8.05

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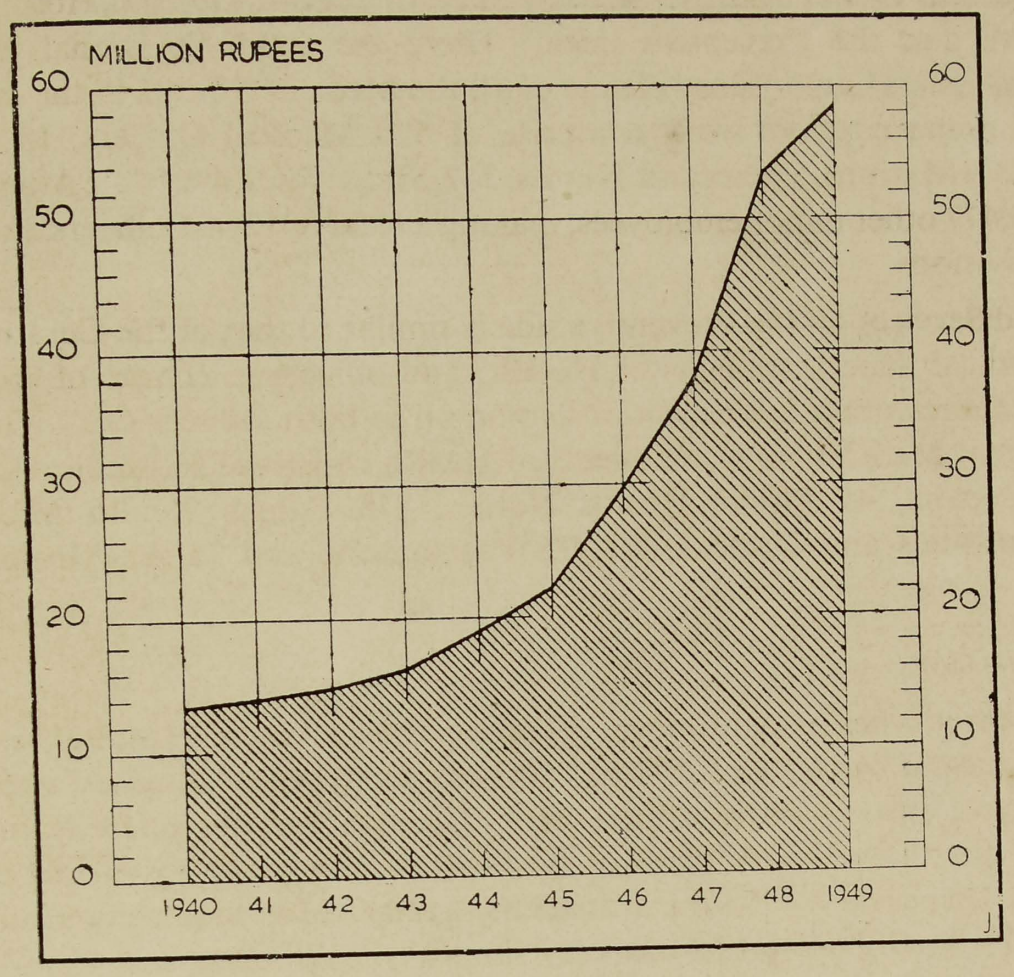
EXPENDITURE ON PUBLIC HEALTH (1940–1949)

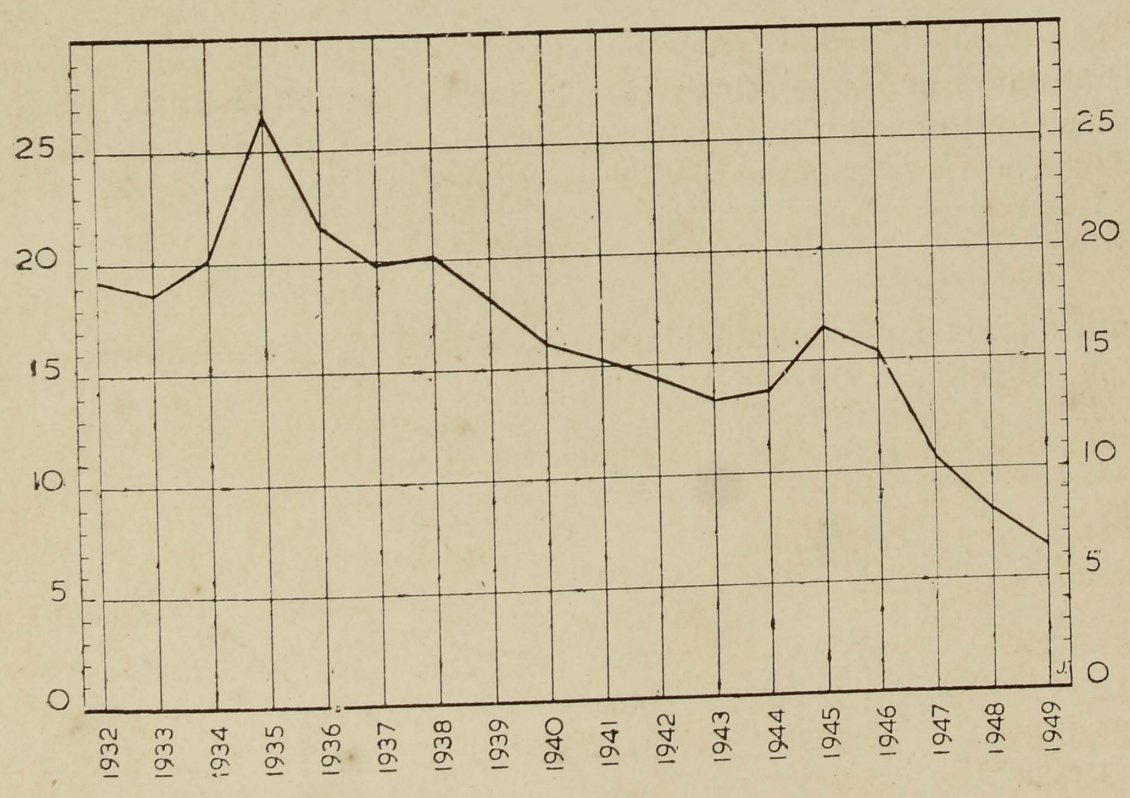


HEALTH UNITS

The Health Unit plan of work was developed in 1926 for the purpose of giving rural areas a complete scheme of health work carried out by an adequate staff. For this purpose the Island was originally divided into 63 Health Unit areas, the number being subsequently increased to 91. In each of these Units one or more hospitals and dispensaries are included. The personnel consist of a trained full-time Medical Officer of Health, and Public Health Nurses. The distribution of these Units was made so as to provide a nurse per 8,000 population, a midwife per 4,000 and a sanitary inspector per 8,000 to 10,000 population.

The activities carried out consist of Health Survey, Health Education and Study of Vital Statistics, Maternity and Child Welfare Work, School Health Work, Sanitation and Control of Communicable Diseases, including Vaccination against Small-pox. Anti-Typhoid inoculation and mass treatment for Hookworm and other helminthic intestinal parasites.

MATERNAL DEATH RATE PER 1,000 LIVE BIRTHS, 1932–1949



MATERNITY AND CHILD WELFARE WORK

Maternity and Child Welfare Work has always been the most popular phase of Public Health activity. That it has been extremely successful is proved by the fact that the maternal mortality rate has been reduced from 19.0 in 1926 to 6.5 in 1949, and the infantile mortality rate from 174 per 1,000 live births to 87. In between, however, there have been sudden increases in these mortality rates due to epidemics of Influenza and Malaria.

The services provided for the welfare of the expectant mother during the three periods of motherhood—pre-natal, natal and post-natal—aim at preventing disease states and reducing maternal deaths. The main causes of maternal deaths in Ceylon are—Puerperal sepsis, Haemorrhage and

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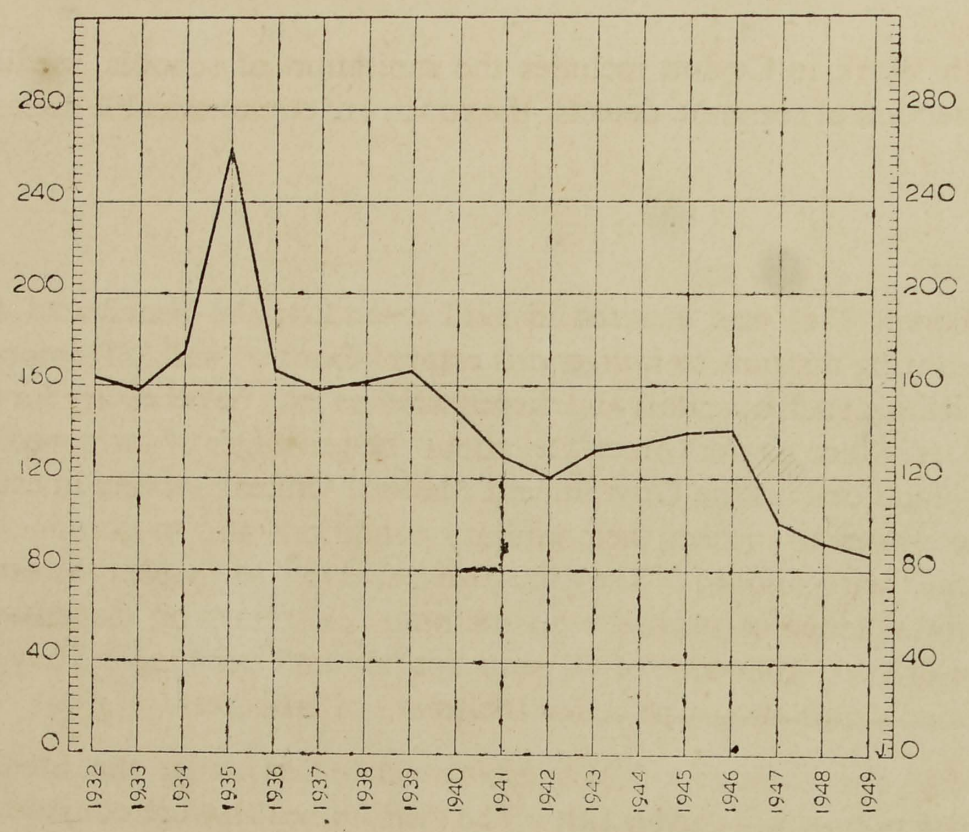
Toxaemia, while Hookworm disease, chronic Malaria and Malnutrition predispose mothers to pre-eclamptic states. When these are reduced to a minimum by well planned and organised work, as is being now carried out in our Health Units, the results may be remarkable.

INFANTILE MORTALITY, 1932–1949



There are 43 Public Health Nurses and 984 trained Midwives engaged in this work under the direction of Medical Officers of Health. There were 662 Health Centres functioning during 1949 and 296,340 expectant mothers had visited the clinics held in these during this period. Prior to the establishment of Maternity Homes in 1937, where home conditions were satisfactory only few mothers were willing to enter hospital unless their condition became serious. Since then Maternity Homes are growing in popularity. There are 105 Maternity Homes in the Island, 93 of which are run by the Government. On an average there are 12 beds in every Home. A qualified midwife is allocated to each of these Homes with an attendant and the work is supervised by the Medical Officer of the area.

The full development programme for the care of infant and the pre-school child aims at providing a Public Health Nursing service for the care of these two groups in the Homes and a Medical and Nursing Service at the Clinics. In 1949 the Public Health nurses paid 34,810 visits to infants and 23,580 visits to pre-school children under their care. They had visited 71,255 homes during the same period.

Medical care and supervision are obtainable at Clinics held fortnightly at the Health Centres, where a Medical Officer of Health is in attendance.

Demonstrations and illustrative talks are a regular feature at these Clinics. The activities at Baby Clinics consist of weighing babies, examination of babies by Doctors, giving of advice, giving of milk to needy children, and administering cod-liver oil when indicated, and in correction of minor ailments. Children of pre-school ages are attended to at the Child Welfare Clinics and by home visits.

SCHOOL HEALTH WORK

Medical inspection of school children in Ceylon, organised on the lines of the School Medical Service in the United Kingdom, was started on a modest scale in 1919. The duties of the first School Medical Officer were to visit schools and examine children in the whole Island. In 1921 a Lady Medical Officer was appointed for Colombo. In 1925 a Medical Officer was appointed for the schools of the Northern Division, and in 1927 two more officers were appointed, one for the Central Division and the other for the Southern Division. The first school nurse was appointed in 1920 for Colombo town and a second in 1925 for Jaffna, and two in 1927, one each for Kandy and Galle.

The school work is now carried out by eight full time School Medical Officers and 90 Medical Officers of Health on a part time basis. It is only after the inauguration of the Malaria Control Scheme in

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1937, that more comprehensive health work in schools was rendered possible. The organisation, however, is still imperfect owing to lack of personnel, such as more full time School Medical Officers and more Health Nurses and more specialist officers.

Of the nearly 6,241 Registered Schools of all types in the Island with an estimated school population of 1,117,695 the total number of schools in which School Health Work was carried out in 1949 was 1,354. The school population dealt with durnig the year was 102,184 of which 59,464 were boys and 42,720 were girls.

The programme of School Health Work in Ceylon includes the sanitation of schools, medical inspection of school children, the correction of common defects, the control of communicable diseases and finally health education.

ESTATE HEALTH WORK

The Medical Wants Ordinance (Chapter 176) was enacted in 1912 extending the benefits of the medical wants of the labourers in planting districts to indigenous estate labour as well. It imposes on the Government the duty of establishing such hospitals and dispensaries as may be necessary for the medical wants of the estates. The Ordinance confers on estate labour the privileges of state medical aid and imposes certain statutory obligations on the Government Medical Officers serving in estate areas. It is their duty to visit these estates to inspect their sanitary conditions and to examine the state of health of the labourers and their children. They are also expected to inspect the estate hospitals and dispensaries. Superintendents of estates who maintain hospitals or dispensaries are entitled to a free grant of certain drugs to the value of 50 cents per labourer per year. They are also entitled to receive certain specified drugs at cost price for treatment of labourers.

During the year 1949, there were approximately 2,312 estates scheduled under the Medical Wants Ordinance with an approximate population of 966,121. The staff for health work consisted of one Inspecting Medical Officer for estates, 55 Medical Officers of Health and 4 Medical Officers. There are 99 Estate Hospitals and 682 estate dispensaries (including the 99 dispensaries attached to estate hospitals) for serving the labourers on estates. There were also 66 Government Hospitals and 116 dispensaries in Estate Medical Districts.

QUARANTINE SERVICE

Ceylon's chief weapon against the introduction of dangerous infectious diseases like cholera, small-pox plague, yellow fever and typhoid from the neighbouring countries is its Quarantine Regulations made under the Quarantine Ordinance, No. 3 of 1897. Ceylon being a signatory to the International Sanitary Conventions carries out her obligations through the Quarantine Department. The work of the Department falls under the following heads : (i) General measures against the quarantinable diseases ; (ii) Ceylon Quarantine Camps in South India (Mandapam and Tattaparai) ; (iii) Port Health Service ; (iv) Air Port Health Service.

The Colombo Port Health organisation plays an important role in the administration of the quarantine measures. Its chief objective is the prevention of infection carried by incoming ships. Annually over 2,000 ships that call at Colombo are inspected to determine whether they are healthy or infected. Infected ships are dealt with suitably in order to prevent the infection from spreading ashore.

HEALTH EDUCATION AND PUBLICITY

A well organised scheme of Health Education is now being carried out in schools with the co-operation of the Department of Education. The channels through which the health education of the adult is carried on are the Press, Cinema, Public Lectures, Group Talks, Posters, Pamphlets, Health Bulletin (Health News) Leaflets, and well organised Health Exhibitions.

The All-Ceylon Health Week, another mass health education activity started in 1938, has been carried on regularly for the last twelve years. The object of the Health Week is to focus public attention for one week in the year (usually the third week in July) on matters of health and to arouse

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a sense of personal responsibility for health without which all Public Health work, whether by the Government or Local Authorities, must fall far short of its aims. This movement has gained in popularity and has been greatly instrumental in making the people health-conscious. In recent years an effort has been made to make the Health Week the occasion to educate the people with regard to the welfare services offered to them by various other Government Departments as well, and from 1949 World Health Day activities were included in the programme.

In all areas of Medical Officers of Health weekly conferences of the Sanitary Officers of the respective areas are held regularly. During each conference the work of the week is reviewed, difficulties are discussed and the work for the next period is planned. A feature of these conferences is the reading of a paper on some particular phase of their work by one of the Sanitary Inspectors and this forms the basis for the day's discussions. The Sanitary Inspectors have an association of their own. They hold an annual conference when Papers on various subjects dealing with their work are read. These are published in their annual journal. The Public Health nurses and Public Health midwives have their respective associations and they too hold annual conferences, the proceedings of which are published in their annual journal. Courses in Health Education for Teachers are conducted in all the Teachers' Training Colleges by officers of the Medical Department.

PUBLIC HEALTH ENGINEERING

When the need for a larger measure of environmental sanitation was felt it was decided in 1927 to organise a Sanitary Engineering Division in the Department of Medical and Sanitary Services. The service of Mr. B. R. Dyer, Sanitary Engineer, was lent to the Ceylon Government by the International Health Division of the Rockefeller Foundation for a period of two years.

The work of the Sanitary Engineering Division at its inception was confined to water supplies, surface drainage, water borne sewage disposal and anti-malaria engineering. Since then the work has increased considerably in scope and volume The Public Works Department code of regulations was amended so that the sanitary engineer dealt with all sanitary and treatment aspects of all water supplies. Sanitary aspects of housing and the checking of and making reports and recommendations on estate housing and building programmes in terms of the Medical Wants Ordinance have been included. Water supplies to large proclaimed festivals are also undertaken.

A comparison between the number of designs and plans turned out by the Division in 1932 and 1949 shows the progress made in the public health engineering work of the Ministry. In 1932 a total of 720 plans of all kinds were prepared and issued against the total of nearly 3,000 in 1949. The Sanitary Engineering Division has become the Public Health Engineering Department of the Government. Further re-organisation and enlargement to cope with the work in hand has been recommended by Dr. Cumpston the Medical Adviser to the Government, and is under consideration.

Surveys, investigations and designs of town drainage schemes have been prepared by the local authorities who wish to have schemes drawn up. Constructions for several towns like Batticaloa, Panadure, Matara and Vavuniya are in hand.

With the increasing health consciousness of the people there has been a considerable increase in the demand for surveys, investigations and designs of water borne sewage disposal schemes for towns and Government institutions. Sewage disposal in rural areas has also been a matter for special attention.

II. Incidence of Disease

MALARIA

Malaria has been for centuries the major problem in the health bill of the Island. Apart from the large toll of deaths that this disease had claimed from year to year it had sapped the vitality of the people and rendered them incapable of active work either in agriculture or in industry. Many of the major undertakings of the Island in the past had been foiled by the prevalence of malaria. The

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chief malarial season in the large Dry Zone coincides with the period of greatest agricultural activity and has therefore created a problem of the greatest importance in regard to the cultivation of rice, the staple diet of the people.

In addition to endemic malaria which till recently prevailed in nearly two-thirds of the Island, periodic cycles of epidemic malaria have occurred, claiming a heavy toll of life and leaving behind a high degree of morbidity. During 1934–35 an unprecedented malaria epidemic broke out, claiming over 80,000 lives and costing the Government over ten million rupees in relief measures. There had been malaria epidemics in 1906, 1911, 1914, 1919, 1923, 1928 and 1929, but were on a smaller scale. Subsequent to 1934–35, the years 1939–40, 1943–45 and 1945–46 were epidemic years, but owing to the scheme of malaria control in operation the incidence of the disease was not as widespread as in earlier times.

The incidence of malaria over the whole Island has been studied with the help of a weekly return from dispensaries and hospitals. In each of the preceding 15 years, except in the years 1944, 1947 and 1948, there have been more than two and a half million cases of malaria treated at dispensaries. It has, however, to be remembered that the figure relates to hospital visits and not to the number of persons treated. The year 1944 appears to have been a healthy year as judged by malaria morbidity figures. In 1947 the number of cases was almost half the number recorded in the previous year. There was a similar remarkable decline in 1948, the number of cases dropping to 775,276. In 1949 the figure was as low as 727,769. The progressive decline in the malaria morbidity rate argues the success of the scheme of malaria control.

TABLE 6.2. MALARIA MORBIDITY FOR THE ISLAND

Year	*Estimated Population*	*No. of Malaria Cases*	*Year*	*Estimated Population*	*No. of Malaria Cases*
1936	5,631,000	2,947,555	1943	6,134,000	2,141,329
1937	5,712,000	2,308,976	1944	6,276,000	1,672,478
1938	5,810,000	2,053,079	1945	6,496,000	2,539,949
1939	5,897,000	3,210,795	1946	6,695,000	2,768,385
1940	5,951,000	3,413,618	1947	6,879,000	1,350,521
1941	6,020,000	3,220,360	1948	7,086,000	775,276
1942	6,021,000	3,225,477	1949	7,297,000	727,769

TUBERCULOSIS

With the control of malaria, tuberculosis has become the most serious medical and socio-economic problem in Ceylon. For many years the annual number of reported deaths from this disease has been between 3,500 and 4,000 but an estimation of the Island's tuberculosis problem based on reported deaths will be erroneous as the actual death rate is undoubtedly higher. A survey of a sample population, commenced in 1944 in the Urban Council area of Kotte, revealed a tuberculosis morbidity rate of 2.2 per cent. of the population, and a death rate of 470 per 100,000 of the population, while the death rate from notified cases in this area has been between 60 to 80 per 100,000 for the last four years. The rates calculated from this survey are statistically applicable only to Kotte, and cannot be applied to the Island as a whole. The great difference, however, between the two rates gives reasonable ground for the assumption that the actual tuberculosis death rate for Ceylon is much higher than the official rate for 1948, which was 57.5 per 100,000. It is reasonably calculated that while there are at least 70,000 persons in Ceylon suffering from open pulmonary tuberculosis, the actual number of total cases is over 100,000.

FILARIASIS

The problem of filariasis was not considered to be of much Public Health importance until a very large number of cases were detected in the year 1936 in an area in the North-Western Province, where cases had not been recorded previously. This led to an Island-wide survey of filariasis during 1937–39 by which it was possible to demarcate the main endemic areas in the Island.

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This survey has revealed that filariasis is still very localised in Ceylon and its incidence is restricted to areas offering favourable facilities for the prolific and perennial breeding of the necessary types of insect vectors. These areas are entirely restricted to those which offer facilities for heavy breeding of Mansonia mosquitoes. They are usually associated with heavy infestations of floating water plants found at the estuaries of the rivers such as Mahaveli-ganga, Bentota river, Gin-ganga and Nilwala-ganga. The Bancroftian type of filarial infection is restricted to congested towns in the coastal belt which offer facilities for heavy breeding of the *Culex fatigans*.

SMALL-POX AND CHOLERA

The incidence of small-pox and cholera during the period 1939 to 1949 is shown in the following table :—

TABLE 6.3. INCIDENCE OF SMALL-POX AND CHOLERA, 1939–1949

	Small-pox		*Cholera*			*Small-pox*		*Cholera*	
Year	*Cases*	*Deaths*	*Cases*	*Deaths*	*Year*	*Cases*	*Deaths*	*Cases*	*Deaths*
1939	1	—	7	5	1945	711	108	19	14
1940	1	—	1	1	1946	409	67	74	37
1941	167	25	5	1	1947	1	—	—	—
1942	1	1	65	45	1948	8	2	—	—
1943	135	21	63	50	1949	1	—	2	2
1944	124	21	14	12					

LEPROSY

At the end of 1949 there were 2,784 living cases of leprosy (*i.e.*, 1 in 3,000 population) distributed as follows :—

Age		*Sex*		*Type*	
Under 14	*Over* 14	*Males*	*Females*	*Lep.*	*Neu.*
143	2,641	2,004	780	927	1,857

Race					
Sinhalese	*Tamil*	*Moor*	*Malay*	*Burgher*	*Indian*
1,959	219	213	13	59	318

Contacts
15,000

CANCER

The incidence of cancer has risen considerably in Ceylon. According to the Registrar-General's figures the average number of deaths during the decade 1927 to 1936 was 92. By 1948, however, the deaths due to cancer had increased tenfold, *i.e.*, to 919, and the incidence of the disease in Government Hospitals too had shot up from 2,913 in 1946 to 3,086 in 1948.

MAIN CAUSES OF DEATHS

Since 1911, causes of deaths in Ceylon have been classified according to the International List of Causes of Deaths, as revised from time to time, subject, however, to such minor modifications as have been considered necessary to suit local conditions. The fourth revision of the International List which was adopted in Ceylon in 1933, was replaced in 1943 by the fifth revision which is now in use. Owing to the absence of compulsory certification by medical practitioners of causes of deaths among a very large section of the population, the statistics particularly of diseases requiring scientific knowledge for diagnosis, are not claimed to be very accurate.

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The main causes of deaths registered in Ceylon for the three years, 1947, 1948 and 1949 are given below. It will be observed that there is a marked reduction in the number of deaths from Typhoid and Paratyphoid fevers, Malaria and Malaria cachexia and diseases of pregnancy, child-birth and the puerperal state. These are all preventible causes of deaths and a reduction in their numbers is indicative of the fact that the Public Health measures have been effective.

TABLE 6.4. MAIN CAUSES OF DEATHS REGISTERED IN CEYLON

	1947	*1948*	*1949*
All	98,544	93,711	91,889
Infectious and parasitic diseases	17,192	15,837	14,594
Typhoid fever and Paratyphoid fever	1,078	860	872
Influenza	1,306	1,136	976
Tuberculosis	3,842	4,072	4,135
Malaria fever and Malaria cachexia	4,557	3,345	2,401
Ankylostomiasis	1,065	912	850
Cancer and other tumours	881	974	1,059
Rheumatic diseases, nutritional diseases, diseases of the endorcine glands and other general diseases	7,457	6,977	7,571
Acute Rheumatic fever	1,900	1,774	1,777
Mandama	4,513	4,100	4,630
Diseases of the blood and blood making organs	2,100	1,955	2,109
Diseases of the nervous system and of the organs of the special senses	11,172	11,082	10,911
Infantile convulsions (age under 5 years)	8,170	8,115	7,809
Diseases of the respiratory system	11,584	11,203	10,101
Bronchitis	1,040	1,177	1,025
Pneumonia (all types)	8,480	8,096	7,248
Diseases of the digestive system	6,407	6,569	6,710
Diarrhoea and enteritis	4,803	5,036	5,069
Diseases of pregnancy	5,028	4,133	3,295
Diseases of early infancy (includes ratha)	14,894	14,407	13,579
Congenital debility	6,026	5,977	5,557
Premature birth	4,687	4,540	4,172
Rata	3,908	3,550	3,468
Violent and accidental deaths	3,488	3,212	3,245
Pyrexia	5,311	4,333	4,181

III. Control of Communicable Diseases

MALARIA

The first organised and comprehensive study of this disease was undertaken in 1905 when Dr. A. J. Chalmers investigated the indigenous Anopheline mosquito. In 1908, Sir Allan Perry inaugurated a Spleen Survey of the Island. The first Anti-Malaria Campaign was started at Kurunegala in 1911 while in 1913 an investigation of malaria carried out in Mannar Island incriminated *A. culicifacies* as the vector of malaria in that region. Further investigations were carried out in the Jaffna Peninsula, Kalmunai, Galle and Colombo. From 1914 to 1921, however, very little work of any importance was done.

In 1921, H. F. Carter was appointed Malariologist in order to obtain more precise information regarding malaria and the Anopheline mosquitoes in Ceylon and to recommend measures to control the disease. Following his recommendations, Anti-Malaria Campaigns were started in Matara in 1922, Anuradhapura and Trincomalee in 1923. In the year 1927, a Malaria Organisation was set up, whose work was divided into epidemiological studies and malaria control, entomological work

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and major engineering works. Further campaign centres were established at Kurunegala, Chilaw, Puttalam, Badulla and Maho and the control measures were oiling, drainage, filling, &c., directed against the larvae. During the malaria epidemic of 1934–35 and in the years immediately following special attention was given to maternal and child welfare. It was hoped to reduce malaria by improved sanitation and hygiene. Anti-larvae measures were extended to colonisation and irrigation schemes and there was organised a scheme of entomological observations of rivers and streams with a view to forecasting epidemics and also a scheme for oiling of these rivers and streams whenever the malaria vector, *A. culicifacies*, was found to be breeding in them. For the first time in 1939, pyrethrum extract was used as an insecticide for house spraying against the adult mosquito. Very little progress, however, was made and both endemic and epidemic malaria continued.

Immediately after the cessation of hostilities, a scheme of malaria control by residual spraying of D. D. T. was accepted by Government and the first Anti-Malaria Unit started operations at Anuradhapura on November 1, 1945. The success by these operations was phenomenal that by September, 1946, the entire malarial area which carried a population of over four and a half millions was brought under the scheme which has cost the Government approximately eight and three-fourths millions of rupees for the three years 1947–49. The cost per annum per head of population protected works out to about 65 cents.

Statistics reveal the success of these control measures. There has been a striking reduction in the death rates and infant mortality rates in those districts where malaria had hitherto been hyper-endemic. In these areas the crude death rates of 35 to 40 per 1,000 have come down to about 12 per 1,000. Similarly, the infant mortality rate of over 250 per 1,000 has fallen to about 90.

FILARIASIS

A scheme for the control of filariasis was established under the Public Health Department of Ceylon in November, 1947. Its activities which have now been developed to cover all the endemic areas, include field work aimed at spraying oil on stagnant drains, catch pits, &c., where the *Culex fatigans* finds favourable breeding places.

During the 1937–39 survey, 13,100 blood films were taken out in the night from residents in endemic areas and out of these, 1,777 were found positive for microfilariae, and 2,273 clinical cases were also detected. During 1948, 1,027 additional clinical cases and also 400 microfilaria cases were detected. During 1949 further 1,920 clincial cases and 1,421 microfilaria cases were detected out of 19,461 blood films examined. A well-equipped clinic has been established at Dehiwala and also in eight other endemic areas. During the year 1949, 3,256 cases have been treated with Hetrazan at these clinics. Of these 496 have been followed up regularly after treatment and 412 of the following up cases are now free of microfilariae.

The necessity of mosquito control measures has been fully realised and even in the non-endemic areas Medical Officers of Health have been instructed to pay special attention. Suitable legislative powers are provided by way of regulations framed under the Quarantine and Diseases Prevention Ordinance.

TUBERCULOSIS

Before the magnitude of the tuberculosis problem in the Island was fully realised and the major importance of preventive activities appreciated, reliance was placed only on treatment, and the Anti-Tuberculosis Institute was inaugurated in 1915, with two institutions attached to it—the Kandana Sanatorium and the Ragama Chest Hospital. A further sanatorium was opened at Kankesanturai in 1932, while a Chest Clinic at Jaffna was inaugurated shortly afterwards. In 1941, steps were taken to re-organise and extend the Anti-Tuberculosis Campaign. Plans were made for the training of officers abroad for tuberculosis work, for the purchase of additional equipment for diagnostic and therapeutic work, for the provision of more tuberculosis beds, and for investigation and control measures. Chest Clinics were opened at Kandy and Galle in association with the hospitals in these areas in 1947, and special wards were provided for the cases in each hospital. A large number of additional beds were provided by the opening of Welisara Hospital in 1946, and the

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allocation of a part of Keerimalai Hospital for the patients in 1948. In addition to beds made available in certain other Civil Hospitals, there is now hospital accommodation for a minimum of 1,685 T. B. patients in Ceylon.

X'rays and mass radiography are now employed in diagnosis. Mass campaigns of B. C. G. vaccination were initiated in March, 1949, with the visit of a foreign Scandinavian team. This campaign will in future be inaugurated by an all-Island B. C. G. Campaign, through the assistance of the International Red Cross Association.

LEPROSY

The history of the control of leprosy can be divided into two periods, the period before 1932 with compulsory segregation of all cases of leprosy as the only controlling measure, and the period after 1932 with a more humane approach to the leprosy problem with selective voluntary segregation and modern treatment, control of contacts and social welfare of dependants. The scheme for the control of leprosy was based on the accepted theory that the disease is infectious and transmitted by close and prolonged contact and that the only practicable method of controlling the disease was by separating the infective case from susceptible individuals.

Leprosy control in Ceylon consists of two sections, the institutional control and the field control. There are two institutions for the segregation, nursing and treatment of infective cases of leprosy, viz., the Leprosy Hospital at Hendala, and the Leprosy Hospital at Mantivu. An agricultural colony at Urugaha for able-bodied cases is under construction. The field organisation controls the non-infective cases and contacts in their homes and provides treatment in eighteen clinics distributed in the endemic areas.

VENEREAL DISEASES

Anti-Venereal work as such was started in Ceylon subsequent to the recommendations of the V. D. Commission which arrived in this Island in May, 1920. After touring the country and meeting various sections of the people, they established a Ceylon National Council for combating V. D. affiliated to its counterpart in Great Britain. They addressed influential local organisations on the subject of V. D. They distributed free a part of the publicity material brought by them and a part was bought by the Medical Department.

As a result of the visit of the Commissioners and the efforts of the National Association on V. D. three special clinics were established : (1) in the Port of Colombo for the treatment of seamen ; (2) at the Branch Hospital, Colombo, for the treatment of women and children on two afternoons in the week ; and (3) at the Out-Patients' Department, General Hospital, Colombo, for the treatment of males on two afternoons in the week.

A new scheme formulated in 1936 and given effect to in 1938 included the following : (1) Training of an officer in curative and sociological work ; (2) Bringing all sections of the curative organisation as regards V. D. work under one control ; (3) Establishing clinics in the outstation hospitals and dispensaries, training of personnel, provision of accommodation, staff, &c., (4) Publicity to be put on proper lines.

In 1938 the Venereal Disease Ordinance was enacted and can be enforced in any area that it is proclaimed. It prohibits the treatment of venereal disease otherwise than by a registered medical practitioner, or specially authorised practitioner of indigenous medicine. As a result of the emergency created by the World War II regulations were framed in 1942 and 1943, which made venereal disease a notifiable disease, both by the sufferer and by the medical attendant and provides for the prevention of the disease by an individual directly or indirectly.

CONTROL OF CANCER

Cancer treatment in the Island commenced in 1929 when radium was imported into this country, and the imports have increased with the rising incidence of the disease.

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In 1949 more radium was brought into the country costing one and a half lakhs of rupees. In 1942 two Medical Officers were sent for special training in Radiotherapy to Bombay, while in 1944 a new Radiotherapy Department was opened and two Deep Ray Plants (400 and 200 K.V) were installed. The programme for the control of cancer in the Island covers the establishment of : (1) An Information Service, (2) A Detection Centre, (3) A Cancer Diagnostic Clinic, and (4) A Cancer Clinic.

IV. Ceylon and International Health

The World Health Organization, the youngest of the United Nations Agencies, came officially into being on April 7, 1948. This is an important landmark in the history of International Co-operation in the field of Public Health.

The objective of W. H. O. is the attainment by all people of the highest possible level of health, which is defined in the preamble as ' a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease and infirmity '.

The role which the W. H. O. plays in the battle for health is to help countries by placing at their disposal the knowledge and skill needed for the improvement of their own Health Services, and incidentally mobilising all available resources for the solution of problems which lend themselves to international action.

The organs of W. H. O. and their chief functions are :—

(*a*) The World Health Assembly, which is composed of sixty-eight delegates representing the State members, meet in regular annual session to determine the broad policies of organizations, to decide its annual programme and its budget, and to adopt such international health regulations as may be necessary.

(*b*) The Executive Board, which consists of eighteen persons from as many countries designated by the Assembly, meet at least twice a year, to give effect to the decisions and policies of the Assembly.

(*c*) The Secretariat which comprises the organisational, technical and administration staff to carry out the actual day to day work of the World Health Organization has its headquarters at Geneva with the Director-General (Dr. Brock Chisolm) as its head and there are also Regional Offices now at Delhi and the Mediterranean (Alexandria).

The six Regional Organizations are : (1) Eastern Mediterranean (Alexandria), (2) South East Asia (Delhi), (3) Europe (Geneva), (4) America (Washington), (5) Africa, (6) Western Pacific.

In the drawing up of the Programme by the World Health Assembly at its session priority projects were agreed upon on the following principles :—

(*a*) Diseases which lend themsleves to international action—such as Cholera, Malaria and Tuberculosis.

(*b*) The programme should aim at the solution of health problems which exist in large areas of the world.

On that basis the Assembly selected the following for international action : (1) Malaria, (2) Tuberculosis, (3) Venereal Diseases, (4) Maternal and Child Health, (5) Improvement of Environmental Sanitation, (6) Nutrition.

The attainment of political freedom by Ceylon in 1948 enabled her to become a member of the World Health Organization.

In 1948 and 1949, Ceylon's attention was mainly devoted to the obtaining of assistance by way of Fellowships for initiating programmes on Malaria Control, Venereal Diseases, Maternal and Child Health ; six Fellowships were awarded to Ceylon doctors, two each in the above subjects.

In 1950, a more ambitious programme had been drawn up on the following projects : (1) Development of National Tuberculosis Centre, (2) Demonstration team for Malaria eradication projects, (3) Establishment of Health demonstration area, (4) Staff and equipment for the Malaria Field

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Training Centre, (5) Strengthening of the Medical Research Institute, (6) Fellowships, (7) Consultant in Leprosy, (8) Consultant in Nutrition, (9) Venereal Disease Demonstration team, (10) Office Administration team.

CONSULTANT SERVICE

The following Consultant Service was given to Ceylon :—

Malaria.—Dr. Bruce Wilson, visited Ceylon during the early part of the year and made certain recommendations to improve the existing programme. His recommendations will be implemented.

Goitre.—Dr. Dagmar Wilson, made a survey of the prevalence of goitre in Ceylon, and her report, which is expected shortly, might throw some light on the problem of endemic goitre in Ceylon.

Filariasis—Dr. M. O. T. Iyengar, visited Ceylon and advised on the control of both the urban and rural filariasis. He also trained Medical Officers, Sanitary Inspectors and Entomological Assistants to carry out surveys and apply scientific methods in the investigation and control of this disease which is becoming a problem in certain localised areas in the country.

VENEREAL DISEASES

Dr. G. R. Leiby of the University of California, visited Ceylon in 1949, and gave valuable assistance in training Medical Officers and in formulating a programme of Venereal Diseases Control.

MATERNAL AND CHILD HEALTH

Dr. Martha Eliot, the Assistant Director-General, World Health Organization, Geneva, visited Ceylon and advised on the health problems of the country, with particular reference to maternal and child health.

UNITED NATIONS INTERNATIONAL CHILDREN'S EMERGENCY FUND

This international agency aims at the promotion of health among the children of the countries whose health had deteriorated as the result of the Great War. It concerns itself primarily with the provision of supplies and services that are essential for the maintenance of health among children, expectant and nursing mothers.

Ceylon was given an allocation of $100,000 for the year 1949 and a programme had been drawn up to cover (*a*) Fellowships, (*b*) Other national projects, viz., Control of T. B. and V. D.

Under the Fellowship Programme the U.N.I.C.E.F. has approved the request of the Ceylon Government for eight Fellowships on Maternal and Child Health, Paediatrics, Tuberculosis and School Health.

TUBERCULOSIS PROGRESS

Plans have been drawn up in consultation with technical experts such as Dr. Mac-Weeney of the World Health Organization for the implementing of a programme to control tuberculosis, which has now become the most serious socio-economic problem of the Island, after the control of malaria. The cost of the project is estimated to be $64,000. The immediate object is to establish a Tuberculosis Control Demonstration and Training Centre, which will not only render efficient service to a selected group of population, but will also provide training to doctors, nurses and technicians in modern methods of Tuberculosis Control. The ultimate object is to establish six similar centres in other parts of the Island.

In the programme for 1950, it is proposed to obtain necessary assistance from the fund for the training of officers in Maternal and Child Health work.

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AYURVEDIC MEDICAL SERVICES

The Indigenous Medical Ordinance, No. 17 of 1941, which was passed by the State Council in March 1941, provided for the incorporation of the Board of Indigenous Medicine and for the continuance of the College of Indigenous Medicine, the Hospital Pharmacy and Dispensary as Government Institutions. It also provided for the registration of practitioners of Indigenous Medicine. The passage of this Ordinance was responsible for placing Ayurvedic Medicine on a secure foundation.

In August, 1941, Government took over the College, the Hospital and its ancillary institutions, and since then they have expanded considerably and rendered valuable service to the community. The following figures indicate the progressive increase in State expenditure on these institutions :—

1942–43	129,684	1946–47	400,998
1943–44	173,546	1947–48	556,756
1944–45	252,207	1948–49	627,511
1945–46	352,733	1949–50	689,867

Since its inception the College has turned out over 500 practitioners of Indigenous Medicine, the great majority of whom have settled down in rural areas and minister to the needs of the rural population.

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CHAPTER VII

EDUCATION

I. Historical Sketch

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

The system of assisting missionary schools by means of grants began in 1842 when it was decided, owing to difficulties of administration, to close the Government English schools in the Jaffna Peninsula and to make grants to the missionary societies instead. Elsewhere, however, Government returned to the practice of establishing Sinhalese schools. The period from 1841 to 1847 was in fact one of considerable development on the part of Government, which acted through the Central School Commission. The Commission had been established in 1814 on the recommendation of Governor Stewart Mackenzie, who had also laid down that schools should be open to children of all denominations, that children should be taught to read their own language before they were taught English, that books should be translated into Sinhalese and Tamil, and that teachers should be trained.

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

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

(1) Elementary education in Sinhalese and Tamil should be undertaken by Government on a larger scale. More Government schools should be set up, but greater encouragement should also be given to denominational bodies.

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(2) Anglo-Vernacular schools should take the place of ' mixed ' schools.

(3) More central schools (*i.e.*, schools where English and practical subjects were taught) should be established.

(4) The rules as to religious education in grant-in-aid schools should be revoked so as to leave all religious bodies free to teach religion as they pleased.

(5) The School Commission should be abolished and a Department of Public instruction under the Director of Public Instruction established.

These recommendations were put into operation and resulted in a great increase both in Government and aided schools as the following figures indicate :—

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

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

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

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

	1905	*1910*
Government schools	554	759
Grant-aided schools	1,582	1,910

Meanwhile, some effort had been made to develop higher education in the Island. The Cambridge Senior and Junior Local Examinations had been introduced in 1880, and candidates were sent forward by Royal College, and the denominational English schools. The Matriculation examination and Intermediate examination in Arts of the University of London were held in Ceylon from 1882 and 1885 respectively. Also certain of the grant-aided schools were affiliated to the Universities of Calcutta and Madras and prepared for their examinations. By 1897 there was a Government Medical College, whose licentiates were recognised by the General Medical Council ; an agricultural school ; a school for supplying skilled workers for the Railway, Survey, Public Works, and Postal Departments ; and fifteen grant-aided industrial schools. By 1907 the school for skilled workers was known as the Technical College, and in that year a Committee (*see* Sessional Paper XXXIV of 1907) recommended that those who had passed through the College should be preferred for appointment in the technical departments. In 1908 Governor McCallum appointed a Commission to consider ways and means of making the Royal College self-supporting and directed that the question of its amalgamation, in whole or in part, with the Technical College should be considered. The majority of the Commission recommended that Royal College should be maintained as a model institution in spite of the cost, but that the fees should be raised. The Technical

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College was recognised to have been a failure. The Commission nevertheless recommended its maintenance ; but, considering that there was not sufficient demand for trained engineers, did not advocate the introduction of higher classes.

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

The recommendations of the Committee were accepted by the Executive Council and forwarded to the Secretary of State, who consulted the English Board of Education (*see* Sessional Paper XXVI of 1913). All the proposals, except that for a University College, were accepted by the Secretary of State (*see* Sessional Paper VII of 1914) and brought into operation by the Departmental Code of 1914.

Ordinance No. 1 of 1920 provided for the establishment of Government schools in purely non-Christian areas, the closing of missionary schools in those areas, State neutrality in religious instructions and the observance of a conscience clause by Assisted schools. The Department of Education and the Board of Education were given legal status, and the powers of the latter were increased, though it remained advisory. District Committees were set up for the construction of new Government schools, the repair of existing school buildings and the enforcement of compulsory attendance. The whole cost of education was transferred to general revenue.

The Government had for a considerable time found it difficult to raise the standard of teaching in the Assisted schools. Both under the early haphazard grant scheme and under the ' result ' system adopted in 1871, the Assisted schools were left to determine the salaries of their teachers, and neither system permitted of the introduction of incremental scale unless the schools were able to increase their revenue from other sources. Even in the Sinhalese and Tamil schools, where the grant covered most of the expenditure, there was no variation according to the experience of the teachers. The ' result ' system was gradually abolished in the English schools, but the only differentiation even after 1914 was that a higher grant was paid where trained teachers were employed. As a result of pressure from teachers, increased grants were sanctioned to Sinhalese and Tamil schools in February, 1920, in order that higher salaries might be paid ; and later in the same year an increase of 15 per cent. was sanctioned for English schools. The percentage was increased to 30 in the financial year 1920–21. There was, however, no guarantee that the increase accrued to teachers, and it appeared that they gained by 10 per cent. only. Accordingly, the Department decided to lay down minimum salary scales ; and this was done by Circular C 4 of October 14, 1922, for Sinhalese and Tamil schools, and by Circular D 7 of February 26, 1923, for English schools. The scales were incremental and were dependent upon qualifications.

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

The Committee's report was referred to the Board of Education, which approved it, drew salary scales, and defined an adequate staff by reference to maximum units of pupil attendance for teachers of different qualifications. The Board also recommended that the manager's share of the salary cost in English schools should be made constant and drew up a scale of manager's contributions (*see* Sessional Paper XXI of 1925). A Committee appointed to report on a pension scheme produced a draft scheme in the same year (*see* Sessional Paper XVII of 1925). The Board of Education recommended the creation of an Advisory Committee, consisting of members of the Board and teachers' representatives, to advise the Director of Education on the salary scheme and the suggested pension scheme. Some members of the Legislative Council were added later. The salary scheme took effect from October 1, 1925, but was modified in the following year on the recommendation of the Advisory Committee (Sessional Paper XXXIII of 1926). Further details were laid down in the Code of 1927, and the status and prospects of teachers were much improved by the passing of the School Teachers Pension Ordinance, No. 6 of 1927.

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

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

Though the Executive Committee of Education established by the new Constitution took up the University question from time to time, there was still difficulty over the site. This was not settled until 1938, when the New Peradeniya Estate was (in part) acquired. Thereupon it became possible to proceed with the organisation of the University with a view to its transfer to Peradeniya when the site should be ready. The Ceylon University Ordinance, No. 20 of 1942, which fused the University College and the Medical College and provided the University constitution, was passed by the State Council on April 2, 1942.

The Special Committee made a series of far reaching recommendations, chief of which was the recommendation that education should be free from the Kindergarten to the University. After analysing the defects of the educational system it went on to recommend that school education be divided into two clear cut stages, primary and post-primary—the dividing line being at the end of the 5th standard. The primary school was to be a single type of school organised in six stages or classes, while the post-primary school was to be of three types :—

(*a*) Secondary schools leading to the University and Professional Colleges ;
(*b*) Senior schools leading to Polytechnics and Technical Schools ;
(*c*) Practical schools leading to Agricultural and Trade Schools.

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Each of these post-primary schools were to be divided into lower and higher departments, the work of the lower department extending over three years being practically the same in all three types. The complete course in both departments being seven years in the secondary school, five in the senior school and three in the practical school.

The recommended medium of instructions in the Primary school was the mother-tongue. The mother-tongue was so defined that it could be English, Sinhalese, Tamil or Malay, depending on the racial stock of the parents. English was to be a language subject in all primary schools where it was not the medium. Similarly in schools where English was the medium of instructions, Sinhalese or Tamil was to be introduced as a language subject.

In the sphere of examinations two types of tests were recommended—fitness tests and attainment tests. The former was to be held at the conclusion of the 8th standard. The attainment tests recommended were a senior school certificate for pupils completing the senior school course, a practical school certificate for pupils completing the higher practical course in practical schools, a higher school certificate for secondary schools pupils who have passed the senior school certificate and diploma examination for pupils who complete the respective courses of the technical schools, agricultural schools and trade schools.

But the main recommendation was that education should be free from Kindergarten to the University. This included the provision of free board and lodging to poor students where necessary, whatever the type of education they received.

EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION, 1940–1949

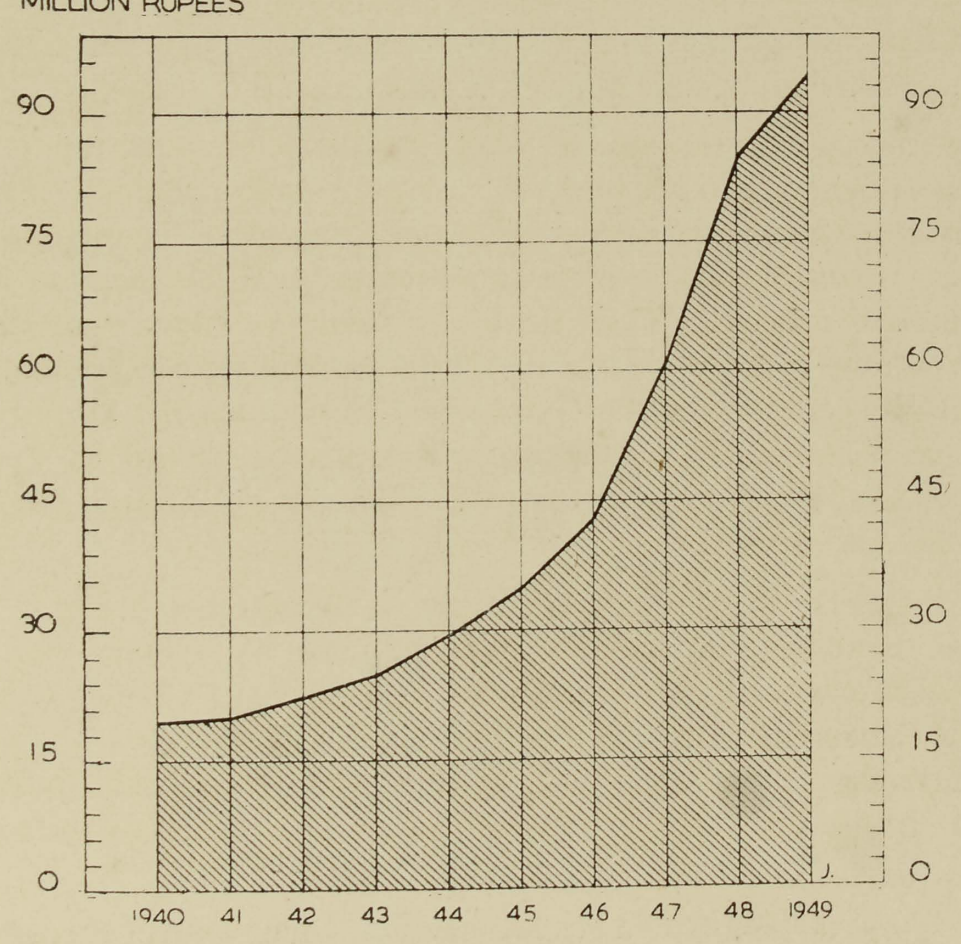

TABLE 7.1 EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION

Year	*Total Expenditure Rs. (Thousand)*	*Per Capita Expenditure*
		Rs. c.
1938	18,498	3 18
1939	19,376	3 29
1940	19,514	3 28
1941	20,110	3 34
1942	22,332	3 71
1943	24,827	4 05
1944	29,557	4 71
1945	34,934	5 38
1946	42,897	6 41
1947	60,954	8 86
1948	84,732	11 96
1949	94,436	12 94

II. Educational System

GENERAL

Primary and Post-Primary education in Ceylon under the control of the Honourable the Minister for Education is administered by the Department of Education, with the advice of a Board of Education and twenty-five Local Advisory Committees.

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Local Advisory Committees have been established in the municipalities and Revenue Districts These Committees which are appointed by the Honourable the Minister for Education and which consist of officials, Members of Parliament and other local representatives, advise the Director of Education on the Educational needs of the areas they represent.

The Board of Education is composed of twenty-five members nominated by the Minister for Education on the recommendation of the Director of Education who is the Chairman of the Board. The personnel of the Board includes Managers of Schools, Representatives of Teachers' Associations and prominent educationalists.

The function of the Board, which is not vested with any administrative or executive powers, is to give advice to the Director on matters relating to education in the Island which may be referred by him to the Board. The members of the Board can also initiate proposals and recommendations.

It is proposed to replace the Board of Education by a Central Advisory Council of Education.

Attendance at school between the ages of six and fourteen is compulsory, subject to few exceptions such compulsion, however, applies only when school accommodation is provided within a reasonable distance from the residence of the pupils. Specially appointed Attendance Officers see to the effective operation of the regulations governing compulsory attendance, and take action to prosecute parents who violate these regulations when gentler methods of persuasion are ineffective.

TYPES OF SCHOOLS

The schools of Ceylon are not divided on a basis of race or nationality. All schools which are maintained by Government or assisted by means of grants are compelled by law to admit pupils irrespective of race, nationality or religion.

There are two distinct types of schools, viz., schools administered directly by Government, and schools assisted by Government and under the immediate control of Managers.

On May 31, 1949, there were 3,135 Government schools. The arrangements for the running of these institutions are entirely in the hands of the Education Department. The number of schools opened by Government in 1949 was fifty-five, comprising five English, thirty-seven Sinhalese and thirteen Tamil schools.

On May 31, 1949, there were 3,257 Assisted schools. These schools are conducted by Managers subject to the regulations laid down in the Code of Regulations for Assisted schools.

There are fifty-five schools which are not assisted in any way by means of Government grants. They are recognised as giving adequate instruction and are subject to inspection by the Department of Education.

THE FREE EDUCATION SCHEME

All education in the Island 'from the Kindergarten to the University' was declared free as from October 1, 1945. Prior to that date fees were not charged in Sinhalese and Tamils schools only.

All Government schools came under the Free Education Scheme from October 1, 1945.

The Free Scheme affected the fee-levying Assisted English Schools mainly. Before October 1, 1945, these schools charged fees and from such fees the Manager had to contribute a fixed sum towards the salary of each teacher he employed. The Government grant consisted of the balance of such salaries.

Under the Free Scheme Government undertakes to pay the entire salaries of the approved staff of a school together with a maintenance and equipment grant calculated at specified rates.

A number of Assisted schools became free schools from the inception of the scheme. The remaining Assisted schools were given time till October 1, 1950, to make a decision on this matter.

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No grant of any kind for any period commencing on or after July 1, 1950, will be paid from Government funds to any Assisted school which did not comply with the revised regulations on or before July 1, 1950.

The only fees that may be levied in any school, Government or Assisted, under the new regulations are :—

(*a*) A fee for the provision of facilities for games or physical training. This fee shall not exceed fifty cents for each month.

(*b*) A fee for the provision of dental treatment. The rate shall not exceed fifty cents for each occasion on which dental treatment is given.

THE MEDIUM OF INSTRUCTION

One of the conditions governing the provision of Free Education was the introduction of the mother-tongue as the medium of instruction in the primary classes of schools. The new system and the consequential changes are thus described in the regulations :—

> ' The mother-tongue of the pupils is the medium of instruction in the primary classes and English is taught as a compulsory second language from Standard 3 upwards in primary classes where the medium of instruction is Sinhalese or Tamil. Where the medium of instruction in the primary classes is English, either Sinhalese or Tamil, at the option of the parents is taught as a compulsory second language. The mother-tongue in relation to any pupil, whose parents are not both Sinhalese or both Tamil, is taken to be that one of the three languages Sinhalese, Tamil and English, which is ordinarily spoken in the home of that pupil, or which, in the case of a Muslim pupil, is approved by the parents of that pupil.'

The medium of instruction in schools varies according to the type of school. In the post-primary classes of English schools the medium of instruction is English with either Sinhalese or Tamil taught compulsorily as a second language. There are a very few cases where English primary classes are allowed in respect of children whose mother-tongue is neither Sinhalese nor Tamil.

In Sinhalese and Tamil schools the medium is entirely Sinhalese and Tamil respectively. In some of these schools an optional course of English for one period a day is given in all classes above Standard 2.

It will be seen, therefore, that broadly speaking according to the system of education prevailing in Ceylon, the pupils are given the following alternative course : (*a*) a full course of instruction in Sinhalese or Tamil ; (*b*) a full course of instruction in Sinhalese or Tamil plus a working knowledge of English ; and (*c*) a full post-primary course of instruction in English with a good knowledge of Sinhalese or Tamil.

ACADEMIC SCHOOLS

In the majority of schools a non-vocational type of instruction which is general and academic is given.

These schools can be classified as follows :—

English Schools	*Sinhalese and Tamil Schools*
Collegiate	—
Central	—
Senior	Senior
Junior	Junior
Primary	Primary
—	Infant

Infant schools are allowed where the attendance justifies the separate organization of such schools.

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Primary schools provide a course of instruction up to and including standard 5.

Junior schools conduct classes from standard 6 to standard 8 and may have classes up to Senior School Certificate with the approval of the Education Department.

Senior schools provide a course of instruction from standard 6 to the Senior School Certificate. With the approval of the Director of Education, Senior schools may have a further course leading up to the standard of the Higher School Certificate and the University Entrance Examinations. These schools may have lower classes starting from the kindergarten, or from standard 2.

Central schools provide a course of instruction from standard 6 upwards to the standard of the Higher School Certificate and University Entrance Examination. They may have primary schools attached to them. Central schools are administered directly by Government. They are established on a territorial basis and have feeder schools. Scholarships are awarded in every Central school to deserving pupils on the results of a special test at the standard 5 state. Scholars are given board, lodging and clothes free. On May 31, 1949, there were fifty-four Central schools.

The introduction of the mother-tongue as medium in the primary classes of all schools has meant in effect that all schools which aim at the English medium in the post-primary classes must adops some form of bilingual education at the commencement of the post-primary stage. The existing bilingual schools have been converted to junior schools.

In addition to the schools, that come under the classification referred to above, there is a class of schools known as Pirivenas which are primarily intended for the Buddhist priesthood. These schools are divided into two grades—Junior and Senior. The syllabus of the Junior Pirivena includes school subjects in addition to an elementary course in oriental language. In a Senior Pirivena only oriental languages are taught.

VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS

Vocational schools are those schools which give a specialized form of instruction. Besides full-time agricultural schools under the Department of Agriculture, there is a Technical College. Many industrial schools and Demonstration Centres are either entirely run by the Department of Industries or assisted by that Department. The schools, as opposed to the centres are run purely as instructional institutions while the centres are organised into Learner Societies soon after the training is over to enable the learners to share profits arising from sale of articles produced with their own capital.

These industrial schools and centres give instructions in the following crafts : textile weaving, coirwork, matweaving and allied work, rattan, brass and ironwork.

Part-time instruction in handicrafts, such as woodwork, ironwork, coirwork, lacework, rattanwork, basketwork, and cloth weaving is given in several Central, Senior, Junior and Sinhalese and Tamil schools. The work is so planned as to provide a course of training preparatory to more intensive industrial training for pupils who are likely to take to an industrial vocation. Handicraft sections are being organized in every Central school.

The only full-time Vocational schools controlled by the Department of Education are the Training colleges for teachers. There are eighteen such institutions, one of which, the Government Training College, Maharagama, provides a one-year course of training for graduates and a two-year course for non-graduates. The other Training colleges train teachers for Sinhalese and Tamil schools. Ten of the institutions are administered by Government and the rest are conducted by various denominational bodies assisted by the Government grants. In these colleges the normal course of training is one of two years.

There are two schools for lepers, one at Hendala and the other at Mantivu.

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ADULT EDUCATION

Since 1939 an organised effort has been made to bring the benefits of Adult Education within the reach of the rural population. With this object in view, evening classes for adults were started in Government schools. These classes were staffed by Government teachers, who were given a small allowance as an honorarium. In 1945 a literacy campaign was launched and the formation of adult classes was further stimulated throughout the Island. Though the actual number made literate is not known, it is believed that the movement produced good results.

While the main aim of these adult classes is instruction in reading, writing and number, other activities like indoor games, talks on useful topics of village life and the encouragement of music, singing and dancing also formed part of the programme of work. Several adult classes have radio sets. The departmental cinema vans visit most of these classes and the shows attract large crowds of village people who welcome such forms of entertainment and the useful information they could gather in this manner.

In May, 1948, a further step was taken by the formation of Adult Centres attached to Government Training Colleges and Central and Senior schools. The staff at these institutions were considered competent to develop a more advanced type of education suitable for even educated adults. In addition to the activities prescribed for adult classes these centres are expected to devote more attention to lectures on History, Health and Civics and to encourage general reading of both newspapers and books. Gramophones have been supplied to these centres and it is hoped to instal radio sets in all of them. The number of centres has now increased to thirty and applications have been received for many more.

Two special officers have now been appointed to organise and work a comprehensive scheme of Adult Education for the whole Island, and the services of an Adviser on Adult Education have been secured from India to assist these officers to make a complete survey and report on a suitable plan, making the best use of all available resources.

Literature and posters suitable for rural adults are being prepared in collaboration with the Information Department and are widely distributed to classes and centres. Steps are also being taken to make use of some of the Information Department films produced locally and to provide Sinhalese and Tamil commentaries to some of the imported films now shown in rural areas.

The Rural Development Department, the Local Government Department, the Mahila Samiti and other organisations continue to do valuable work in the field of Adult Education in Ceylon, and the new scheme will aim at bringing about a harmonious co-ordination of the activities of these and other bodies now contributing towards the welfare of the rural adult.

EDUCATION OF DEFECTIVE AND DELINQUENT CHILDREN

The Ceylon School for the Deaf.—The schools for the deaf and for the blind were separated at the beginning of 1949. This change facilitates planning for the educational needs of the deaf and of the blind separately.

The number on the roll is 130 including thirty-four admissions made during the year. The ages of the children range from three to nineteen. The majority of the children are below the age of ten. Several applications for admission of children from four to eight years had to be refused owing to the lack of accommodation both in the hostels and the classes.

The Principal of the school is a Ceylonese who has been trained in deaf work at the Department of Deaf of the University of Manchester. He is in turn instructing his staff in the latest methods of teaching the deaf.

A modern hearing-aid equipment has been installed in the school.

The children follow a normal course of education with suitable extra–curricular activities up to the age of eighteen, and, as the school-leaving age has been raised to twenty-one, they are given an education with a practical bias during the last three years of their schooling.

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The Ceylon School for the Blind.—The school functions as a unit apart from the school for the deaf. The number on roll is ninety.

A Technical Training school has been started to teach young people a trade till they are twenty-one years of age. The practical subjects so far introduced are rattan work and knitting. Shorthand and typing for the blind were introduced into the curriculum in May. Two students are learning scientific massage.

The prospects of a Sinhalese Braille are favourable in the opinion of Sir Clarke Makenzie, Consultant in Braille to U. N. E. S. C. O. to whom was entrusted the task of evolving a Universal Braille.

Certified Industrial School, Maggona.—This institution is the only male reformatory school for juvenile offenders. The number on roll in 1949 was 465.

The ages of the new admissions range from ten to sixteen. The majority of them were sentenced by courts in the Western Province.

The boys were taught the following trades in the workshops of the intsitution :—

Carpentry, tailoring, printing, book-binding, iron work, kitchen and infirmarians' work.

There are two schools in the premises—one, a Sinhalese school and the other, Tamil. Classes are held in the afternoon. Satisfactory work was done in both the practical and the school sections. The results were : 129 passed out of 138 presented.

The Jail Schools at Welikada and Mahara continue to do satisfactory work.

III. University, Legal and Technical Education

UNIVERSITY OF CEYLON

At the opening of the session in 1949 there were 1,814 students in residence, as compared with 1,611 at the corresponding date in 1948. Of these 1,228 were in Thurstan Road (an increase of 133), 558 in the Faculty of Medicine in Kynsey Road (an increase of sixty), and twenty-eight in Peradeniya (an increase of eleven). There was a further increase in October due to new admission in the Faculty of Medicine and to the opening of the Post-Graduate Course in Education, for which thirty students were accepted. The number of students in October therefore exceeded 1,850 which means that in seven years the University has more than doubled the number of students.

TABLE 7.2. COMMUNITIES OF STUDENTS, 1949

Community	*Oriental Studies, Arts and Science*		*Medicine*		*Total*		*Grand Total*
	Men	*Women*	*Men*	*Women*	*Men*	*Women*	
Sinhalese	618	164	275	40	893	204	1,097
Tamils	316	70	175	19	491	89	580
Burghers	22	13	29	—	51	15	66
Moors and Malays	34	1	5	—	39	1	40
Others	12	4	11	4	23	8	31
Total	1,002	254	495	63	1,497	317	1,814

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TABLE 7.3. RELIGIONS OF STUDENTS 1949

Religion	*Oriental Studies, Arts and Science*		*Medicine*		*Total*		*Grand Total*
	Men	*Women*	*Men*	*Women*	*Men*	*Women*	
Buddhists	479	116	170	21	649	137	786
Hindus	226	43	117	13	343	56	399
Roman Catholics	102	32	92	13	194	45	239
Other Christians	141	60	108	15	249	75	324
Muslims	35	1	8	—	43	1	44
Others	19	2	—	1	19	3	22
Total	1,002	254	495	63	1,497	317	1,814

TABLE 7.4. HOME RESIDENCE OF STUDENTS, 1949

Home Residence	*Oriental Studies, Arts and Science*		*Medicine*		*Total*		*Grand Total*
	Men	*Women*	*Men*	*Women*	*Men*	*Women*	
W. P.	551	161	319	50	870	211	1,081
N.-W. P.	42	6	15	—	57	6	63
N. P.	182	25	82	7	264	32	296
N.-C. P.	8	11	2	—	10	11	21
C. P.	75	18	21	—	96	18	114
E. P.	13	5	1	1	14	6	20
Sabaragamuwa	35	9	9	—	44	9	53
Uva	7	3	2	—	9	3	12
S. P.	89	16	43	5	132	21	153
Burma	—	—	1	—	1	—	1
Total	1,002	254	495	63	1,497	317	1,814

There have been increases from all Provinces except the Southern Province. The proportion from the Western Province is slightly less than in 1948, while that from Northern Province has again increased from 14 per cent. to 16 per cent.

In view of the figures in Table 7.4 it is of some interest to ascertain where the students are living in Colombo. The following are the figures :—

TABLE 7.5. PLACE OF LODGING OF STUDENTS 1949

	Oriental Studies, Arts and Science		*Medicine*		*Total*		*Grand Total*
	Men	*Women*	*Men*	*Women*	*Men*	*Women*	
At Home	342	112	185	31	527	143	660
In Hostels	167	21	44	—	211	21	232
Elsewhere	493	121	266	32	759	153	912
Total	1,002	254	495	63	1,497	317	1,814

It will be seen that rather more than one-third of the students are living with their parents, while over 900 are living with friends or in lodgings. It is quite impossible to assess how many students,

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particularly women, are deprived of University education because of the lack of hostel accommodation. The removal of the Faculties of Oriental Studies, Arts and Science to Peradeniya will solve many problems, but it seems clear that efforts are necessary to provide Halls of Residence for 300 men and 30 women in the Faculty of Medicine.

There was only a slight increase in the number of candidates at the University Entrance Examination, possibly because the ' private ' candidates under twenty-two are now scrutinized so as to keep out those who have not the remotest chance of success. Many of these candidates have entered on two or three previous occasions. The following are the figures :—

TABLE 7.6. UNIVERSITY ENTRANCE EXAMINATION

	Candidates			*Admitted*		
	1947	*1948*	*1949*	*1947*	*1948*	*1949*
Oriental Studies, Arts and Law	786	758	717	233	159	219
Science and Agriculture	288	312	264	77	70	65
Medicine and Veterinary Science	310	450	584	102	114	113
Total	1,384	1,520	1,565	412	343	397
Percentage	100	100	100	29.0	22.3	25.4

The above analysis of candidates exhibits a swing away from Arts and Science and towards Medicine. What is more, the quality of the Arts and Science candidates appears to be deteriorating. The explanation is no doubt to be found in present employment conditions. Though the prescribed standard was everywhere insisted upon, the admission in Arts and Law increased ; it did not quite reach the 1947 figure, but it was above the 1946 figure, when the prescribed standard was not insisted upon. There were only seven qualified candidates in Agriculture and none at all in Veterinary Science. A special entrance examination was therefore held in May and twenty candidates who had previously applied for Medicine were accepted. In view of certain changes in future entrance examinations it will be possible for candidates who cannot be offered places for Medicine to be offered places for Veterinary Science.

TABLE 7.7. STUDENTS ACCORDING TO RACE

	1942	*1945*	*1946*	*1947*	*1948*	*1949*
Sinhalese	519	624	803	952	977	1,114
Tamils	289	337	383	468	492	592
Burghers	54	64	64	73	65	67
Moors and Malays	25	28	37	45	40	40
Others	17	12	15	26	15	31
Total	904	1,065	1,302	1,554	1,589	1,844*

TABLE 7.8. STUDENTS ACCORDING TO RELIGION

	1942	*1945*	*1946*	*1947*	*1948*	*1949*
Buddhists	345	402	552	686	686	798
Hindus	201	202	241	287	330	406
Christians	338	420	453	514	508	573
Muslims	27	28	36	47	44	43
Others	3	13	20	20	21	24
Total	904	1,065	1,302	1,554	1,589	1,844*

* Includes 30 students who joined in October.

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TABLE 7.9. DEGREES AWARDED, OTHER THAN HONORARY DEGREES

	1943	*1944*	*1945*	*1946*	*1947*	*1948*	*1949*	*Total*
Ph.D.	—	1	—	—	—	1	2	3
M.A.	—	1	2	4	—	2	4	13
M.Sc.	—	—	1	1	—	—	—	2
B.A.	44	59	64	56	66	87	108	484
B.Sc.	20	22	27	31	33	40	44	217
M.B., B.S.	23	36	34	61	43	70	59	326
B.D.S.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total	87	119	128	153	142	200	217	1,046

TABLE 7.10. STUDENTS FOLLOWING SPECIALIST COURSES (SECTION B) IN ARTS AND SCIENCE

	1942	*1945*	*1946*	*1947*	*1948*	*1949*
Arabic	—	—	1	2	1	1
Indo-Aryan	8	—	—	—	—	—
Sanskrit	—	5	12	12	27	23
Pali	—	8	10	17	19	11
Sinhalese	13	15	22	30	25	29
Tamil	3	3	2	1	6	7
English	6	13	8	12	10	14
History	25	15	13	13	21	26
Economics	43	34	46	47	71	84
Philosophy	—	4	3	7	20	15
Western Classics	14	16	15	12	7	6
Geography	14	17	23	22	20	15
Mathematics	11	9	12	9	10	12
Physics	7	12	14	13	12	12
Chemistry	18	29	24	24	24	32
Botany	9	10	9	9	9	10
Zoology	2	2	2	5	13	16

THE LAW COLLEGE

The Ceylon Law College which is controlled by the Incorporated Council of Legal Education exists for the supervision and control of the legal education of students desiring to qualify themselves as advocates and proctors of the Supreme Court. The Council consists of the Judges, the Attorney-General, the Solicitor-General, and such other persons of standing in the legal profession as the Judges may appoint. The members hold office for three years at a time. The academic qualifications requisite for admission in the case of advocates are (1) a degree in Arts or Science of any University in the British Empire, (2) a pass in the Intermediate Examination in Arts or Science of the University of London or the First Examination in Arts or Science of the University of London or the Higher School Certificate Examination of the University of Ceylon ; in the case of proctors (1) a degree in Arts or Science of any University in the British Empire, (2) a pass in the Matriculation Examination of the University of London or the Intermediate Examination in Arts or Science of any Indian University, or the Senior Local Examination of the University of Cambridge, or the Cambridge Senior (English) Examination with credit standard in English and Latin, provided always that the candidate shall adduce proof that he has passed an examination in English and Latin, such examination be either the examination on which he relies for his qualification or some one or other of the aforesaid examination of any University in the British Empire.

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Admission to the Ceylon Law College takes place in the month of September and the number of students admitted during the years 1948 and 1949 were :

	1948	*1949*
For the Advocates course	21	29
For the Proctor's course	64	47

The staff consists of sixteen lecturers appointed to hold office for a period of three years at a time, and a Principal.

The examinations provided for by the Rules of the Incorporated Council of Legal Education are held in the months of December and August, the examiners being appointed annually. The number of candidates who in 1948 and 1949 entered for these examinations, and the number successful therein were as follows :—

	Entered		*Passed*	
	1948	*1949*	*1948*	*1949*
Examinations for the admission of Advocates	142	130	87	84
Examinations for the admission of Proctors	427	382	182	165

THE CEYLON TECHNICAL COLLEGE

The Ceylon Technical College was recognised by the London University in 1941 for preparation of students for its external degree in Engineering which examination is held annually in Ceylon.

In 1942, it was separated from the Education Department to constitute an independent Department under the control of the Executive Committee of Education. Along with this separation a complete re-organisation was effected increasing considerably the scope and functions of the College.

The courses conducted in this institution are as follows :—

Engineering Section

(*a*) 1. Four year course for the College Diploma and the B.Sc. Engineering (London) in Civil, Mechanical, and Electrical Engineering. Four year course for the College Diploma only in Chemical Engineering. London Matriculation is the minimum qualification for entry and admission is on the results of an entrance examination.

2. Two year course for Junior Technical Officers—S. S. C. is the minimum qualification for entry and admission is on the results of an entrance examination.

3. Two year course for Apprentices—A part time day course meant for apprentices from Government technical departments and firms who are released for two days in the week.

4. One year course for Draughtsman—Full time day course for the preliminary training of Draughtsmen. Qualification for entry is the S. S. C. and admission is on the results of an entrance examination.

5. One term course in Motor Mechanism—This is a part-time course conducted in English and the national languages and deals with both the theoretical and practical aspects of the subject.

(*b*) Evening Engineering Courses—A preliminary course (Course B) of one year's duration in General Science is conducted before specialization in the branches of Engineering given below. Students who have passed the S. S. C. with Mathematics and Physics are exempted from the preliminary course in General Science. Three year courses in Electrical Engineering, Mechanical, Municipal and Structural Engineering, Architecture, Building Construction and Surveying and Levelling.

(*c*) Evening Vocational Courses—

1. Three year courses in Workshop Practice, Carpenters' Drawing and Printing.

2. Two year courses in Chemistry and Radio Servicing.

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3. One year course in Electric Wiring and Practical Plumbing.
4. One term course in Motor Mechanism for Owner Drivers. No qualifying examination is specified for above except for Radio Servicing for which an elementary knowledge of Physics is required.

Commerce Section

1. Four year day course for the Diploma in Commerce—The minimum qualification for entry is the London Matriculation and admission is on the results of an entrance examination.

   Students successfully completing the first two year's course will be awarded the Preliminary certificate in Commerce.
2. One year day course in Stenography—Students who have passed the S. S. C. or higher examination are admitted to the course. Those who do not possess the minimum qualification will be required to sit for an entrance examination in English.
3. Two year afternoon course in Commerce—Minimum qualification is the J. S. C. Admission is on the results of an entrance examination. Students with S. S. C. or higher qualification are admitted direct.
4. Three year evening course in Accountancy—The minimum qualification for entry is the S. S. C. Preference will be given to those who have served as audit or accounts clerks for two years or more either in a Government Department or a firm.
5. Two year evening course in Inter Commerce—The minimum qualification for entry is the London Matriculation or exemption therefrom. Admission is on the results of an entrance examination.
6. Two year evening course in Book-keeping, Shorthand and Typewriting—Minimum qualification for entry is the J. S. C. ; admission is on the results of an entrance examination. Students with S. S. C. or higher qualification are exempted from the entrance examination.

Arts and Crafts Section

(*a*) 1. Three year course in Drawing, Painting, and Sculpture.
2. Two year course for English Teachers' Drawing Certificate.
3. One year course for the Vernacular Teachers' Drawing Certificate.
4. One year evening course in Painting.
5. One year evening course in Photography.

(*b*) 1. Two year weaving course leading up to the Industrial Teachers' Certificate examination in weaving.
2. One year course leading up to the Industrial Teachers' Certificate examination in weaving.
3. Three other courses in (1) Pottery, (2) Lacework, (3) Coirwork, each of one year's duration.

Vocational Teachers' Training Course

Practical training was given to the trainees from the Training College in Workshop Practice and Methods and Commerical subjects.

A course of training for teachers in Art and Arts Crafts and Mechanical Sections is being conducted since October, 1948.

Bursaries are provided at this institution to deserving students. Scholarships and Exhibitions are awarded to those who come first and second in order of merit in each class.

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CHAPTER VIII

THE PRESS

I. Development

At the beginning of the British period in Ceylon, there were a few printing presses maintained by the various missionary societies for the purpose of publishing books of religious value. In the early years private enterprise was reluctant to enter the field, for, as Colebrooke pointed out, there could be no Press in this country so long as the Governor retained the right to banish a person from the Island without any trial whatsoever. The only Press that existed in the country prior to 1831 was the *Ceylon Government Gazette* which could hardly merit the name of a newspaper. It was started in March, 1802, and published every Saturday. On Wednesdays and Saturdays it issued a Supplement containing interesting articles and patches of foreign information. The *Gazette*, however, could not claim to be a real newspaper since it generally refrained from commenting on matters of political importance.

Apart from the *Government Gazette* the first newspaper in the country was the *Observer*. Prior to this newspaper there was the *Colombo Journal*, started on January 1, 1832, under Government authority and with the blessings of the then Governor, Sir Robert Wilmot Horton. Its first Editor was George Lee, Superintendent of the Printing Office, and he was assisted by no less a person than the Governor's own son-in-law, Mr. Henry Tuffnell. It is evident therefore that even this journal was in no sense free and independent. At best it was an instrument to vindicate the rights of the Government. The Home Government, however, did not approve of the continuance of the paper and it was wound up in 1883 after a short life of two years.

The Home Government held that the task of running newspapers could best be left to private enterprise and the latter began at last to display less reluctance in venturing into this hitherto unexplored field. On October 4, 1834, the merchants of Colombo combined to start a newspaper called *The Observer and Commercial Advertiser*. Two merchants Messrs. G. Acland and E. J. Darley were the prime movers in this enterprise and they started the *Observer* under the editorship of Mr. George Winter. He was succeeded by Mr. E. J. Darley and next by the distinguished Dr. Christopher Elliott, who took charge of the newspaper on July 24, 1835. It was at about this time that the newspaper changed its name to the *Colombo Observer*. Dr. Elliott was the first to introduce personal journalism into the country. As such, much of what he wrote was avidly read by the newspaper public both for its pungency and forthrightness. Dr. Elliott's campaign against the Government assumed such virulent proportions that on May 3, 1837, the *Ceylon Chronicle* was started with the private connivance of Governor Horton. It was edited at first by Rev. S. O. Glenie, but as the church authorities did not seem to approve a clergyman's venture into journalism he was succeeded by Mr. George Lee, the then Postmaster-General. The *Ceylon Chronicle* did not have a long life since the public servants were split, a section supporting the *Observer* and another the *Chronicle*. It came to an end on September 3, 1838, having lived an uneventful life of just over one year.

The *Chronicle's* type and printing presses were bought over by one Mr. Mackenzie Ross who on September 7, 1838, started the *Ceylon Herald*, which developed into a violent opponent of the then Governor, J. A. Stewart Mackenzie. In 1842, it was taken over by Mr. James Laing who reversed the policy of the paper by his ardent support of the Government. In 1846, the paper was bought by a group of men whose specific intention was to compete with the *Observer*. Thus began the *Ceylon Times*.

There were two other newspapers of not very great significance which preceded the birth of the *Ceylon Times*. There was the *Ceylon Advertiser and General Intelligencer* which was started with the particular purpose of giving sufficient and in fact added prominence to news rather than to political

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problems. It was owned and edited by a Mr. Fullerton but lived only a short life of six months, from September, 1845, to April, 1846. The other newspaper was the *Examiner* which was begun on January 7, 1846, under the editorship of a Mr. Bessell.

Meanwhile the *Observer* continued its vigorous and controversial existence under the masterly editorship of Dr. Elliott. During the troublous times of 1848 the *Observer* was looked on with suspicion by the Government. In 1858 Dr. Elliott's editorship came to an end when he decided to accept the post of Principal Civil Medical Officer to the Government. Thereafter the paper came under the energetic influence of A. M. Ferguson. During the period of reforms, the *Observer* played an active part in sponsoring the aspirations of this country. Besides, it also served as a valuable means, for recording the researches of enterprising members of the planting community. Since there was a need to preserve these findings in some permanent form, the *Observer* started the ' Tropical Agriculturist ' in June, 1881, as a monthly journal. It continued to live an eventful life under the auspices of the *Observer* till 1904 when it was taken over by the Ceylon Government. It still exists as an official publication.

At about the time 1860 the three newspapers in the country, the *Observer*, the *Ceylon Times* and the *Examiner* were published twice a week. In 1867 the *Observer* was made a tri-weekly and its name was changed into the *Ceylon Observer*. From 1873 onwards the *Ceylon Observer* became a daily paper. The planting interests continued to utilise the paper as a medium for communicating their views especially on agricultural problems. The *Ceylon Observer* took an active part in exposing the oppressive nature of the paddy tax and at the same time it continued its role of being one of the foremost agitators in the demand for constitutional reform.

The outbreak of World War I, had serious effects on the financial position of the *Ceylon Observer*. Costs of production rose very rapidly and this was perhaps one of the factors which led to it being taken over by the European Association in 1920. Thereafter it continued for a short time to serve as the organ of the European interests, but the support from the latter was inadequate. As a result it changed hands and in January, 1923, Mr. D. R. Wijewardene took over the *Ceylon Observer* and Mr. C. Drieberg was appointed Editor. In 1926 Mr. Wijewardene's publications were taken over by the Associated Newspapers of Ceylon, Ltd., and the *Observer* too was included in this group.

The *Examiner*, which had been started in 1846, was essentially the organ of the mercantile interests. In 1853, the proprietor of the paper, Mr. R. E. Lewis sold the paper to three men among whom were Mr. Cuffe and Mr. John Selby. During the 1860's the paper played a leading part in the demand of constitutional reforms. Those interested in it were men of such eminence as C. A. Lorenz, who was for some time its editor, James D. Alwis and Sir Harry Dias. In 1871, after Mr. Lorenz's death, the paper passed on to Messrs. Leopold Ludovici and Francis Beven both of whom were keen politicians in their day. During the seventies the paper fell on evil times due to the prevailing economic depression and after Mr. Ludovici's death it was bought over by a company which consisted of prominent Ceylonese. The paper, however, was never run on business lines and finally had to stop publication on December 31, 1900.

The Ceylon Times which had been started in 1846 was like the *Examiner*, the representative of mercantile interests. In 1858 Mr. John Capper took over the paper ' when it was on its last legs.' In 1874, Mr. Capper sold the paper to a company but the latter did not prosper and it was taken over once more by Capper. Thereafter it made very satisfactory progress and it was during this time that it changed its name to the *Times of Ceylon*. In 1904, the *Times* started a morning issue called the *Morning Times* but it did not survive for long. The evening paper, however, continued publication.

Other newspapers that have had a short history in this country are the *Ceylon Standard* started in January, 1898, as a daily morning paper and the *Ceylon Independent*. The first number of the latter was issued on July 4, 1888. It was the first penny newspaper in this country. Another influential paper was the *Ceylon Morning Leader*, edited by Armand de Souza. At a later stage another morning paper called ' *The Ceylonese* ' came into existence but did not last long.

In 1918, Mr. D. R. Wijewardene started the *Ceylon Daily News*. Its first leader-writer was the late Mr. F. F. Martinus, a noted journalist of his day. Others who have been connected with it were

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the late J. R. Weinman, and Messrs. S. J. K. Crowther, A. V. Kulasingham, H. A. J. Hulugalle, H. D. Jansz and the late Orion de Zylva. It has to-day the largest circulation among English newspapers in the Island and is the only English morning daily in the country.

II. The Growth and Development of the Sinhalese Press

Sinhalese literates form by far the largest section of the educated population of the Island and the Sinhalese Press has in the last century played a vital role in disseminating knowledge among people.

It is interesting to recall that the beginnings of Sinhalese printing date back to the early part of the eighteenth century. A letter dated July 28, 1884, sent by John Murdoch, L.L.D., to A. Haley, Esq., Secretary of the Colombo Museum Committee states :—

> ' The first Sinhalese Printing Press was established by the Dutch Government about 1736. Then the Colombo Bible Society was formed in 1812, it expended its funds in the first instance in providing Sinhalese type and furnishing a printing office. The Wesleyan Mission established a press in Colombo in 1815, to which the Bible Society's Presses were removed . . . . In 1862 the Buddhists with the aid of the King of Siam established the Lankopakara Press at Galle. Not long afterwards the Society for the propagation of Buddhism established a Press in Colombo which was followed by others.'

The evolution of the Sinhalese printing type to its present excellent standard is due to the efforts of the Wesleyan Mission Press.

The honour of the first Sinhalese Newspaper goes to South Ceylon, where also was laid the foundations of the renaissance of modern Sinhalese literature. Nearly hundred years ago, in 1860 during the regime of Governor Sir Charles Justin Macarthy, *Lankaloka*, the first Sinhalese Journal was published in Galle under the editorship of the eminent orientalist W. P. Ranasingha.

Lakrivi Kirana and *Lakmini Pahana* were started in 1862, the former was edited by Don Charles Weerakody, and the latter by Koggala Dhammatilaka of Sav Sat Dam Vada fame. *Lakmini Pahana* existed only for about five years and though it was later revived by Dhammaratana, that erudite exponent of Buddhist metaphysics, it lasted only for a short period.

A feature of these early efforts in journalism was the absence of social and political news in striking contrast to the Sinhalese paper of to-day. This is probably due to the slow progress in political affairs at a time when Ceylon was under Colonial administration. Religious controversies and literary themes were burning topics of the day and were given prominence in the columns of these papers. A Catholic Magazine called the *Arunodaya* edited by C. D. N. Benedict was started in 1862, followed four years later by the weekly *Nanartha Pradipaya*.

When *Lakmini Pahana* ceased to exist in 1867, a fortnightly periodical entitled *Satya Margaya* began to cater to the readers of its forerunner. *Samaya Sangraha* (1872) edited by Hikkaduwe Sri Sumangala and *Satya Samuccaya* (1873) by Ratmalane Sri Dhammarama were two periodicals which provided the battlefield for scholars of two distinct schools of thought to display their divergent views in matters relating to religion, philology, and other learned topics.

Kavata Katikaya, the local counterpart of the ' Punch ', which saw the light of day in 1872, was a deviation from the prevailing type of Sinhalese Journalism. Pelis Appuhamy or more popularly called Kavata Katika Pelis Appuhamy was a keen wit and humourist, and his regular feature ' Hanuman's Travels ' teeming with biting social satire and sparkling wit was read with keen relish by young and old alike. In 1880 the *Sarasavi Sandaresa*, a weekly was started with Veragama Punchi Bandara as its editor. This was the organ of the Buddhist Theosophical Society and as such it played a prominent part in furthering the cause of Buddhist education sponsored by Colonel Olcott who with Anagarika Dharmapala, founder-editor of the weekly *Sinhala Bauddhaya* (1912) were the pioneers of Buddhist reawakening.

Muhandiram G. Henderick Perera Senaratne's *Dinakara Prakasaya* and *Hitavadi* edited by Pandit Karunaratne were newspapers which enlightened public opinion and were held in high esteem.

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One of the pioneer dramatists of the early eighties C. Don Bastian also known as Don Bastian Jayaweera Bandara, started publishing the *Dinapata Pravritti* in 1896 which has the distinction of being the first Sinhalese daily. *Sinhala Jatiya*, which was started as a monthly magazine in 1902 by Piyadasa Sirisena, the famous novelist was later converted into a weekly.

In 1909 the *Dinamina* came into existence. H. S. Perera, the editor of the *Sarasavi Sandaresa*, due to some differences of opinion with the Theosophical Society which conducted this paper collaborated with Pandit D. J. B. Wijesekera, who was then an Inspector of Schools run by the society, in launching the *Dinamina* (Sun) which came into being as the oponent of the *Sandaresa* (moon). H. S. Perera published the *Dinamina* at the Lankabhinava Vistruta Press which was then owned by Robert Batuwantudawa. Publication of short advertisements in Sinhalese papers originated with H. S. Perera by publishing translations of such advertisements that appeared in the *Times of Ceylon* and *Ceylon Observer*.

The *Dinamina* was bought over by Messrs. D. R. and D. C. Wijewardene in 1914, and Pandit D. J. B. Wijesekera succeeded H. S. Perera as editor. In that epoch making edition of the *Dinamina* of March 2, 1915, published to commemorate the centenary of the capitulation of Ceylon, Wijesekera's article on ' Sri Wickrama Raja Sinha ' was read with such great interest that a reprint had to be produced a week later to satisfy the urgent demand. Successive editors like N. H. Jinadasa, D. W. Wickremarachchi, Alexander Weliwitta, and to come to recent times Mr. Martin Wickremasinghe the famous author and novelist and Mr. P. Nissanka have been responsible for the success it has achieved to-day.

At the start the size of the *Dinamina* was much smaller than what it is now and had only four pages. Since 1914, the size of a paper has been 23½ in. × 17 in. with seven columns to a page each column measuring 2.1 inch. The price of this paper has been five cents for a considerable length of time, but in recent times it was increased by two cents, and later since late in 1950 it was priced at ten cents a copy with ten pages. The *Dinamina* is the most widely read paper to-day having a circulation of over 70,000 per day. The Rotary was used for the first time for printing a Sinhalese paper when the Lake House was established and when *Dinamina* began to be printed on it.

Lakmina was started about the year 1912 by Reginald Fernando as a daily newspaper and it lasted for a period of nearly a decade and a half.

Silumina was started in 1930 with P. Nissanka as editor and is the only Sunday Illustrated Sinhalese paper. It counts over a lakh of readers and its present editor is Srilal Liyanage. This paper spelt the death knell of *Swadesa Mitraya* (1928) a weekly paper edited by D. W. Wickremaratchi a former editor of the *Dinamina*. Wickremaratchi was one of the most enterprising and industrious of modern journalists.

Lankadipa started in 1947 is the youngest Sinhalese daily. It is priced at twelve cents and is an eight page paper. Ever since the Donoughmore Constitution, and with the political advancement of Ceylon a number of political pamphlets and newspapers have arisen. Some of them are the *Sinhala Balaya* (1929), now no more, the *Siya Rata*, *Peramuna*, and the *Sama Samajaya* published weekly or fortnightly.

III. The Development of the Tamil Press

Tamil journalism in Ceylon has hit a century and ten years. To the American Missionaries goes the credit of having launched, after a sojourn of a score and five years in this fair Isle, the first Tamil newspaper. The object of the first Tamil newspaper was summed up in the editorial address of the first issue of the *Uthayatharakai*, which was published from Manipay in Jaffna on Thursday, August 7, 1841, in the following words :—

> ' Being actuated by a desire to communicate to our countrymen important information, we have undertaken to edit this periodical, imitating the Europeans in the improvements they have made by such means. We hope that this small beginning may open the way for more extensive improvements and that others may be encouraged to make similar attempts for the purpose

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of diffusing knowledge. It will be our endeavour to communicate from time to time, as we are able, articles on sicence, commerce, agriculture, Government, Christianity and whatever may tend to the improving of the mind together with such news as may transpire from different quarters of the world.'

Uthayatharakai was published as a bi-monthly and consisted of eight pages quarto size and priced at four shillings a copy. Later on, the bi-monthly became a weekly and published excellent translations from well-known English standard works in literature and philosophy, treatises on mathematical topics and short news items. Yet in the words of Sir Emerson Tennent it was considered ' to communicate such a portion of secular knowledge as may expose the errors prevalent among the people, exhibiting, at the same time, the purer attributes of Christian moralities and the civilising influence of Christian life.'

As the *Uthayatharakai* was Protestant in outlook, the Catholic missionaries founded the *Sathiya Vetha Pathukavalan*, a weekly in 1876.

Now it was the turn of the Hindus. Hinduism was passing through a grave crisis. The champion reformer of the Hindus the great Arumuga Navalar appeared on the scene and created a religious and literary renaissance whose results persist even to this day. He felt the pressing need for a newspaper. But his sudden death in 1879 put a stop to all activities in this direction. In 1888 his idea was taken up by a band of Hindu stalwarts and under the presidentship of Vidvasironmani N. S. Ponnampalapillai, the distinguished nephew of the Navalar, the Saiva Paripalana Sabhai was founded. The Sabhai in the same year began publication of a fortnightly, the *Inthusathanam*, under the editorship of T. Kailasapillai. In 1895, this fortnightly was transformed into a weekly and in 1913 made a bi-weekly.

It was not until 1930 that Ceylon could have a Tamil Daily newspaper. An Indian Chettiar started the *Virakesari* for the benefit of the Ceylon Indians. The following year *Thinakaran* made its appearance, launched by the Associated Newspapers of Ceylon, Ltd.

The era of pedestrian journalism has passed. The two leading Tamil dailies *Thinakaran* and *Virakesari* can be compared favourably with any English newspaper. Excluding these, there are four weeklies, the *Thinakaran Sunday Illustrated, the Virakesari Sunday Illustrated, the Eelakesari* and the *Sutantiran Weekly*.

IV. Newspapers and Periodicals

The following newspapers and periodicals were being published in 1949 :—

DAILY

English

Daily News
Ceylon Observer
Times of Ceylon
Reuters Commercial, Financial and Shipping Service

Sinhalese

Dinamina
Lakmina
Lankadipa
Communist

Tamil

Thinakaran
Virakesari

TRI-WEEKLY

English

Racing Guide Sporting News

BI-WEEKLY

Hindu Organ (English and Tamil)

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WEEKLY

English

Catholic Guardian
Ceylon Catholic Messenger
Ceylon Law Weekly
Ceylon News
Contact
Morning Star (English and Tamil)
The Nation
Times of Ceylon (Mail Edition)
Times of Ceylon (Sunday Illustrated)
Trespasser (Racing and all sports)
Samasamajist
Sporting Times
U. N. P.

Sinhalese

Jatyantera Samasamajaya
Kawata Kella
Nanartha Pradipaya
Nidahasa
Peramuna
Samasamajaya
Silumina
Sinhala Bauddhaya
U. N. P. (Siyarata)
Viplavalari Samasamajaya

Tamil

Desabhimani
Eelakesari
Gandiyam
Islamia Tharakai
Muslim Friend
Navayugam
Sutantiran
Thamilmani
U. N. P.
Virakesari Sunday Illustrated

FORTNIGHTLY

English

Ceylon Fortnightly Review
Colombo Special
Free Ceylon
Muse
New Law Reports
Searchlight
Socialist

Sinhalese

Buddha Lokaya
Hurathalie
Kawata Lamissi
Kawata Muththa
Viduliya

MONTHLY

English

Baptist Messenger (English and Sinhalese)
Beacon
Bosat
Buddhist
Ceylon Causerie
Ceylon Customs Returns
Ceylon Journal of Education
Ceylon Home and Garden
Ceylon Churchman
Ceylon Men
Ceylon Planter's Society Bulletin
Ceylon Tax Payer
Ceylon Trade Journal
Colombo Co-operative Magazine (English and Tamil)
Co-operative Wholesale News (English and Tamil)
Herald (Religions)
Journal of the Dutch Burgher Union of Ceylon
Loris
Old Paths
Outdoor Life
Probation Journal
Record
Symposium
Tropical Agriculturist
University of Ceylon Review
Wind Mill Magazine
Young Writer or Business Express

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MONTHLY (*continued*)

Sinhalese

Ahinsa
Baudha Lamaya
Bhaktiperobodhanaya
Indrani
Kawata Sundari
Kiviyara
Lamalokaya
Nawa Lokaya
Piyuma
Samajawadi Peramuna
Siripura
Dedunne
Eliya
Ediya
Gamsabha Pravurthie
Guruwaraya
Kaw Kamali
Kivi Tharuwa
Lanka Adyapana Samjarawa
Lama Tharu
Navamina
Pabulu
Pasal Uyana
Sri Lanka
Sinaraser
Sinhalaya
Sudharma
Tilaka

Tamil

Islamic Surian
Kilakku Murasu

Sunday Only

QUARTERLY

English

Ceylon Journal of Science
Journal of the Ceylon Branch of the Royal Asiatic Soicety
Orchidologia Zeylanica
Royal College Magazine (English, Sinhalese and Tamil)
Tea Quarterly

Sinhalese

Diyunuwa
Sasana Parihaniya
Samupakaraya

V. Ceylon Publications, 1949

The Ceylon Littoral, 1593—DR. P. E. PIERIS.

Some Vertebrate Animals of Ceylon I—P. E. P. DERANIYAGALA.

Sinhala Akuru—REV. A. DHAMMAKUSALA.

A Short Economic Survey of Ceylon—DR. DAS GUPTA.

The Roman Dutch Law of *Fidei commissa* as applied to Ceylon and South Africa—T. NADARAJA.

Report of D. R. Rutnam, appointed to advise the Hon'ble the Minister of Transport and Works, Ceylon, on Transport conditions in Ceylon. Vols. I.—II.

Independent Ceylon—The First Year, February 4, 1948–49.

Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society (C. B.) No. 107—1949.

Sinhalese–English Dictionary by DR. M. D. RATNASURIYA AND P. B. F. WIJERATNE.

Sinhalese Dictionary—DR. A. P. DE ZOYSA, Vol. II.

Students' Guide to University Education in Ceylon—SIR IVOR JENNINGS.

English–Pali Dictionary—PANDIT WIDURUPOLA PIYATISSA, MAHA NAYAKA THERO.

Bird Life in Ceylon—CICELY LUSHINGTON.

Birds of Ceylon I.—W. W. A. PHILLIPS.

Petakopadesa, Edited by A. BARUA.

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Souvenir of the Festival of Arts (3rd–10th February, 1949).

Ceylon Today—DEPARTMENT OF INFORMATION.

The Senator—H. C. N. DE LANEROLLE.

Instroducing Ceylon—H. A. J. HULUGALLE.

The Constitution of Ceylon—SIR IVOR JENNINGS.

Dalada Sirita—MRS. VAJIRA RATNASURIYA.

Island Story—J. VIJAYATUNGA.

Canon Ekanayake of Colombo—PERCY WICKREMASINGHE.

The People of Ceylon—DR. N. D. WIJESEKERA.

This list has been prepared with the assistance of the Director of National Museums, the Librarian of the Ceylon University and the Librarian of the Public Library. It does not purport to be a complete list and does not include Sessional Papers.

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CHAPTER IX

ARCHAEOLOGY, NATIONAL MUSEUMS AND ASPECTS OF CEYLON CULTURE

I. Archaeology

SCATTERED throughout the length and breadth of the Island of Ceylon are numerous ancient monuments and other relics of the past, bearing witness to its long and varied history, a record of which is available in ancient chronicles and other literary sources for a period of over two thousand years beginning from about the fifth century B.C. The vast majority of these monuments are of a religious character and testify to the ardour of ancient kings and nobles, as also of the common man, for the cause of Buddhism—the religion which still counts as its adherents sixty-five per cent. of the Island's population. Many of these shrines are still the centres of religious worship and are in charge of the various religious organizations, while others have been ruined and abandoned to the jungle which now covers a good part of what were once the centres of great social, political and religious activity. Apart from the sentimental interest with which these relics of the past are naturally considered by the people as the handiwork of their ancestors, they are of considerable interest to students of history, religion, architecture and art. Many hundreds of inscriptions, found at ancient sites, not only enable us to supplement and to study critically the historical information contained in the ancient chronicles, but they also unfold the story of the evolution of the Sinhalese language and script during a period of two thousand years.

ARCHAEOLOGICAL SURVEY

The Archaeological Survey of Ceylon has been engaged, though with restrictions, in the clearing, excavation, conservation and interpretation of these memorials of the past. The Antiquities Ordinance, No. 9 of 1940, places the administration of antiquities in the Island on a sound footing and brings it into line with the policies pursued by englightened Governments in other parts of the world with regard to cultural matters. One of the most important features of this Ordinance is that it makes provision for the protection of monuments which have passed into private ownership and provide machinery to prevent further irreparable damage to many ancient shrines of historic and artistic value in the course of restorations by individuals and societies whose religious zeal is not combined with any appreciation of aesthetic values.

The vote for archaeological work for 1948–1949 stood at Rs. 1,188,002, the highest sum voted in any single year and over five times the provision that existed five years ago. This improvement in its financial resources is not only a very gratifying index of the growing interest taken by the authorities as well as by the public in the study and conservation of the nation's cultural heritage of some twenty-four centuries, but has also enabled the Department of Archaeology to extend its activities to a much wider sphere. Apart from work continued at Anuradhapura, Mihintale, Polonnaruva, Sigiriya, Parakramapura (Panduvas-nuvara), Yapavu and Jaffna, which are stations in charge of a resident archaeological officer, the monuments at a number of places in various parts of the Island received attention.

CONSERVATION

The work at the principal stations was mainly the conservation of monuments, mostly those that have been brought to light during recent years. At Anuradhapura conservation work was carried out at the Dakkhina-Thupha and the King's Pleasure Garden ; at Mihintale on the Kantaka-Cetiya and the retaining walls of the Convocation Terrace (Sannipata Sala) at Polonnaruva on the remains unearthed in the Alahana Parivena and on Nissanka Malla's Bath near the Rest-house. At Sigiriya the restoration of the stone work of the moat and of the site of the draw-bridge was continued and the conservation of the ruins of Kassapa's palace on the summit, excavated by Bell so far back as 1895, was taken in hand. The last-named is a particularly arduous piece of work, for the necessary

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material has to be transported along a pathway which most visitors find it almost impossible to traverse. At Medirigiriya the work was mainly centred on the construction of a motorable road from the end of the Irrigation road at Hingurakgoda to the Vatadage. Work was also started on the construction of a motorable road, over three miles in length, to Buduruvagala near Wellawaya, where there is a group of colossal images which are probably unique of a Mahayana character on the face of a cliff.

EXCAVATION

Under excavation may be included the work of dismantling the base of the eastern vahalkada of the Ruvanveli Dagaba at Anuradhapura. What remained of this structure had been tampered with about half century ago and the contents of a large number of relic caskets had then been appropriated, the empty caskets being used in the masonry of the reconstruction work then carried out. The two side wings of the structure had, however, been overlooked and in them were brought to light a number of relic caskets, mostly of limestone but some of earthenware, with their contents intact. The finds were, on the whole of the same nature as those in the southern vahalkada excavated by the Restoration Society in 1944, and consisted of reliquaries of gold sheet or crystal, beads, trinkets, &c.

An excavation work which created considerable interest was that at Beddegana in Kotte. Here, at a site known as Veherakanda were brought to light the remains of two small *stupas* on an oblong rectangular platform, the sides of which were faced with blocks of laterite (cabook). The *stupas* had been ransacked by robbers, but the investigation of the interior of the larger one furnished details of the two relic chambers, the upper one of which was of unusual interest on account of its exterior shape. The excavations did not bring to light any evidence to settle the identity of the site but the *stupas* themselves testify in favour of the tradition preserved among the people of the place, embodied in the name Vehera-kanda, against the theories of learned men who would see on this site the remains of Mahasen-Dev-raja-paya the shrine of the War God.

EPIGRAPHY

In the field of Epigraphy, too, the year has been fruitful. A discovery of unique interest was a copper plate charter dated in the 27th year of Vijayabahu I (1058–1114 A.D.) found in Morawak-Korale of the Southern Province. This is so far the oldest known copper plate found in Ceylon. It registers the privileges granted by Vijayabahu I. to a high military officer of Rohana, who helped him to restore Sinhalese sovereignty in his own person, after the Island had been subjected to the Cholas for over half a century. Another important inscription of four lines inscribed in stone was discovered during the year at Anuradhapura. It records an endowment to a *pirivena* of the Southern Monastery by a valet (*Kappaka*) named Sumana. The inscription is dated in the fifth year of a king named Dathopatissa, and it is valuable as it belongs to the first half of the seventh century, a period where dated inscriptions are very rare. Two other important inscriptions found during the year are, a slab inscription similar in contents to the Vevalketiya inscription already published, found on the Bakamuna-Giritale road, and a slab (partly destroyed), recording disciplinary rules for *bhikkhus*, found in Kurunthanmalai of the Vavuniya district, both inscriptions belong to the 10th century.

II. National Museums

The National Museums of Ceylon commenced with the founding of the Colombo Museum in 1877. Since then three other Museums at Kandy, Ratnapura and Jaffna have been opened both for the benefit of the people in the Provinces and to preserve for posterity the antiquities and the rich and varied culture in the different parts of the Island. These Museums are repositories of national collections pertaining to the natural history and culture of Ceylon. Not only are they institutions of popular education, but are also centres of advanced scientific researches, the results of which are published in the Museum Bulletin, *Spolia Zeylanica*, for the use of scholars both in Ceylon and abroad. Among the collections are the fishes, reptiles, birds and mammals of Ceylon, minerals and gems, fossils, stone implements and bone artifacts of Stone Age man in Ceylon, and other traces of his culture phases, jewellery, brassware, bronze and ivory images, stone sculptures,

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wood carvings, weapons and armour, masks, pottery, antique painted cloths, copies of ancient frescoes, medieval prints of Ceylon subjects and the like. The small staff of the Museums Department makes these collections from remote jungles and rural parts of the Island.

The rapid flow of acquisitions has resulted in heavy overcrowding and a large number of important objects have to be kept in storage for lack of space for displaying them to the public. The Ethnological Survey of Ceylon, suspended during the period of war, has been resumed and some of its results have been published.

Each Museum has an Advisory Committee of its own whose function it is to advise the Director on matters connected with its development.

The expansion of the Educational Service of the Museum is among the latest activities of the Department. Guide Lecturers conduct school children round the galleries, explaining the exhibits in English and the vernaculars as needed. During 1949, over 104,000 school children were thus conducted, while the total number of visitors at all the Museums exceeded 700,000.

The results of the research work done in the Colombo Museum Laboratory, are published in the Museum Bulletin which helps to augment knowledge in the field of education, and is of great value to scientists all over the world.

The international recognition of the work done by the Ceylon Museums has resulted in its representations at conferences, and on expeditions conducted abroad, the exchange of specimens and publications between Ceylon, and the Museums and Scientific Organisations all over the world, and in the appointment of the Director as Honorary Herpetologist to the Indo-Pacific Fisheries Council for exploiting the Indian and Pacific Oceans, as Adviser to the American Foundation for the Study of Man at Washington, and as Adviser to the U.N.E.S.C.O., Editorial Board of the International Museums Section.

The rehabilitation of the Colombo Museum after the war has progressed rapidly. The replacement of the showcases that were damaged is now half completed, and the collections exhibited on up-to-date lines of Museum display in newly designed showcases. The entire collections have now increased to such an extent that a very large number of exhibits are stored away for want of accommodation in the present building. The construction of a new wing has been under consideration and is long overdue. The Kandy Museum is too small for its collections and is expanding into a part of the Palace of the last King of Ceylon. The Ratnapura and the Jaffna Museums are also over-crowded. The provision of proper buildings for these provincial museums, is among the most pressing needs of the department.

A book on the Elephant of Asia is nearing completion. New light is thrown upon the distribution of this elephant from Mesopotamia to China and into Islands upon the Sunda Shelf, namely, Sumatra, Java, and Borneo. Six new races are described, namely, *Elephas maximus*, *asurus*, from Mesopotamia, *Elephas maximus persicus* from Persia, *Elephas maximus dakhunenisis* from Peninsular India, *Elephas maximus sondaicus* from Java, *Elephas maximus borneensis*, from Borneo and *Elephas maximus rubridernis* from China. Of these, the Mesopotamian, Persian, Javan and Chinese races became extinct in historic times.

The Colombo Museum Library, mainly built up by the research work of Museum officers, offers an opportunity to study the results of work done in other parts of the world as well as that of Ceylon's workers. At present the library has a total number of about 60,000 volumes and 3,500 Palm Leaf Manuscripts. Many valuable books have been added recently as donations, by purchase, and in exchange for Colombo Museum publications. Over 1,000 publications from about 440 scientific institutions were received during this year in exchange. The Museum Library is one of the main instruments in working out the Museum collections and is regarded as one of the finest scientific libraries in the East. It is open for reference to approved research students.

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A regular series of public lectures on a variety of Ceylon subjects such as Ceylon's Natural History, Palaeontology and Geology, Archaeological Antiquities and Anthropology are frequently delivered at the Colombo Museum Lecture Hall.

III. Aspects of Ceylon Culture—Ceylon Painting

Although there are numerous references in early Pali and Sanskrit Literature to ' Picture Halls ' (Chitra-Salas) or Art Galleries and allusions to the nobility occupying themselves in painting even in India there is little visible evidence existing to-day of early paintings. But for a few remains in the Mirzapur District the whole period before Ajanta is a blank.

The original ' Picture Halls ' were made of wood, clay or bricks. Paintings on such foundations would hardly last many generations. Therefore, although painting itself flourished with vigour posterity was deprived of its evidence.

In Ceylon, too, we should be surprised to see actual evidence of very early paintings. But we find clues by which we can trace painting to the earliest times in Sinhalese history. Emerson Tennent once claimed for Ceylon the honour of having used oil colours for the first time in history. But this was due to a mistranslation of a word in the *Mahavamsa.* We find painting referred to in the *Mavavamsa* in the matter of painted vases in the reign of Devanampiyatissa (307 B.C.). We also read in the *Mahavamsa* that Dutugemunu (161–137 B.C.) commanded artists to depict numerous scenes from the life of the Buddha and particularly the Vessantara Jatakaya in the relic chamber of the Ruwanweli Seya. As Dutugemunu lay dying, Saddha Tissa, after having covered the half-finished Maha Tupa with cloth, commanded painters to make on it ' a Vedika duly and rows of filled vases likewise and the row with the five-finger ornaments.'

King Jetta Tissa (332 A.C.) can be said to have been the first Royal Art Master in Ceylon, having taught the subject to many of his subjects and carried out many arduous undertakings in painting and sculpture.

Fa Hian, the Chinese Pilgrim (400 A.C.) states that on a certain occasion either side of the road was decorated with representations of the Buddha in previous births and that these figures were all painted beautifully with diverse colours.

Havell has observed that there was no known process of tempera or oil painting which would withstand exposure to tropical weather for nearly fifteen hundred years as the Sigiriya paintings have done, being in open rock pockets with hardly any shelter from the elements.

The earliest examples of Sinhalese art surviving in Ceylon to-day are the world famous pictures at the rock fortress of Sigiriya (fifth century A.C.). These twenty-one three-quarter length figures of women, bearing a close affinity, if not a resemblance, to the pictures at Ajanta, display a full knowledge of the human form and a sureness of line associated with a Master. There is a lyrical quality of rhythm and a subtle sense of refinement about these sensuous ladies whose portraits are perhaps the only example of art for art's sake we have from the past.

What do the Sigiriya figures represent ?

There have been many theories. H. C. P. Bell thought they were ladies of parricide Kasyapa's court on their way to a nearby temple carrying flowers and moving in one direction. Ananda Coomaraswamy was of opinion that they were Apsaras because the figures were cut off at the waists by conventional clouds. Havell mixed up both these theories and wrote : ' The subject is a procession of royal ladies, supposed to be Kasyapa's queens with attendants bringing floral offerings to a shrine which seems to be located in the Tusita Heaven for the figures appear to be half immersed in the clouds—the usual convention for heavenly spheres.' Martin Wickramasinghe surmised they were women engaged in water sports and has identified one of the instruments in one woman's hand as a water-throwing gadget. Nandadeva Wijesekera considered these figures as Kasyapa's queens mourning for the Royal Husband. Paranavitana has suggested that they are symbolic representations of clouds and lightning painted round the rock to make it resemble Mount Kailasa.

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However close in style the Sigiriya pictures are to those at Ajanta, the thickness of the plaster, the limitation of the colours to natural earths and the presence of alterations, show that the colours have been laid on while the plaster was yet wet and are true fresco in technique and not tempera as has been proved in the case of the Ajanta pictures, with their wide range of colours, over-coatings and thinness of the plaster.

Ananda Coomaraswamy inclined to the view that the Sigiriya frescoes were the product of an isolated school of painting directly imported from India and disappearing in Ceylon soon after, leaving no trace behind.

But two recent discoveries, one at Maiyangana and another at Anuradhapura have shown that it was no such flash-in-the-pan school.

In January, 1950, when a tenth century relic-chamber was opened up at the ancient dagoba of Maiyangana, a scene of the Buddha resisting the temptations of the Maids of Mara under the Bo-Tree was discovered painted in the same style and technique as the pictures at Ajanta. The lively dancing girls especially were of high artistic merit.

In 1950 the Arachaeological Department discovered at Veluvanarama, Anuradhapura, after being covered by lime-wash for centuries, pictures of the Bodhisatva in Tusita Heaven before he took his last human form. These pictures show the same excellence of line and brush work, the same strength and richness in colour as displayed at Sigiriya and are in fact reminiscent of the famous Bodhisatva Padmapani of Ajanta. The shrine belongs to the 12th century ; and although seven centuries after Sigiriya and two centuries after Maiyangana, here we see the definite continuation of an art form hitherto unsuspected due to lack of evidence. Rather than being an isolated example the Sigiriya style was perhaps the beginning of the laborious cultivation of a technique that lasted seven hundred years, until it gradually gave place to South Indian influence of simple story-telling in a series of pictures as has been done by the medieval Sinhalese artist called the ' Sittara '.

That painting was taken for granted in Ceylon in the 12th century is seen by references in Sinhalese texts. *Sasadavata* speaks of the *Kokum* flower as the red tinted brush with which the canvas of the hearts of husbands and lovers are painted. The same book compares a brief summary of a Jataka story to an outline made by a Sittara of a picture.

Buthsarana (13th century) impresses the greatness of the Buddha as an admirable picture created by an artist. *Saddharma Ratnavaliya* (of the same century) has many references to pastes made by painters with such details as the mixing of *divul* gum with colours to make them last longer.

Elu Attanagaluvamsa (14th century) refers to a five storeyed edifice which was decorated with indescribable varieties of mural painting.

Gira Sandesaya (15th century) warns the parrot not to be deceived by the pictures of fruit-laden trees full of parrots on walls but to be delighted by their beauty.

Only Thotagamuwe Sri Rahula (15th century) in the *Selalihini Sandesaya* refers to the actual style of the painting : ' True friends, alike in weal and woe, show not their backs, like pictures on the wall '. This allusion is perhaps the convention of the Sittara never to paint a figure with its back to the beholder. Most of the figures were done in profile or at three quarters in order to indicate movement of the story. Only the Buddha, the gods or kings were given the unique privilege of front view as they became the centre of a picture.

Sevul Sandesa (late 16th century) describes the painting in a Hindu temple near Sitawaka thus : ' Beholding with a heart filled with boundless joy the painting representing in detail the war between Rama and Ravana, the war of the Mahabharatha, and the wars of the auspicious Skanda, and the wars waged by Iswara against the Asuras in ancient times '.

Ganadevi Hella (18th century) says that after the walls were daubed with clay and smoothly plastered with lime, an artist was engaged who painted pictures of *makaras* and *hansas*, *gawaras*, leopards and pretty *kovlas*.

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In the *Nilakobo Sandesa* (18th century) the poet addresses the parrot thus : 'Sit quietly on the fruit-laden *kaduru* tree and behold the *ambalama* built at Polonnaruwela adorned with paintings of lions and leopards, as if by the advent of Viswakarma with his mighty power '.

But all allusions to painting in Mediaeval Sinhalese Literature show that at no time did we have any philosophy of art. It was always regarded entirely either as decorative or didactic in aim. The Sinhalese have never known what is called art for art's sake. It was only a means of glorifying religion. The Sittara evidently knew no inspirational, spontaneous outpourings of a full heart on canvas in the quick creation of a masterpiece.

In painting, the temple wall was the canvas ; religion the theme ; and narrative the objective. The Sittara with his paint and brush turned the walls into epics in colour in which the devotee could scan the sacred stories. Art for the peasant was only a medium through which an exemplary life could be taught to the sinner and the sacred knowledge revived in the memory of the saint. It was primarily an attempt to present the spirit rather than the form, a story rather than an idea. But this story was told in as attractive a way as possible.

Such an art had necessarily to be traditional in technique, decorative in execution, idealistic in conception and symbolic in design. Perspective and shading, light and shadow were unessential to Sinhalese painting.

To understand this idealism and symbolism it is best to study the methods of picturisation of particular objects in our mural paintings. Take the trees or flowers, for instance, in Sinhalese traditional art. Now, when we look upon numberless trees in various lights, the impression created in the mind is that they are irregular growths of branches and leaves producing a confused effect of light and shade. But when we analyse this impression it will be seen that although, each tree has a different and unique scheme, yet the branches and leaves conform to a certain particular form with variations—the branches assume a standard manner of growth ; the leaves an average arrangement of their being. When the Sittara painted on the wall a tree, it was not the image of any one tree in particular. It was both a symbol and an ideal. The mango tree was, for instance, the embodiment of the concept of some perfect and rythmical idea of the tree. It was, in a way, the average soul or spirit of all trees of the species the artist had in mind.

The treatment of the lotus was similar. It was the reduction of many and varied complex forms of the flower to some common denominator in art and expression in the one of the many. It was concentrating all the subjective emotion created by the sight of many lotuses into one unlike likeness, an ideal to be used as a symbol.

On the same principles the human figure and animals drawn by the Sittara were not realistic. The Sittara was clearly not illustrating a work in natural history. He was telling a story. The breaking of common rules of realism was imperative to the nature of his art—in order to give a certain idealistic personality and individuality to his art.

How was the majesty of the Buddha, who is described ' unfettered, quiescent and absolutely pure in mind ', to be depicted ? Or how was the nobility of the horse whose ' neigh was the sound of a storm ' and ' who is swift as the wind and stately as the lion ' and ' has a gait of a dancer ' to be drawn ? The expression of these abstract ideas was of more value than the exact imitation of the natural form.

The Ceylon Sittara overcame the limitations of realism to depict the ideal by by-passing realism with a staggering latitude. Parts of the anatomy were exaggerated. The neck and shoulders were made massive ; the waist, narrow. The bones and veins were glossed over, making the limbs supple and rounded, as smooth as a woman's, for, superman combined the perfection of both sexes but transcended them all. It was a technique which created a symbol of spiritual rebirth by which a man's form could be translated into a god's.

In the case of the lion, the Sittara gave it the lion's share of idealism with a vengeance. He expressed the whole personality of a race of men in the peculiar creature he created which would have made any thinking lion alive, if he had an ounce of sense, call a policeman !

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In such an art it would be absurd to search for perspective or prettiness. As a matter of fact, most Sinhalese paintings when looked upon through spectacles of modern realism seem grotesque and uncouth. But in vivacity and dignity, chasteness and sureness, they are tense in every line.

In the choice of colours the Sittara had a preference for different shades of yellow and red. Blue and green were used only occasionally to bring out the details in a design. All figures had a clear outline in black. The preponderance of yellow and red shades was due to circumstances under which the Sittara worked. His canvas was the temple wall, usually a dark interior with subdued or faint light. The object of the artist was to impress an image in the minds of the beholder at a glance. Thus the colours had necessarily to be brilliant in order to catch the eyes in subdued light. The black outlines gave point and precision and defined the figures at a first glance. The blue, green and the brown introduced here and there gave a softening effect wherever required. Although the colours and shades were limited, the Sittara made clever use of these. The limitation was more an incentive to stimulate the inventiveness of the painter than to damp his ardour.

But it was in the sphere of design that the Sittara gave full expression to his inward genius. From early childhood boy Sittara learned to master the curve which he later worked into intricate patterns that stir with tense life.

The Sittara being chiefly a decorative and symbolic artist lived in a fantastic world of his own, peopled by fabulous creatures, mythical birds and fanciful flowers of his own creation. The *Makara*, for instance, was a whole Zoological Garden summarised in lines into an elaborate pattern. It has the trunk of an elephant, feet of a lion, ears of a pig, the body of a fish, the teeth of a monkey and the tail of a swan. And to think that the origin of the design was a representation of a crocodile ! Another fabulous creature was the *Kindura* whom Monier Williams and Dawson call a Centaur. There is no half-horse, half-man, in Sinhalese art. What we have is quite enough, thank you ! The *Kindura* is half-man and half-bird, and the bird, if anything, is a swan, playing on a flute. The *Kinduras* are supposed to live in the Himalayas. Another design from the Himalayas is the *Nari-lata-wela*, a creeper of which the flower is a woman in all wise so beauteous to behold that it is known to have shaken the strong vows of hermits. From the Himalayas only one design takes a bold step further and reaches Heaven itself. This is the *Kadupulmal* or *Parasatu*, the flower of the tree under which god Sakra sits on his throne. The ornamental hilt of a sword and the suggestion of a lotus combine to make the pattern of this flower whose scent is said to be felt four hundred *gous* (leagues) away.

Quite a number of examples of work done in medieval times by the Sittara are extant to this day. The more famous and precious of this legacy are seen at the temples of Degaldoruwa, Ridi Vihare, Dodantale, Dangirigale, Lankatilaka, Totagamuwe and Ganegoda. A number of temples in the south like Mulgirigala also have preserved these frescoes of the pre-British era.

Dr. Ananda Coomaraswamy in his monumental work *Mediaeval Sinhalese Art* (1905) has recorded these folk art forms before they disappeared. This testament of beauty of 400 double royal pages with 50 full page plates and innumerable line illustrations reads to-day like the dying deposition of a fast sinking culture. The book is noteworthy for the interest it created, among not only the Sinhalese but also foreigners, in Ceylon's artistic heritage.

With the coming of the British and the fall of the Kandyan Kingdom, the art of the Sittara has suffered years of neglect and lack of patronage. Western (if not Victorian) art, depending on perspective, light and shade has almost driven the simpler but more effective and decorative art almost out of existence.

More than any other influence to kill the older art was the work of M. Sarlis who painted a series of pictures of the life of the Buddha in gaudy colours with so much light and shade and representation of the three dimensions that there was left very little art in them. An enterprising commercial firm sold these cheap German oleographs by the thousand to almost all Buddhist homes and these gradually became the models for a new hybrid style of painting. Sarlis did in Ceylon on a bigger scale what Ravi Varma had already done in India in a minor key. And even Buddhist monks who wished to have Vihares painted insisted on this new desecration in gaudy, heavily-varnished paint.

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One of the Shrines saved for posterity from this Vandalism was the reconstructed Raja Maha Vihare at Kelaniya. When the new wing was built, the walls were painted with pictures in the old art tradition of Ceylon coming down from Sigiriya and Ajanta. Solius Mendis, who had never undergone any technical training in the western manner, has done at Kelaniya a series of pictures that may be considered the best work done in Ceylon after the Polonnaruwa period, if not Sigiriya.

On January 18, 1951, at the Governor-General's residence, Queen's House, a historic conference was held the object of which was the formation ol an Arts Council of Ceylon on the model of the Arts Council of Great Britain. The memorandum discussed at this conference said :

'For many centuries in Ceylon the artist and craftsman mainly relied for his employment on what we should now call public works and services, and for his remuneration and livelihood upon the patronage of the Kings, the Temples and the Aristocracy.

Since the beginning of the 19th century, two causes have gravely prejudiced his position and prospects :

(1) The elimination of the Kings, the impoverishment of the Temples and the Aristocracy and the loss of their patronage ;

(2) The spread of industrialism, and the mass-production and importation of domestic products.

The second cause, industrialism, has been injurious to art and particularly to craftsmanship, all over the world.

In mediaeval times, both in Britain and Ceylon, the most important patrons of Art were the King and the Church. But in Britain, unlike Ceylon, when the power and resources of the Royal House and the Church declined, their places were taken by the aristocracy and rich merchants whose wealth, in a country rapidly growing more wealthy, enabled them to gratify their ostentation, or their taste, by the patronage of painters, musicians, craftsmen and architects.'

With reference to the decline of art and craftsmanship in Ceylon the memorandum said :

'Although there are encouraging signs of a revival of interest in painting, music, dancing, drama, and craftsmanship, it is doubtful whether without some organised effort to stimulate, assist and guide this revival, the un-coordinated activities of various individuals and societies will meet with any lasting success.'

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CHAPTER X

JUSTICE, POLICE AND PRISONS

I. The Judicial System of Ceylon

SUPREME COURT

THE Supreme Court consists of a Chief Justice and eight Puisne Justices. It has appellate and revisional jurisdiction in civil matters and as a general rule it exercises no original jurisdiction in civil cases. However, under Ordinance No. 2 of 1891 it is a Colonial Court of Admiralty. It has also jurisdiction under the Indian and Colonial Divorce Act, 1946, to make a decree for the dissolution of a marriage and as incidental thereto to make an order as to damages, alimony, maintenance and custody of children where the parties to the marriage are British subjects domiciled in England or in Scotland.

The Supreme Court has original jurisdiction in criminal cases and exclusive jurisdiction in respect of more serious offences such as homicide, rape, and the graver types of house-breaking and robbery. In practice it seldom tries cases which do not fall within its exclusive jurisdiction. It usually sits with a jury and tries cases committed for trial by a Magistrate's Court. It also exercises appellate and revisional jurisdiction in criminal cases. The Supreme Court may pass any sentence authorized by law. It has also the power to issue writs of *habeas corpus*, *mandamus*, *quo warranto*, *&c.*, and also to disenrol Advocates and Proctors who are found guilty of deceits, crimes or malpractices. Special jurisdiction is conferred on the Supreme Court to hear election petitions.

DISTRICT COURTS

The District Courts, of which there are at present twenty-four in the Island, have unlimited original civil (including testamentary and matrimonial) jurisdiction and criminal jurisdiction in respect of all offences which are not within the exclusive jurisdiction of the Supreme Court. District Courts try only cases committed to them for trial by Magistrates' Courts.[1] District Courts may pass any of the following sentences :—

(*a*) Imprisonment of either description for a term not exceeding two years ;
(*b*) Fine not exceeding one thousand rupees ;
(*c*) Whipping ;
(*d*) Any lawful sentence combining any two of the sentences aforesaid.

When a person is convicted at one trial of any two or more distinct offences the aggregate punishment it can award is twice the punishment mentioned above.

Under sections 3 and 4 of Ordinance No. 2 of 1891 the Minister of Justice has power to appoint a District Court to have a limited Admiralty jurisdiction. The District Court of Colombo alone has been appointed to exercise such jurisdiction.

MAGISTRATES' COURTS

There are thirty Magistrates' Courts and seven Municipal Courts in the Island. The offences which a Magistrate's Court may try are specified in the Schedule to the Criminal Procedure Code, 1898. Various Ordinances have also made other offences triable by a Magistrate's Court. A Magistrate's Court may not pass a sentence heavier than the following, except where an Ordinance has especially empowered it so to do :—

(*a*) Imprisonment of either description for a term not exceeding six months ;
(*b*) Fine not exceeding one hundred rupees ;
(*c*) Whipping, if the offender is under 16 years of age ;
(*d*) Any lawful sentence combining any two of the sentences aforesaid.

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1 Under section 152 of the Criminal Procedure Code, a Magistrate who is also an Additional District Judge may, in the course of an inquiry into an offence which is triable by a District Court, proceed to try such offence summarily when he is of opinion that it can properly be so tried. In such a case there is no previous committal.

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When a person is convicted at one trial of any two or more distinct offences the aggregate punishment it can award is twice the punishment mentioned above.

Magistrates who hold preliminary inquiries into crimes have the power to commit the accused for trial to a higher court or to discharge him. Special jurisdiction is conferred on Magistrates' Courts to make orders for the maintenance of wives and children.

COURTS OF REQUESTS

Courts of Requests have original civil jurisdiction (subject to certain exceptions) in all actions in which the debt, damage or demand or value of the land in dispute does not exceed Rs. 300.

There are thirty Courts of Requests in the Island, of which one (the Colombo Court) is presided over by a separate Commissioner. All the others are presided over by a District Judge or a Magistrate who acts as Commissioner of Requests in addition to his duties as District Judge or Magistrate.

RURAL COURTS

The Rural Courts Ordinance, No. 12 of 1945, which repealed sections 64–128 of the Village Communities Ordinance and the fourth schedule to that Ordinance, was brought into operation from October 1, 1946.

The civil jurisdiction of a Rural Court extends to the trial of all actions in which the debt, damage or demand or the value of the land in dispute does not exceed Rs. 100. A Rural Court has criminal jurisdiction to try the minor offences enumerated in section 10 of this Ordinance and in the exercise of such jurisdiction may sentence any person convicted of an offence to imprisonment of either description for a period not exceeding 14 days or to a fine not exceeding Rs. 50.

A Rural Court is presided over by a President appointed by the Judicial Service Commission. There are forty-seven Rural Courts in the Island : Five in the Western Province, six in the Central, nine in the Southern, five in the Northern, four in the Eastern, six in the North-Western, three in the North-Central, three in the Uva and six in the Province of Sabaragamuwa.

THE JUDICIAL SERVICE COMMISSION

The Judicial Service Commission as constituted under the provisions of section 53 (I) of the Ceylon (Constitution) Order in Council, 1946, assumed office on October 4, 1947. From that date until February 3, 1948, the powers of appointment, transfer, dismissal and disciplinary control of Judicial Officers remained vested in the Governor acting on the recommendation of the Judicial Service Commission. With the coming into effect of the Ceylon Independence Act, 1947, and the Ceylon Independence Order in Council, 1947, from February 4, 1948, appointments, transfers (including those involving increase of salary) dismissal and disciplinary control of Judicial Officers became vested in the Commission.

In addition to the above powers vested in the Commission, section 6 of the Minute on the Ceylon Judicial Service, modified and published in the *Gazette Extraordinary* of September 24, 1947, placed the Judicial Service for the purposes of leave and general administration under the general control of the Judicial Service Commission.

II. Police System and Crime Statistics

The Police Service of Ceylon was established and is regulated under Ordinance No. 16 of 1865, as amended by subsequent Ordinances though there was a Police Branch of the administration dating as far back as the early 19th century.

Before the Police service was constituted the duties of the Police were attended to by the village headmen. Regular Police have been introduced gradually into most populated districts of Ceylon since 1865. In the rural areas of the provinces the headman plays an important part in the detection

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and investigation of crime. The war interfered with the programme of opening new police stations but this has since been restored and it is planned to open five new police stations a year during the next ten years.

COMPOSITION

The sanctioned strength of the service on December 31, 1948, and December 31, 1949, were as follows :—

	1948	*1949*
Inspector-General	1	1
Deputy Inspectors-General	3	3
Superintendents and Assistant Superintendents	84	84
Chief Inspectors	11	11
Inspectors and Sub-Inspectors	516	521
Sergeants Major	2	2
Sergeants	811	826
Constables	5,162	5,212

The service was under strength both in 1948 and 1949.

The following Police Stations were opened in 1948 and 1949 :—

1948	*1949*
Polonnaruwa	Bombuwela
Kahatuduwa	Inginiyagala
Potuhera	Kekirawa
	Moneragala
	Kilinochchi

CAUSES OF CRIME AND PREVENTIVE WORK

There has been an appreciable decrease in grave crime in 1949 as compared with the figures of the previous year. This reduction can be attributed to improved detection, quicker disposal of cases by courts and the tightening up of the Dangerous Knives and Firearms Ordinances and to the fact that the co-operation of the public has been obtained through Rural Societies which now exist in nearly every village.

The main causes of crime against property and person are personal gain in robbery and theft cases and lack of self-control, revenge and land disputes in cases of violence. Improved mobility and communication facilities of the Police in general, especially the employment of radio equipped cars, has enabled patrolling to be done more effectively, particularly in lawless border villages and has facilitated the intensification of the beat system in urban and sub-urban areas. It has also enabled investigation officers to reach scenes of crime promptly.

Village Welfare Societies in co-operation with the Police continue to do useful work in rural areas in enlightening the villager to refrain from a life of crime by keeping him occupied and encouraging him to take part in clean and healthy sport during his spare time.

The following is a statement of crime reported for the five years ended 1949 :—

	1945	*1946*	*1947*	*1948*	*1949*
True	22,094	20,892	20,090	17,863	15,003
Conviction	5,065	5,140	6,021	6,121	5,672
Pending	5,354	5,066	4,044	2,967	2,949

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The following is an analysis of the main heads of crime reported for the five years ended 1949 :—

	1945	*1946*	*1947*	*1948*	*1949*
Homicide	592	543	561	462	403
Attempted homicide	346	384	357	277	236
Grievous hurt	2,129	1,891	2,186	2,061	1,951
Hurt with dangerous weapons	3,367	3,324	3,777	3,197	2,971
Burglary	7,330	7,619	6,367	5,492	4,604
Cattle thefts	2,812	2,321	1,488	1,642	1,464
Robbery	2,216	2,194	2,384	2,006	1,603
Theft over Rs. 20	10,202	9,026	8,494	7,320	6,358
Bicycle thefts	1,029	1,309	1,352	1,114	974
Other offences	1,317	1,110	1,320	1,077	985
Total	31,340	29,721	28,286	24,648	21,549

MOTOR TRAFFIC

A total number of 33,691 prosecutions were entered by the Police for motor offences in 1949 as against 31,360 in 1948 and 21,190 in 1947. Accident figures are as follows :—

	1947	*1948*	*1949*
Total number of accidents	6,266	8,265	9,566
Persons killed	210	230	157
Persons injured	3,875	4,806	4,104

III. Prisons

The Prisons Ordinance, 1877, placed all the prisons in Ceylon under the control of the Inspector-General of Prisons (which title has now by Ordinance No. 41 of 1944, been changed to that of Commissioner of Prisons and Probation Services). Ceylon, therefore, enjoys the advantages of a unified prison system which renders possible classification by institutions in addition to sub-classifications in institutions. The Probation Services is also administered as part of this Department.

The principle upon which this classification proceeds is the separation of the different types of offenders—especially the separation of the young offender from the adult, the first offender from the 'habitual' the convicted from the unconvicted, males from females, &c. To each type of offender appropriate methods of treatment and training are applied.

YOUNG FIRST OFFENDERS

All young offenders of the age of 16–21 inclusive with sentences of over one month are detained at Welikada in separate wards. Rover Scout principles are utilized for their training and regular camps are held. The Welikada Prison Rover Troop is the first officially recognised prison troop in the world. Educational classes, industrial and vocational training, first aid instruction, boxing, gymnastics, drill and games form a part of the regular curriculum, in addition to the various Scout activities.

LONG TERM FIRST OFFENDERS

The progressive stage system—a feature of the English prison system—has been adapted to suit local conditions and is largely used in connection with the training of these offenders. According to this system prisoners fall into different classes. Every prisoner sentenced to imprisonment immediately enters and remains in what is called the penal stage for one month. He then enters and remains in Class IV, when he becomes eligible to earn remission, for eleven months. Conditional upon good conduct and industry he is promoted to Class III where he remains for one year and then on the same conditions to Class II. At the end of one year if his conduct is

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satisfactory, he is promoted to Class I. Promotions from class to class carried with it a graduated scale of privileges and on entry into Class II, gratuity and good conduct badges can be earned. Prisoners who show special skill and aptitude in the various trades are appointed Instructors (Grade I and II) who are accorded enhanced rates of pay and privileges.

Another feature in the training of these long term first offenders is the placing of responsibility on individual prisoners. Long term first offenders in Class I of exemplary conduct are selected for appointment as Disciplinary Prison Orderlies. Their duties consist in assisting the regular prison officers, they are left in charge of small parties inside the prison and act as escorts within prison walls, &c.

All long term first offenders are employed and trained in one or more of the many trades and handicrafts taught in Welikada Prison. On reaching certain grades of the stage classification they earn money, part of which may be spent in the purchase of books and extras to the diet, or sent to their families and part of which is accumulated and paid on discharge.

RECONVICTED PRISONERS

For the training of selected types of reconvicted prisoners there are two classes in Mahara and Bogambara Prisons. Specially selected reconvicted prisoners with sentences of two years and over constitute Class ' B.' These prisoners while at work are kept separate from the others. Evening classes are held for them and they are supplied with books from the prison library. They are also given the privilege of playing games, &c. After a probationary training for six months in this class all who prove satisfactory are transferred to Kandy where they form special class ' A '. Prisoners in special class ' A ' are treated like first offenders in all matters relating to pay, industrial training, privileges, &c.

MISCELLANEOUS

The output value of Prisons industrial undertakings during the three years ended 1948–49 was as follows :—

1946–47	*1947–48*	*1948–49*
Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
781,560	1,066,466	1,271,241

For young offenders, that is, those of 22 and under, vernacular education is compulsory. At Welikada, Bogambara and Mahara Prisons evening classes conducted by volunteer social workers, have been organised for the benefit of both young offenders and adult offenders. These classes are held in English and in the vernacular. Commercial classes in typewriting, shorthand, &c., are also held in Welikada Prison for the benefit of Star Class Prisoners.

Well conducted prisoners, particularly young offenders, star class prisoners, first offenders, preventive detention prisoners and prisoners in the special classes 'A' and 'B' who have reached an advanced stage in their training are allowed to take part in games both indoor and outdoor. Boxing, gymnastics and volley ball are popular games.

There are no Prison Chaplains in Ceylon but representatives of all creeds and denominations are allowed to visit the prisons, hold services, and give religious instructions. Services are held every Sunday and all prisoners are encouraged to attend the services of their particular denomination.

All criminal prisoners sentenced to rigorous or simple imprisonment (except under Chapter 7 of the Criminal Procedure Code) become eligible to earn remission of sentence, which is conditional on good conduct and industry and which is based on the mark system, on completion of the first month (30 days) of their sentences.

Wholetime resident Medical Officers are provided for the three Colombo Prisons and for Mahara Prison. The Medical Officers attached to all the other prisons are not wholetime officers but have other outside duties to perform as well.

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All cases which need operative treatment or special nursing are transferred to the ordinary civil hospital for treatment. Prisoners are also now being sent to the Hospital of Indigenous Medicine for treatment in cases where the conditions are considered incurable by the western system of medicine or where the Superintendent considers such treatment desirable.

The total number of deaths of prisoners (both convicted and unconvicted) were as follows :—

1947 ... 48 ; *1948* ... 24 ; *1949* ... 29

These deaths include prisoners who died in the Prisons and Prison Hospitals as well as in Civil Hospitals and other medical institutions, but are exclusive of judicial executions.

STATISTICS

The following table contains the statistics for the years 1947, 1948 and 1949 :—

		1947	*1948*	*1949*
Number of admissions on conviction—	Total	14,310	16,312	14,154
	Males	13,803	15,784	13,636
	Females	507	528	518
Number of admissions on conviction from Supreme Court and District Court		1,183	1,423	712
Convictions for murder and culpable homicide not amounting to murder		440	400	278
Number of male persons sentenced to death		110	97	70
Number executed		44	35	20
Number pardoned and released		3	—	—
Daily average population (convicted and unconvicted)	Total	6,516	6,679	6,720
	Males	6,406	6,580	6,626
	Females	110	99	94
Number of reconvicted prisoners		5,461	6,614	5,666
Admissions for non-payment of fines		4,947	7,261	6,588
Imprisonment for statutory offences		2,228	5,659	3,281

There were no prisoners sentenced to or serving terms of preventive detention during the years 1947, 1948 and 1949. No statistics are available as to the number of cases in which time was given for the payment of fines or for payment by instalments.

YOUNG OFFENDERS

(*a*) *Young first offenders.*—The number of admissions of young first offenders of the age group 16–21 was as follows :—

1947 ... 1,407 ; *1948* ... 1,569 ; *1949* ... 1,220

(*b*) *Young reconvicted offenders.*—The number of admissions of young reconvicted offenders were as follows :—

1947 ... 650 ; *1948* ... 763 ; *1949* ... 585

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RACE AND RELIGION

Nationality	*1947*	*1948*	*1949*
Resident Europeans	—	—	—
Non-Resident Europeans	35	4	18
Burghers	52	35	47
Sinhalese	10,202	11,489	10,007
Tamils	2,799	3,274	2,790
Moors	1,156	1,408	1,212
Malays	33	45	42
Others	33	57	38
	14,310	16,312	14,154
Religion			
Christians	1,292	1,477	1,399
Buddhists	9,281	10,607	9,160
Hindus	2,473	2,771	2,353
Muslims	1,256	1,447	1,232
Others	8	10	10
	14,310	16,312	14,154

PRISON PUNISHMENTS

The number of punishments imposed on prisoners for offences against Prison discipline during the years 1947, 1948 and 1949 was as follows :—

1947 ... 7,287 ; *1948* ... 8,878 ; *1949* ... 7,278

the number of individuals punished being 5,957, 6,973 and 6,127 during the years 1947, 1948 and 1949 respectively. In most cases the offences were of a trivial nature.

IV. Probation Service

The Ceylon Law and administration of Probation is largely based on the English model with suitable modifications to suit local conditions in view of the fundamental differences in the systems of Judicial Organisations and Administration and in the development and responsibilities of Local Government authorities obtaining in the two countries. Here it is a national centralized service which follows in one respect the New Zealand system, *i.e.*, Probation forms one branch (though for all practical purposes an independent branch) of the Department of Prisons and Probation. The Central Government is entirely and directly responsible for the whole service, which is administered and controlled by the Commissioner of Prison and Probation Services.

The Probation Service was inaugurated in Ceylon by the proclamation of the Probation of Offenders Ordinance, No. 42 of 1944, on March 6, 1945. On March 12, 1945, ten salaried male Probation officers were appointed to the Magistrate's Courts in the Judicial Divisions of Colombo, Kandy, Galle and Kalutara and began work in these courts under the supervision and direction of the Chief Probation officer, attached to the Prisons and Probation Headquarters. Later, eight unsalaried female Probation officers were also appointed. In 1946 ten more salaried Male Probation officers were appointed and the service was extended to the Judicial Divisions of Negombo, Jaffna, Kegalle and Dumbara. In 1947 Probation units were extended to cover the Judicial Divisions of Panadura and Gampola, and the Negombo and Jaffna units were extended to cover the Gampaha and Point Pedro–Chavakachcheri Judicial Divisions respectively. The post of Chief Probation officer was abolished and the service is now under the supervision and direction of the Superintendent of Probation attached to the Headquarters office.

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The work has also been extended to the District and Supreme Courts. The service will be extended to the following Judicial Divisions during the course of this year (1950) viz., (i) Balapitiya, (ii) Batticaloa, (iii) Chilaw-Puttalam, (iv) Ratnapura-Avissawella, (v) Kurunegala, (vi) Matara. Seven new Probation officers have been selected and are undergoing a course of training prior to appointment. It should also be mentioned that for the first time in the service that a full-time salaried female Probation officer has been selected for appointment. It is proposed to expand the service to the remaining Judicial Divisions of the Island, within a year or two.

As Probation is an attempt to provide the offender with the chance, help and advice necessary for re-habilitating himself under normal conditions of life instead of being sent to prison, progress is likely to be slow and at times difficult at the beginning, but five years of work have shown that a high percentage can be expected as the service expands and as the required ancillary services are established in the Island.

PROBATION STATISTICS

1947 : There were 466 cases remaining under supervision on January 1, 1947. During the year, 1,050 cases were referred to Probation Officers for investigation and of these, 493 cases resulted in the making of Probation Orders. Of the cases that remained under the supervision, 203 cases were completed satisfactorily and 95 were completed unsatisfactorily, due to subsequent offences or breach of Probation Order. 661 cases remained under supervision at the close of 1947 and were carried forward to 1948.

1948 : During this year, 708 new Probation Orders were made. Of the cases that were under supervision, 322 were completed during the course of the year, of which 225 were satisfactory and 97 unsatisfactory.

1949 : 596 New Probation Orders were made during the year. Of the cases that were under supervision, 518 cases were completed during the course of the year, of which 374 were satisfactory and 144 unsatisfactory. The total number of cases remaining under supervision at the end of 1949 is 1,125.

TRAINING SCHOOL FOR YOUTHFUL OFFENDERS

The Young Offenders (Training School) Ordinance, No. 28 of 1930, was proclaimed in January, 1940, and a school was established and opened at Wathupitiwala as from March 1, 1940. There is accommodation for 130 inmates at present but with the completion of the 2nd Stage of the Expansion Scheme shortly, there will be accommodation for a total of 260. Agriculture still forms the most salient feature in the training of the lads, but industrial training, carpentry, tailoring, blacksmithy, &c., is also given. There is an After-care Association for the school under the control of a Committee of Management with the Government Agent, Western Province, as Chairman and with a full time paid manager.

AFTER-CARE OF DISCHARGED PRISONERS

An association called the Ceylon Discharged Prisoners' Association which was thoroughly reorganized a few years ago is now functioning satisfactorily with a substantial government grant and a full time paid secretary. There is a Central Committee of the association in Colombo with a net work of local Sub-Committees at most Prison centres which are charged with this active work of after-care.

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CHAPTER XI

LAND DEVELOPMENT

I. Land Tenure and Agrarian Relationship

UNDER the Sinhalese Kings land tenure was on a feudal basis. The King was in theory the owner of all lands and all land grants were made by him. The chiefs and subjects for their part had to render services to the King. Thus arose the system known as ' Service tenure '. This continued well nigh into modern times in the ownership of temple lands and some Nindagam lands. The tenant known as the Paraveni Nilakaraya had to perform certain services to the temple or the Nindagama overlord, as the case may be, in return enjoying the produce of the land. The performance of services was commuted to a money payment by Commissioners acting under the authority of the Service Tenure Ordinance (Chapter 323 of the Legislative Enactments).

From very ancient times the claim of the subject to own lands as of right has been unquestioned. Under the Dutch a large area of the rice land was held in return for personal services under the title of ' accommodessans '—a tenure which was commuted by a proclamation by the British to a tax of 1/5 of the produce. This varied in different parts from ½ to 1/14 of the produce owing to historical reasons. The system of collecting this tax was altered several times and finally the tax itself was abolished in 1892 by Ordinance No. 4 of that year. Since then no tax appears to have been collected from the subject *qua* cultivator till the Income Tax Ordinance came into operation in 1932. Under this Ordinance incomes above Rs. 2,400 per annum only are liable to taxation. Income derived from land by way of rent is not entitled to any relief. ' Earned income ' benefit is afforded to other agricultural incomes by exempting a tenth of the income from taxation. Local Government taxation on agricultural lands was negligible till the authorisation granted to Village Committees in 1938 to levy a ' land-tax ' based on acreage. The committees were at first slow to take advantage of this provision, but since then many of them are collecting this tax which is not in any sense a serious burden on the cultivator.

WASTE LANDS ORDINANCE

The adjustment of claims between the State and the subject to waste or jungle land has been the subject of bitter controversy for a long time. The Crown claimed all residuary land not owned by its subjects and an Ordinance entitled the ' Waste Lands Ordinance ' was passed in 1840 to define precisely the boundary between state and private ownership. Under this Ordinance all waste or unoccupied land was declared property of the Crown and special officers were given powers to enquire into and determine claims to such land from subjects. The administration of this Ordinance in the middle of the last century appears to have caused a certain amount of hardship, and considerable extents were declared property of the Crown on the ground that they were ' unoccupied '. On behalf of the Kandyan peasants it has often been urged that it was this Ordinance and its iniquitous application that deprived the Kandyan peasantry of their best lands and drove them to the less congenial valleys below. This Ordinance has been amended several times and now has been replaced by the Land Settlement Ordinance. Even under the present Ordinance special officers known as ' Settlement Officers ' enquire into and determine claims between the subject and the Crown to unoccupied jungle land. The decisions of settlement officers have the same force as decrees of courts of law.

FIDEI COMMISSUM

The conception of trusts known to English Jurisprudence whereby beneficial ownership is separated from legal ownership is recognised in Ceylon law also. But from the Dutch was inherited a peculiar institution, namely, *fidei commissum* as known to the Roman Dutch Law, which system is still the general law.

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Fidei commissum is more a kind of ownership than a system of tenure. The fiduciary, the immediate holder, has the right to use and enjoy the land, but he has no right to dispose of the corpus. He can, however, alienate his beneficial interest, viz., his right of using and enjoying the land during his ownership. The *fidei commissary*, corresponding to the remainder-man in English law, on the other hand has no immediate interest in the land. His rights of ownership and user commence on the termination of the fiduciary's rights. During the life of the fiduciary his (*i.e.*, *fidei commissary's*) only interest is in the nature of a *Spes successionis*. However, this does not have much economic importance as the *fidei commissary* is often a descendant of the fiduciary.

Since family ties are so strong the fact that the land is subject to *fidei commissum* does not act as a deterrent on the development of that land. But it may be noted that *fidei commissum* may arise unexpectedly and sometimes defeats the title of a *bonafide* purchaser for value without notice of the *fidei commissum*. Even the law of prescription is not of much avail to such purchaser as prescription does not run against minors and it is generally minor *fidei commissaries* who cause many upsets when they attain majority. The Banking Commission and Mortgage Commission referred to this as a disturbing factor in determining title to land and a solution for this problem that will be fair by the *fidei commissary* and the purchaser has to be found.

LAND DEVELOPMENT ORDINANCE

The Land Development Ordinance created a new system of tenure. At first land is alienated as a lease and the allottee is required to develop the land and reside on it. Once these terms are complied with, the allottee is given a grant by deed. This grant contains conditions against alienation and fragmentation. The grantee can nominate a successor who will succeed to the allotment. The grantee is for all practical purposes the owner of the allotment—except of course for the provision against alienation and fragmentation and for the payment of rent known as ' annual payment '. This is, in the case of peasant allottees, one to two per cent. and in the case of middle class allottees four per cent. of the unimproved value of the land. Both peasant and middle class allottees must reside on the land. Peasants must work the lot themselves while the middle class allottees may employ hired labour.

Estates acquired for village expansion and divided and given out to many allottees as well as lands restored to former owners under the Land Redemption Ordinance are given on this system of tenure.

LEASEHOLDS

Tenure under lease hold deserves special notice. Ordinarily all leases other than a lease at will or for any period exceeding one month should be notarially executed as required by the Prevention of Frauds Ordinance (Cap. 57 of the Legislative Enactments) which provides as follows in section 2:—

> ' No promise, bargain, contract or agreement . . . . for establishing any security, interest or incumbrance affecting land or other immovable property (other than a lease at will or for any period not exceeding one month) . . . . shall be of force or avail in law unless the same shall be in writing and signed by the party making the same or by some person lawfully authorised by him or her in the presence of a licensed Notary Public and two or more witnesses present at the same time and unless the execution of such writing, deed or instrument be duly attested by such Notary and witnesses '.

Judicial interpretation of the term ' interest in land ' has taken the view that planting agreements and asweddumization agreements whereby a cultivator undertakes to asweddumise or plant land belonging to another and hand it back to the owner, are not instruments affecting ' interest in land ', and need not therefore be notarially executed. However, an exception is made in the case of a ' contract or agreement for the cultivation of paddy fields or chena lands for any period not exceeding 12 months, if the consideration of such contract or agreement shall be that the cultivator shall give to the owner of such fields or lands any share or shares of the crop or produce thereof ', by section 3 of the Frauds Ordinance which declares that this class of contract need not be notarially executed in all provinces except the Eastern Province. Apparently in the Eastern Province even contracts for cultivation on a share basis for a period of one year or less have to be notarially executed.

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There is no system in Ceylon of registration of title, but there is a system of registration of instruments affecting land under Cap. 101 of the Legislative Enactments. Subject to certain exceptions, instruments take priority according to their dates of registration and not their dates of execution—registered instruments taking precedence over unregistered instruments. The cumulative effect of Cap. 57 and 101 of our Legislative Enactments is to require that all leases other than those for share cultivation for a period of less than a year should be notarially executed and registered at the Land Registry. This involves considerable expenditure for the poor tenant, but this is the only means of securing the leasehold rights to him.

SERVICE TENURE

A tenant claiming under a notarially executed lease agreement is secure so long as he complies with the terms and conditions of the lease. But very few tenants have notarial leases. The majority are tenants at will and change of tenancy at the end of the cultivation season is not infrequent—especially in the areas where pressure on the land is great. However, ordinarily annual leases are renewed on the same terms if the landlord is satisfied with the tenant. Legal recognition of non-notarial lease agreements might improve the position. The holder under the Land Development Ordinance is secure so long as annual payments are made and the conditions are complied with. The fiduciary is the owner during his life time and cannot be ousted. The holder of service tenure land is secure so long as he pays the rent due to the temple of the Nindagama overlord.

The system of service tenure described above appears to have had its origin in the grant of allotments to their domestics and retinue by the kings and aristocrats of old. The descendants appear to have accepted this as a system of tenure and as noted above it has now been commuted to a money payment.

ESTATE LABOUR

In the estates[1] well over 90 per cent. of the immigrant labourers and a small percentage of the indigenous labour is resident on 'lines' belonging to the estate. They are in law looked upon as analogous to servants and have no rights of tenancy. Consequently no tenancy is attached to lands given to them by estates for cultivating kitchen gardens. When the labourer leaves the estate he has no legal claim for compensation. However, it is not unusual for Superintendents to grant recognition to a transfer to another labourer on the estate by private treaty. So long as the labourer is on the estate Superintendents do not as a rule interfere with the cultivation of vegetable gardens. Many labourers have taken advantage of such facilities and have earned substantial sums from the sale of vegetables grown in them.

II. Land Development

The total extent of Crown land in Ceylon is approximately 19,000 square miles 3/4ths of the surface area of the Island. The climate varies considerably in different parts of Ceylon, and this fact has an important bearing on the development of land in the Island. There are two main climatic divisions, namely, the wet zone (comprising the centre and the south-west of the Island) and the dry zone (comprising the northern and eastern parts).

The wet zone is the part of the Island, roughly a quarter of it, that receives the rain of the south-west monsoon. The rainfall in this zone is both ample and well distributed, with the result that conditions are favourable for agriculture. Tea, rubber, coconuts, and other economic crops can be grown readily and, under normal conditions, profitably. In addition, village cultivation flourishes. The opening of new lands in tea and rubber, however, was controlled from the year 1938 as a result of international agreements to restrict the production of these two commodities. For many years past the wet zone has steadily developed and the population has increased considerably. At the present time this zone contains the greater part of the population of the Island, and there is comparatively little land available for development.

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1 A description of the conditions of tenure obtaining on land alienated by the Crown is embodied in the section on Land Development.

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In the dry zone, owing to adverse conditions, land development is more difficult. In the first place the rainfall, though not really inadequate, is so unevenly distributed that the country suffers badly from drought each year, except where extensive storage tanks have been constructed. In the second place, a large part of the dry zone has been extremely malarial.

For these reasons the greater part of the dry zone is thinly populated. Where the land can be irrigated or the rainfall is favourable, paddy is grown and a certain amount of land, chiefly near the coast, has been planted with coconuts. Many villagers, however, are dependent on ' chena ' cultivation, that is to say, the periodical clearing and cultivation of tracts of jungle, which are abandoned after one or two crops of grain or vegetables have been grown on them. Attempts are being made to develop this area by restoring ancient irrigation works which have long run into disuse, and by constructing new irrigation works such as Gal-oya. Plans have also been drawn up for the establishment of dry farming scheme intended not only to increase food production by converting vast tracts of jungle in the dry zone into food growing areas but also to establish that farming on a rotational basis (as opposed to chena cultivation) can be done in the unirrigated land of the dry zone.

The Land Settlement Ordinance of 1931 as amended by the Ordinance No. 22 of 1932 and the Ordinance No. 31 of 1933 provides the machinery for dealing with the claims of private persons to land to which the presumption in favour of the Crown applies. A special department—the Land Settlement Department—has been organised for the purpose of systematically dealing with all the undeveloped land in the Island under this Ordinance, and the settlement of all claims to undeveloped land cannot be completed for several years on account of the great deal of work involved.

Prior to 1930 it was usually the practice to dispose of Crown land free-hold or lease-hold by public auction as and when applications were received for land. This resulted in haphazard development and the requirements of the local inhabitants were generally ignored as they were too poor to bid for Crown land at public auctions.

DISPOSAL OF CROWN LAND

The present policy of the Government is to take the initiative in disposing of Crown land and the machinery for mapping out Crown land and its disposal is provided by the Land Development Ordinance, No. 19 of 1935, which came into force on October 15, 1935. Under this Ordinance all Crown land in a village area has to be ' mapped out ' before any land is alienated. In mapping out prior consideration is given to the requirements of the local villagers and the actual mapping out is done either by Revenue Officers or by the Settlement Officer in consultation with the local villagers. Mapping out schemes require the sanction of the Land Commissioner. No scheme which has been confirmed by the Land Commissioner can be varied or modified so as to enable land mapped out for village needs and for peasant colonisation to be utilized for alienation without the consent and approval of the Minister of Agriculture and Lands. In mapping out a village area, land is set apart for the following purposes, priority being given according to the order in which they are placed :—

(1) Village expansion.
(2) Village forest.
(3) Village pasture.
(4) Chena cultivation.
(5) Village purposes not specified above.
(6) Peasant colonization.
(7) Protection of the source or courses of streams.
(8) Prevention of soil erosion.
(9) Forest reserves.
(10) Government purposes including buildings and roads.
(11) Preservation of archaeological areas and of historical interest.
(12) Requirements of local villages.

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(13) Development of towns.
(14) Alienation to middle-class Ceylonese.
(15) Alienation to persons irrespective of class or race.
(16) Any other purpose.

Mapping out as defined in the Land Development Ordinance has been deliberately designed to safeguard the interests of villagers.

NEW SYSTEM OF LAND TENURE

The Land Development Ordinance makes further change in the tenure of land alienated by the Crown. The principal features of the new system of land tenure are as follows :—

(*a*) The owner is obliged to cultivate the land, or utilise it in a manner specified in the grant.
(*b*) The owner is required to make a small annual payment to the Crown not exceeding 2 per cent. of its value in perpetuity.
(*c*) The land cannot be subdivided beyond the limit specified in the grant, or held in undivided shares smaller than the fraction specified.
(*d*) The succession to the land is not regulated by the ordinary law of inheritance, but by special rules designed to prevent the sub-division of the land or alienation outside the family.
(*e*) In certain cases, the owner is forbidden to lease or mortgage the land except to the Crown and may not otherwise dispose of it without the Revenue Officer's consent. Nor can this land be seized and sold by a court of law.

This system of tenure prevents the fragmentization on land and protects the land even from the allottee himself and assures that the land will remain in the family as long as it is properly cultivated. The Land Development Ordinance prescribes in detail the procedure for the alienation of land. In order to assure that the disposal should be as fair as possible, alienation can be done only by a Revenue Officer personally and at a Land Kachcheri to which wide publicity must be given at which all possible applicants are entitled to state their claims. Any person aggrieved with the decision at a Land Kachcheri has the right to appeal to the Land Commissioner. The alienation of land under this Ordinance is such that even if the Crown requires it for any public purpose it has to be acquired in the same manner as private land is acquired under the Land Acquisition Ordinance. In alienating land mapped-out for viliage expansion it is the definite Government policy to give to each peasant an extent sufficient to enable the peasant family to maintain a reasonable standard of living, and he is given the necessary financial assistance to develop this land and to build a cottage according to an approved type plan in a short period. Such peasant settlements are also provided with irrigation facilities, road access, public wells, &c., free by Government.

COLONISATION PROCEDURE

The colonisation schemes in the dry zone are planned out in detail before the land is cleared of forest. This involves the co-ordination of the work of several departments. When the Survey Department has completed the engineering survey and the Irrigation Department recommends the construction of irrigation facilities, the Department of Agriculture arranges a soil survey of the area to determine the suitability of the land for different crops. The land is then blocked out into peasant holdings of 5 acres of irrigated paddy land and 3 acres of unirrigated garden land. Land is also set apart for public buildings, parks, religious purposes, pastures, &c.

While the Irrigation Department is, engaged in its share of the task, the Land Development Department clears the land of forest and constructs cottages, wells, hospitals, dispensaries, schools, civic centres and co-operative stores. The paddy area is contour ridged in continuous tracts to facilitate mechanised cultivation. The paddy area is also fenced with barbed wire along the perimeter and is partially stumped. The colonists then move into these ready made farms. They are encouraged to form co-operative organisations for the sale and processing of agricultural produce, purchase of stores and implements and for granting credit facilities. Government also issues to them planting material, implements, cattle and poultry. Soon a homogeneous community is formed out of colonists who were recruited from different parts of the country.

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CEYLON
LAND UTILIZATION INDEX

8 6 4 2 0 8 16 24 32 40 MILES

Cultivated

Cultivable

Un-Cultivated

1,960,000 acres

500,000 acres

N P

E P

N C P

N W P

C P

E P

W P

S A B

U V A

S P

Drawn by Edmund. V. Christian

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The colonisation of the dry zone was begun in earnest in 1930 and the policy of the Government was developed gradually in the first colonization schemes established at Minneriya, Kagama and Tabbowa. The development during the first few years was slow on account of high incidence of malaria, lack of communication, and the general fear of the peasantry to migrate to the dry zone ; but much headway was made during this period by the Irrigation Department in providing the necessary irrigation facilities for the future colonisation schemes. The success of the first colonisation schemes has caused a keen demand for land in these colonisation areas, and the extent of land which can be provided with irrigation facilities can meet only a small fraction of this demand from the peasantry. The attitude of the peasantry has now changed and men, who a few years ago refused to leave their villages, are now anxious to migrate to the dry zone.

The following extents of land have been developed during the past ten years :—

	Acreage alienated
January 1, 1939 to November 31, 1947	21,252 acres
January 1, 1948 to December 31, 1948	4,089 ,,
1948–49	30,006 ,,
1949–50 (Programme)	31,909 ,,

REHABILITATION POLICY

In order to meet the demand of the increasing population of the thickly congested areas where Crown land is scarce, private lands both developed and undeveloped are acquired by the Crown for allocation to peasants resident in such areas. The extent acquired in 1949 was approximately 3,103 acres.

The normal procedure followed in alienating land acquired under this scheme is to allot such lands in individual blocks to landless villagers under the Land Development Ordinance, selected at Land Kachcheries by the Revenue Officers. But this system has proved unsatisfactory and it has since been decided that where large planted-up estates are acquired the land should be worked as a single unit on a co-operative basis by the selected allottees. The allottees are provided with cottages and live in settlements within the estate.

Ceylon is essentially an agricultural country and it is mainly by the development of land now in forest that this country can find employment for an increasing population and raise the standard of living of the peasantry as a whole.

Regulations have been introduced under the Food Production (Estates) Ordinance, No. 2 of 1943, to exempt the proprietors of rubber estates from the liability imposed therein to plant a part of their estates in food crops or commute such liability. This will relieve the industry of a rather heavy burden. In the interest of food production, however, where any area of a rubber estate can be asweddumised, the proprietor's liability will still remain.

THE AGRICULTURAL CORPS

Approved by the State Council in March, 1944, as an ' Emergency Measure ' to tide over the grave situation caused by the rapid overrunning by the Japanese of the rice-producing countries of the East, upon which Ceylon was entirely dependent for her rice supplies, the Ceylon Agricultura. Corps was formed in May, 1944, with the primary object of providing labour for food productionl

This aim has been accomplished in large measure by the establishment of Agricultural Corps Camps in the dry zone close to agricultural and land development schemes, where the main problem in the past was the difficulty in attracting and securing a supply of staple labour owing to extremely unhealthy and climatic conditions.

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As in the previous year the main activity of the Agricultural Corps in 1949 was land development work in the dry zone. A new camp was opened at Paragahakelle for work in connection with the development of the Gal-oya Valley in the Eastern Province. The other operational camps that functioned during the year at Ridiyagama with an ancillary camp at Beragama in the Southern Province, at Bakamuna in the Central Province and at Senapura in the North-Central Province.

Among the new features were :—

(*a*) The establishment of mobile units, housed under canvas for operating in areas where no housing facilities were available. Such a unit operated very successfully at Paniyankadawala in the North-Central Province.

(*b*) The introduction of machinery comprising heavy tractors with bull-dozer attachments. Although it was at first intended to have a fully equipped machanised arm, it was found that unless the Corps always had more work than manual labour alone could cope with complete mechanisation was not desirable. Therefore purchases were restricted to seven heavy tractors with ancillary equipment required for urgent land clearing and earth moving jobs. These machines have been used to great advantage by the Agricultural Corps at Gal-oya.

Owing to the gradual completion of work undertaken by the Corps in the various areas of operation and the immediate non-availability of new projects, the strength of the Corps was not increased during the year. The Corps has established camps at Bakamuna, Ridiyagama, Puliyankulama, Senapura and Paragahakelle. Their work consists mainly of clearing jungle land and preparing them for cultivation. Thus the Corps has handled approximately 6,000 acres of jungle land during 1949.

III. Land Registration and Valuation

LAND REGISTRATION

Ordinance No. 8 of 1863 is the first Statute which attempted to introduce a system of land registration. It provided for the registration of deeds as well as of title to land on a cadastral survey. This was modified by Ordinance No. 5 of 1877, which made registration of title compulsory only in notified areas. The new legislation was proclaimed in the undeveloped areas of Dehiwela, Wellawatta and Kirillapone, but extension to other areas was soon abandoned on the ground of expense. The law was again changed by Ordinance No. 14 of 1891, reintroducing the principle of registration of deeds contained in the Ordinance No. 8 of 1863 and incorporating the idea of priority registration. In 1907 Ordinance No. 3 was passed which combined the system of registration of title and of compulsory registration of land transactions, but not being proclaimed it was never brought into force. Ordinance No. 23 of 1927 gave effect to the priority system of registration of documents providing that an unregistered deed adverse to it if executed for valuable consideration. Finally the Registration of Old Deeds and Instruments Ordinance, No. 35 of 1947, requires that deeds registered prior to January 1, 1864, should be tendered for registration or other prescribed steps taken for registration, before January 1, 1948. This Ordinance was designed to secure title to land against claims based on unknown instruments, chiefly those creating *fidei commissum*.

Land registration in Ceylon may be divided into three categories, viz :—

(*a*) registration of title to land ;

(*b*) registration of deeds and other documents affecting land ; and

(*c*) registration of grants under the Land Development Ordinance.

As regards the grants referred to at (*c*) these are instruments affecting land and granted by the Crown. They are registered in a separate set of registers. 274 grants were registered in 1947, 128 in 1948, and 98 in 1949.

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The nature and number of deeds affecting immovable property registered during 1947, 1948, and 1949 are shown in the following table :—

TABLE 11.1. NATURE AND NUMBER OF DEEDS REGISTERED AFFECTING IMMOVABLE PROPERTY

Nature of Deeds	*1947*	*1948*	*1949*
	Number	*Number*	*Number*
Transfer by sale, gift, &c.	126,183	124,749	133,377
Mortgages	65,652	66,581	70,263
Discharges	19,250	21,868	22,200
Leases	13,094	15,035	15,368
Other deeds	6,587	6,962	7,077
Settlements orders	48	103	35

TABLE 11.2. NATURE AND NUMBER OF OTHER REGISTERED DOCUMENTS

	1947	*1948*	*1949*
Applications for registration of addresses for services	20,556	20,844	22,294
Applications for registration of '*lites pendentes*'	4,008	3,691	4,103
Fiscal's seizers	419	502	503
Priority notices	195	86	135
Caveats	152	185	220
Renewals	16	5	29
Cancellations	17	26	48
Trusts	1	8	6

Before any instrument affecting land is registered, it is necessary to see that the document is properly stamped in accordance with the provisions of the Stamp Ordinance (Cap. 189) ; for, the registration of an instrument which is not properly stamped is void. It is also essential, that an instrument must be registered in the proper folio of the land register. The proper folio to register a document is the folio where the land affected had been previously registered. Before a document is registered, it is therefore necessary to search for the proper folio in the register ; and this searching is facilitated by means of an index to the land registers. All transactions relating to a land will appear in one folio or in a continuation of that folio. Registration of a deed which is improperly stamped or is registered in a wrong folio will entail serious consequences to the public, such as loss of title to a land. Land registration is therefore a very responsible measure requiring great care and precision.

LAND VALUATION

Valuations for acquisition of lands for public purposes under the Land Acquisition Ordinance of 1876

During the year 1949 the valuations of 1,756 lots in extent 3,132 acres assessed at a total value of Rs. 10,075,873 were undertaken for various authorities for acquisition of lands, estates, &c., for village expansion and colonization, road widening, housing schemes, water supply schemes, hospitals, schools and various other public purposes.

Estimates for Heads of Departments and other Local Bodies in connection with proposed acquisitions

(*a*) Number of estimates furnished during 1949 was 154 (comprising over 425 lots)

(*b*) Valued at Rs. 10,922,646

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Valuations furnished to the Land Commissioner under the Land Redemption Ordinance, No. 61 of 1942

(*a*) Final valuations—No. of cases—85 (comprising 151 lots in extent 356 acres)

Total valuation Rs. 450,775

(*b*) Preliminary valuations (*i.e.*, estimates)

No. of cases—87 (extent 2,429 acres)

Total valuation Rs. 2,767,775

Valuations for the Commmissioner of Estate Duty and for District Courts

(*a*) Number of properties in respect of which valuations were furnished 1,117

(*b*) Total valuation Rs. 18,079,722

Valuations for the Commissioner of Stamps and Registrar-General

(*a*) Number of properties 403

(*b*) Total official valuation Rs. 5,495,629

Details are as hereunder :—

	Number of Properties	*Valuation in deed*	*Official valuation*
		Rs. c.	*Rs. c.*
(*a*) Colombo town properties where the value is disclosed	308	2,124,669 00	2,680,129 00
(*b*) Colombo town properties where the value is not disclosed	29	—	261,650 00
(*c*) Outstation properties where the value is disclosed	47	71,100 00	106,100 00
(*d*) Outstation properties where the value is not disclosed	9	—	32,400 00
(*e*) Agricultural estates	10	834,060 00	2,415,350 00

Other valuations

(*a*) Valuations for the Public Trustee—properties in extent 1,371 acres

Total valuation Rs. 507,668

(*b*) Valuations for Loan Board—

No. of properties valued 34

Total valuation Rs. 1,348,882

(*c*) Miscellaneous valuations—

No. of properties valued 12

Total valuation Rs. 835,726

Assessment of rental values of Government or privately owned land and buildings

(*a*) No. of private buildings and Crown properties hired for Government purposes assessed for rent 1,687

(*b*) Rental value Rs. 61,039

Assessment of Crown properties within Local Authorities' areas

1,675 properties of an annual value of Rs. 792,572 were revised during 1949

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General revision of town assessments for rating

The revision of the following towns was undertaken and completed during the year 1949 :—

Gampola, Chavakachcheri, Matara (Ward 8), Beliatta (Ward 3), Kurunegala, Kegalle, Tangalle, Dondra, Avissawella, Ambalangoda.

The revision of the following towns was commenced, but could not be completed within the year:—

Trincomalee, Vavuniya, Matugama, Mullaitivu.

Revision of assessments under section 237 of the Municipal Councils' Ordinance (Chapter 193)

The total number of applications received and revised in 1949 amounted to 1,503, the total annual value reported being Rs. 273,542.

Division and consolidation of assessments

Thirty-eight applications were received and reported on.

Assessment of compensation in respect of land and buildings taken possession of or used under Emergency Powers

The total of the amounts appearing in the claims for damages dealt with during 1949 was Rs. 8,036,266 for 870 properties and offers recommended to the competent authorities in the assessments submitted to them amounted to Rs. 1,906,653.

In addition to the above, the department attended to the assessment of nine cases of damage to properties rented out by the Services and Civil Government Departments on ' private tenancy ' amounting to Rs. 20,662.

IV. Land Surveys

SURVEY DEPARTMENT

No land can be alienated or otherwise dealt with by the Crown until it has been surveyed and demarcated by the Survey Department. The activities of the department consist of the following :—

Triangulation

Records of systematic triangulation in Ceylon began with the measurement of a base at Negombo, on the west coast, in 1857. A second base was measured at Batticaloa, and theodolite observations for the fixation of trigonometrical stations were made throughout the Island between the years 1858 and 1906.

In 1930 the two bases were remeasured with modern apparatus, some observations were retaken, and the principal triangulation was re-computed ; the results being published in 1933.

Since then this branch of work has been confined to breaking down figures for large-scale surveys, and in some flat parts of the Island the triangulation has been supplemented by primary traversing.

Levelling

The earliest recorded levels were taken in 1865, and lines of levels were run to meet immediate engineering requirements, rough determinations of mean sea level being made at five tidal stations.

In 1909 work was started on a systematic network of levels ; but was stopped on the outbreak of war in 1914.

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After constructing fundamental Bench Marks, a network of precise levels was observed with modern instruments between 1926 and 1930, covering almost the whole of Ceylon, the total length of the lines of levels being approximately 2,400 miles. Automatic tide gauges were established at Colombo and Trincomalee for the determination of mean sea level, and the results of the Precise Levelling were published in 1932.

Since then secondary levelling has been carried out to meet the requirements of engineering surveys in many parts of the Island, and the principal network is being systematically broken down as staff permits.

Topographical Surveys

The topographical survey of Ceylon was started in 1897 and the first topographical map of the Island, on a scale of 8 miles to an inch was published in 1903.

The completion of topographical surveys for the production of a one-inch map, and the insertion of contours was taken up thereafter, the flat map being completed in 1917, and the contoured topographical map in 1924. This covers the whole Island, is published in 72 coloured sheets, on a scale of 1″ to a mile, and shows contours at 100 feet Vertical Intercal.

Since then a systematic programme of topographical revision has been carried on, the maps are drawn and printed in the Surveyor-General's Office in Colombo, and new editions are issued from time to time ; but no systematic mapping on a larger scale has so far been attempted.

Engineering Surveys

Engineering surveys, for the provision of contoured plans for use in the design and construction of irrigation schemes, drainage works, and flood control projects, are carried out at the request of the Irrigation Department and other Departments of Government.

In 1932 the first systematic large-scale engineering survey for a major irrigation scheme was taken up at Minneriya, and since then a heavy programme of engineering survey work has been followed.

In the year 1949 a total extent of 62,000 acres of large scale close-contour surveys were completed, and reconnaissance surveys of 11,000 acres were carried out in the Parakrama Samudra and Pavatkulam areas.

Considerable attention was also given to the Gal-oya Project, where in addition to the close contour survey of 10,187 acres on the 4 chain scale, 4 miles of channel on the left bank were retraced (with longitudinal sections) and a reconnaissance survey of 30 miles of road trace was made. Preliminary traversing and levelling was also done in this area for a ' Control ' survey of about 86,000 acres in 1950.

Block and Settlement Surveys

Block surveys comprise the survey of large areas of land for the final settlement of claims as between the Crown and private owners. These include skeleton block surveys, where Crown lands are demarcated to prevent encroachment and to form the framework for subsequent block survey. An extent of 1,487 acres was surveyed in 1949.

Settlement and demarcation surveys were suspended during a part of the year on account of other urgent work on land development.

Land Development Surveys

Comprising surveys for colonisation, mapping-out, and peasant proprietor allotments totalled 27,646 acres in extent.

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Town and Miscellaneous Sporadic Surveys

The surveys of Avissawella and Wattala-Mabole-Peliyagoda towns were completed and plans issued. The surveys of the following towns are in progress :—

Kurunegala (2,763 acres) ;
Anuradhapura Preservation Scheme—Preservation area (17,936 acres) ;
Bandarawela town development surveys (2,100 acres) ;
Banadarawela town revision and contour surveys (500 acres) ;
Matale town revision and contour surveys (1,256 acres) ;
Colombo town revision (2,038 acres) ;
Rakwana town and contour surveys (147 acres) ; and
Alutgama town survey (190 acres).

344 square miles of topographical revision surveys were completed and 63,690 acres of forest surveys are in progress.

Acquisition surveys carried out during the year covered an extent of 7,411 acres and requisitions under the Land Redemption Ordinance and major irrigation works comprised areas of 655 acres and 18,126 acres, respectively.

Maps

Requests for printing and block-making from other Government Departments increased during the year ; these included various illustrated leaflets, maps, diagrams, charts, &c. Departmental maps printed and produced during the year numbered 2,381, and the total number of copies printed was 339,719.

Maps available for sale to the public include 1″ to a mile topographical maps, motor maps, geographical maps, historical maps and town maps of Ceylon. Town maps are available of Colombo, Ambalangoda, Anuradhapura, Badulla, Batticaloa, Bandarawela, Chilaw, Dehiwala-Mt. Lavinia, Diyatalawa, Galle, Gampola, Jaffna, Kalutara, Kandy, Kurunegala, Madampe, Matale, Matara, Minuwangoda, Nawalapitiya, Negombo, Nuwara Eliya, Panadura, Puttalam and Weligama.

Models

Fourteen one inch to a mile models were made for private persons and 100 one inch models were renovated for the Colombo Museum and the Government Agent, Ratnapura. Three 8 miles to an inch models of Ceylon were also made for the Ceylon Embassy in Washington, High Commissioner for Ceylon in Australia and for the Dehiwala Zoo.

Eight miles to an inch Relief Models of Ceylon and also Plaster of Paris models on the horizontal scale of one mile to an inch and a vertical scale of $\frac{1}{2}$ mile to an inch can be obtained on order from the Surveyor-General's Office, Colombo.

Training School for Surveyors

A class of eight survey students completed their training at the Training School at Diyatalawa, and twenty new students commenced their course of training. Two Probationary Assistant Superintendents of Surveys are undergoing their training at Diyatalawa. The Training School also offers facilities for officers of other Government Departments to be trained in survey work.

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CHAPTER XII

AGRICULTURE

I. Agriculture

THE entire economy of Ceylon depends upon her export trade in the three main agricultural industries, tea, rubber and coconuts. The money obtained by selling these three main products, as well as other exports, helps to pay for Ceylon's imports of essential commodities. Ninety-five per cent. of her exports consists of tea, rubber and coconuts and, 80 per cent. of her income is derived from these export industries. Those employed in trade and other businesses connected with the production, distribution and export of these three main industries account for two-thirds of the occupied population.

AVAILABLE LAND

The total area of Ceylon is estimated to be 25,332 square miles or about 16¼ million acres. The four major crops cover the following areas :—

Tea	555,576 acres
Rubber	655,111 acres
Coconut	1,070,942*a* acres
Paddy	899,932*b* acres

Three million acres, therefore, out of a total cultivated area of 3¼ million acres, are occupied by these major crops. The area under total productive agriculture thus works out to 20 per cent. of the total area of Ceylon.

It is not only cultivation that takes up land space. It is estimated that roads, streams, tanks, towns and villages occupy 1¼ million acres ; forests, including national reserves and sanctuaries, occupy 3½ million acres ; rocky and steep land, as well as land above 5,000 feet occupy 4¾ million acres, thus making a total of a little over 9½ million acres. Therefore, out of a total area of 16¼ million acres, about 13 million acres are either occupied, cultivated, earmarked for definite purposes, or uncultivable and a balance of 3¼ million acres is available for future agricultural development—an extent as large as the area already under productive cultivation.

The land surface of Ceylon is divided into two large groups, the wet zone and the dry zone. The wet zone consists of the Western, Central, Sabaragamuwa and portions of the Uva and Southern Provinces. It covers an area of 4 million square miles with a population of 3½ millions. The dry zone occupies the rest of the Island, the Northern, North-Central, North-Western and Eastern Provinces and the balance portion of the Southern and Uva Provinces. It covers an area of 12 million acres and contains a population of 3 millions.

WET ZONE CROPS

The wet zone is today climatically the healthiest portion of the Island and is fully developed agriculturally.

Nature has divided the Island into these two land masses differing in climatic conditions, rainfall and agricultural possibilities, through the medium of the large central mountain mass which covers an area of 3–4 million acres, above 500 feet in height. This mountain mass has affected the climate of Ceylon and its economic development and has thus shaped its civilization in the past, shapes it in the present and will continue to shape it in the future. The two great monsoons of the Indian Ocean, the south-west and the north-east, fall on these two areas in different ways. The wet

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a The acreage according to the 1946 Census was 920,942 (excluding cultivations in Town and Village Gardens) The extent under Town and Village Gardens has been estimated at 150,000 acres.
b The acreage given in 1949 Year Book is now considered to be an over-estimate.

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AGRICULTURAL MAP OF CEYLON

Scale- One Inch to 34 Miles

REFERENCE

ROADS
RAILWAY
DISTRICT BOUNDARY
PROVINCE BOUNDARY

BOTANIC GARDEN
MAJOR AGRICULTURAL STN.
AGRICULTURAL STATION
RESEARCH STATION
EXPERIMENT STATION
PADDY STN. & PADDY FARM
PADDY SEED STATION
STATE CHENA
VEGETABLE SEED STN.
TOBACCO STATION
CINCHONA STATION
ROTATIONAL FARMING
FARM SCHOOL. (SCHEME
CITRUS ORCHARDS
CATTLE & ANIMAL BREED-
FRUIT FARM.(ING CENTRE
CATTLE, BUFFALO STUD,
DAIRY. (LIVESTOCK FARM
COTTON MULTIPLICATION
KITUL TRIALS. (STATION
COTTON ROTATION STN.
BOARD & LODGING FARM
SUGAR CANE STATION
CASHEW PLOT
PLANT NURSERY
COLONISATION SCHEME

COCONUT
TEA
RUBBER
CACAO

80° 81° 82°
9° 8° 7° 6°

Kankesanturai Point Pedro KAYTS Jaffna Misalai DELFT Elephant Pass
Parantan JAFFNA DISTRICT Kilinochchi Iranamadu Tank
Dhanushkodi Talaimannar Mankulam VAVUNIYA DISTRICT N. P.
Mannar MANNAR DISTRICT Giant's Tank Parangi Aru Kanakarayan Aru
PEARL BANKS Aruvi Aru Murunkan Vavuniya Padaviya Tank
Nilaveli Trincomalee Yan Oya
Medawachchiya Horowpotana Sangilikanadarawa
Modaragam Aru ANURADHAPURA N. C. P. TRINCOMALEE
Anuradhapura Kurundankulama Mihintale Kantalai Tank Allai Tank Kantalai Kiliveddi DISTRICT
Kala Oya Kalpitiya Kumara Wewa Nachchaduwa Tank
PUTTALAM DISTRICT Maha Illuppallama Gal Oya RITIGALA 2514 Hingurakgoda
Tabbowa Puttalam Kala Wewa Kekirawa Minneriya Tank Ganga
Mi Oya Kottukachchiya Makalanegama Minneriya Parakrama Samudra Polonnaruwa Kalkudah
DISTRICT Dambulla MATALE Mahaweli Ganga Maduru Oya Vakaneri
Meha W. P. BATTICALOA Batticaloa
Nikaweratiya KURUNEGALA Deduru Oya Elahera Karadiyanaru Rukam Tank Kattankudi
Wariyapola Ganewatta Nalanda DISTRICT E. P. Unnichchai Tank
Chilaw DISTRICT Kurunegala Dedigamuwa Maha Oya Unnichchai DISTRICT
Madampe Batalagoda Doratiyawa Alutnuwara Horabora Wewa Kaimunai
Marawila Walpita Maha Polgahawela Katugastota Kandegolla Wagolla Ambatenna Kandy DISTRICT Minipe Mundeni Chenkatpadai
Lunuwila Kochchikade Negombo Kegalla Ambepussa Paiyagama Kundasale Hindagala Gal Oya Irakkamam Tank
COLOMBO Panewela Pasyala Udagoda Migahakivula Bibile BADULLA
Henaratgoda Muthurajawela Nawalapitiya Hallodde Ragalla Taldena Badulla
COLOMBO DISTRICT Kelani Avissawella Haputale Passara Pottuvil
Narahenpita Horana Bogahalanda Bibile Moneragala Okkampitiya Lahugala
Moratuwa Panadura Kalu Ganga Egaloya Bopatalawa Balangoda Wellawaya DISTRICT
KALUTARA Ratnapura Batugedara Telulla Kumbukkan Oya
Kalutara Pelenda Balawinna Menik Kirindi Oya
DISTRICT Walawe Ganga Embilipitiya Ganga Kataragama LITTLE BASSES
Bentota Deniyaya Middeniya Wirawila HAMBANTOTA
Bentota Ganga HAYCOCK 2167 Wirawila Tank Tissamaharama
Ambalangoda Elpitiya Nagoda MATARA S. P. Ridiyagama Ridiyagama Tank GREAT BASSES
DISTRICT Bata-ata Hambantota
Karagoda-Uyangoda Ambalantota
Akuressa Nilwala Ganga Mapalana
Galle Labuduwa Tangalla
Weligama Matara Dondra

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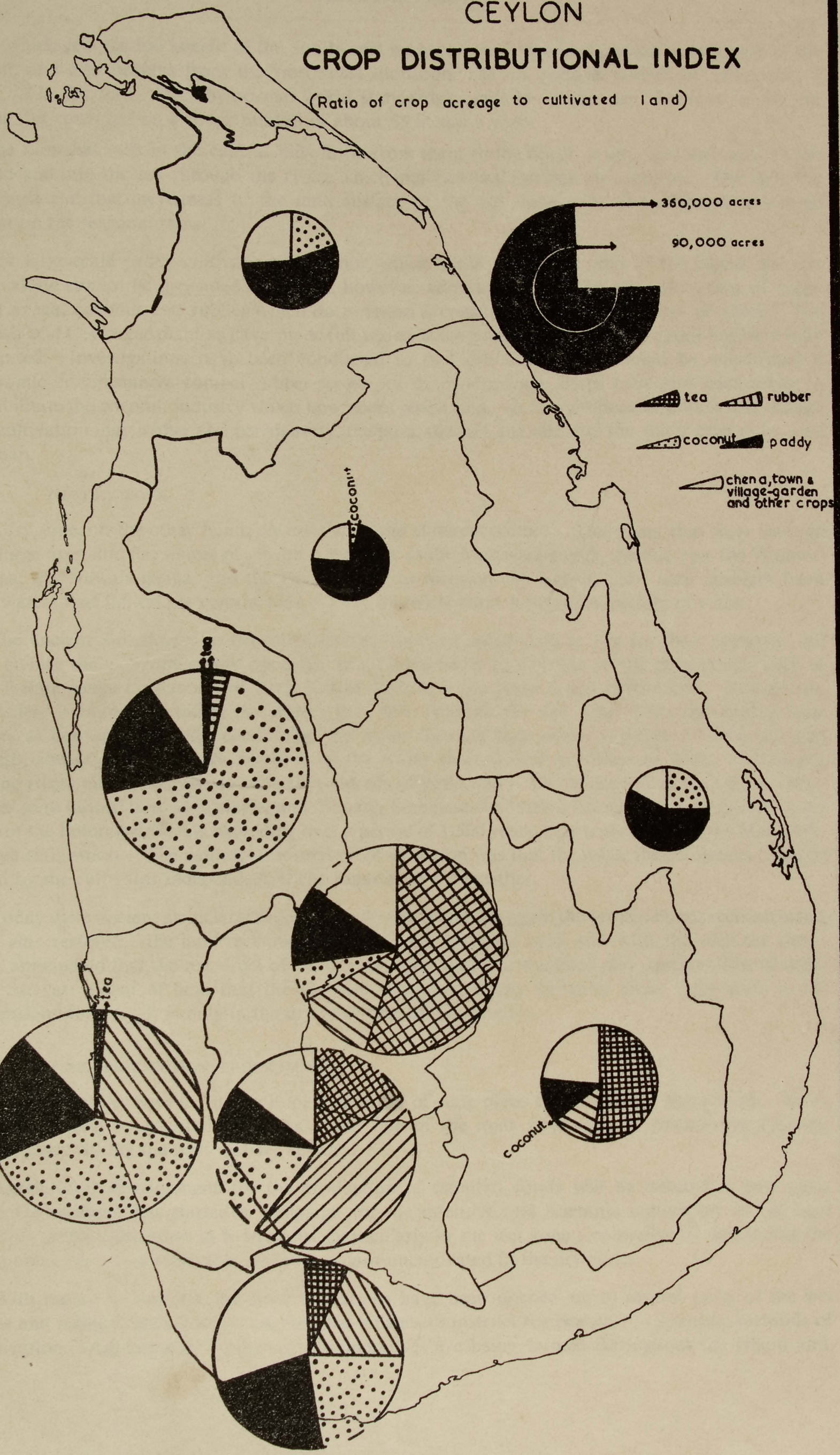
CEYLON

CROP DISTRIBUTIONAL INDEX

(Ratio of crop acreage to cultivated land)



Drawn by Edmund. V. Christian

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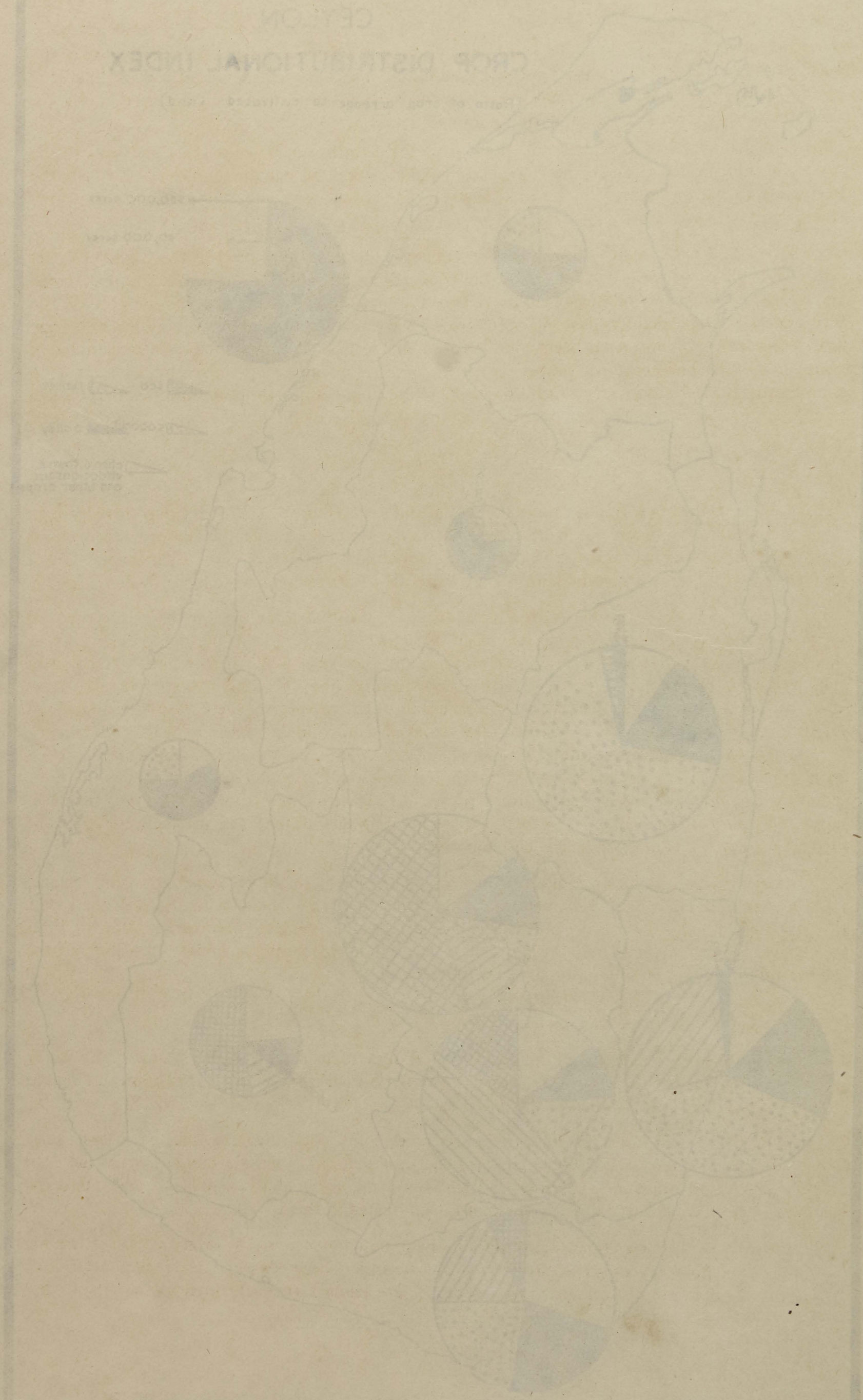

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zone which gets the full benefit of the south-west monsoon, as it lies in the south-west region of the Island, and also benefits from the north-east monsoon, has an average rainfall of 135 inches a year. The dry zone, which by normal world standards cannot be called ' dry ' but is so in relation to the wet zone, has an average rainfall of about 65 inches a year.

The rain that falls in the central hills flows from them to the north, south, east and west of the Island and into the sea through the rivers which man has used through the centuries. Owing to the steepness and the unevenness of the land surface of the wet zone, cultivation depends to a large extent on the seasonal rains.

For large-scale paddy cultivation, therefore, which is the main food crop of the Island, the wet zone alone cannot be depended on. It is, however, admirably suited for the cultivation of crops such as tea, coconut and rubber which do not need a constant and controlled flow of water. The British and Ceylonese planters have made full use of these possibilities. The wet zone has been fully exploited. Investigations have been conducted to find out what crops should be substituted if economic circumstances compel rubber to go out of production. Steps have also been taken to rehabilitate the coconut industry which now needs replanting. It has not been forgotten that though the cultivation may wither and perish away, the land, the soil, the rain and the water exist to be used by man.

THE DRY ZONE

The dry zone, on the other hand, presents a totally different picture. The rivers that flow through the large open and flat spaces of the dry zone, such as the Mahaweli-ganga, the Gal-oya, the Walawe-ganga, the Nilwala-ganga, and the Deduru-oya, to mention the largest, draw their strength from the waters that fall on the central hills. They therefore carry a perennial supply of water.

The ancient Sinhalese who depended entirely on food crops such as rice for their existence, did not civilize the wet zone except for a few small settlements by the side of the river banks, such as the Kelani-ganga civilization of King Kelani Tissa and the Naga Kings before him. The ancient Sinhalese preferred to utilize the waters that flow through the dry zone rivers by tapping these rivers at convenient places, conducting the water through huge *elas*, river-like in their size and length, and at suitable places bunding up the water so conveyed in *wewas* or lakes. Every one of the rivers mentioned was so utilized hundreds of years ago. The Mahaweli-ganga and its tributaries were tapped in several places, and the early Sinhalese civilization from the Vijayan period to the end of the Polonnaruwa era, extending over a period of 1,500 years, may truly be called the Mahaweli-ganga civilization. The value of this method of irrigation was that the water thus collected could be used by the cultivator independent of the vagaries of the weather.

Today these ancient artificial lakes are being brought into use again,the broken bunds reconstructed, the *elas* restored, ' the land reclaimed, and with the land the men, and with the men the race '. It is anticipated that the resources of the dry zone can supply a regulated and constant flow of water for the vast extent of land that the Government contemplates bringing under cultivation in the immediate future. It is only in the dry zone that this is possible.

FOOD PRODUCTION PROGRAMME

These possibilities have led to the implementation of state plans for producing more food. To be self supporting in essential foods has been one of the main objectives of governmental policy, particularly during the past quarter century.

Agricultural development for the production of essential foods will be effected in two ways. The Government has started a campaign for the intensive and scientific cultivation of the land already under cultivation in food crops, particularly in the wet zone ; secondly, by developing the vast areas which are cultivable and still remain uncultivated in the dry zone.

With regard to the first, agricultural stations have been opened up in several parts of the wet zone and trained instructors go out into the villages to instruct the peasants in scientific methods of cultivation. Agricultural Producers' Co-operatives are being formed throughout the Island and,

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with the credit supplied through the Co-operative Banks, it is expected that their members will be able to secure the necessary finance for cultivation. Intensive cultivation in the wet zone is also made possible by the repair of *elas*, the building of *amunas* and the provision of scientific irrigation, where necessary.

Of course, the irrigation schemes in the wet zone are small when compared to those in the dry zone, but they are none the less important. For instance, the Attanagalu-oya scheme, which has been under construction for several years and is approaching completion, is providing scientific irrigational facilities to a large population in the Western Province for their paddy cultivation. In lieu of the stick dams, modern cement dams are now being used, and new anicuts and channels are being constructed to convey the water under control to the fields under cultivation. Land that could be cultivated only once a year will in future be cultivated twice a year, and the flood waters will be controlled as far as humanly possible.

In addition to the Attanagalu-oya scheme, the possibilities of the Kelani Valley are being investigated by American experts. The necessity for scientific and intensive cultivation is clearly seen when the production figures are considered. In the Attanagalla area a fair average of yield would be ten to thirteen times the sowing extent. Ceylon figures compare very badly with those of other countries :—

Country	*Paddy—per acre in pounds*	*Fold*
Italy	4,000	77
Egypt	3,000	39
Java	2,000	22
Malaya	1,170	16
India	1,190	23
Ceylon	520	13

As a result of the very strenuous and planned efforts being made to increase the yield, in some places the production which was 13-fold has risen to 30-fold.

DRY ZONE SCHEMES

The dry zone schemes are in quite a different category. Large irrigation works have to be completed before the water is made available. The water when available cannot be utilized until the virgin jungle has been felled, and the land made fit for cultivation and human habitation. Errors were committed in the past, but the era of experiments has now passed. What seemed to many the foolish dreams of a visionary are no longer considered as such. Today those dreams have come true. They appear in concrete form in the colonization schemes that dot the landscape of the dry zone. The former critics now hail them as the salvation of the people of Ceylon.

The waters of the Parakrama Samudra, one of the largest of these schemes, will cover at full supply an area of 66,000 acres. An area of 54,000 acres will once again come under cultivation when the scheme is complete. The Minneriya and Giritale artificial lakes now repaired will, together with the Elahera-ela which brings water to them from the Ambanganga near Dambulla, cultivate a hitherto uncultivated area of 30,000 acres.

Similar great works are being undertaken throughout the vast expanse of the dry zone, and we see in the maps, reference to Kalawewa, Ridibendi-ela, Minipe-ela, Walawe, Nilwala-ganga, all of which, though mere names and remote to the reader, represent part of the new civilization that is being slowly but surely created. The Gal-oya bund will impound the waters of the Gal-oya and bring under cultivation 120,000 acres. A similar scheme, the Embilipitiya multi-purpose scheme, will use the waters of the Walawe-ganga to provide irrigation, water and electric power for the use of man.

Within the next six years under these and other schemes the Government hopes to bring under cultivation an extent of 131,000 acres. This figure represents the actual acreage of paddy and garden lands that will be colonized. The land which will be available for colonization at the end of

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1953 drawing water from the irrigation schemes that will then be complete will of course be much more. The Gal-oya scheme, for example, will be completed at that time and by itself provide water for 120,000 acres. In the past it was the practice to complete the irrigation work first, such as the repair of a bund or the building of an *ela*, and after that to cut down the jungle and make the land ready for cultivation. The water from the reconstructed *wewas* or tanks had also to be led by irrigation channels to the different fields that were to be cultivated. This method naturally occasioned delay. In future the construction of the *wewa* and its irrigation channels will proceed simultaneously with clearing of the jungle, the building of the houses and the preparation of the land for colonization. When the Gal-oya scheme is completed by 1953, the adoption of this new method will enable 65,000 acres to be colonized contemporaneously.

II. Agricultural Production

(A) FOOD CROPS

The main difficulties that stood in the way of increasing the food production in this country were (*a*) the lack of capital among the peasantry for cultivation operations ; (*b*) the lack of a proper market to sell their goods ; and (*c*) the absence of a guarantee that their produce would fetch a reasonable price.

The three problems have now to a great extent been solved by—

(*a*) the establishment of the C. A. P. & S.[1] Societies ;
(*b*) the setting up of an organisation to buy up local produce for which prices have been guaranteed; and
(*c*) the fixing of reasonable prices for all commodities that come within the guaranteed price scheme, *i.e.*, paddy, kurakkan, maize, mustard, chillies, gingelly, onions, green gram, tamarind, pepper, coffee, and turmeric.

During the year 1949–50, the Department of Land Development therefore concentrated all its efforts on increasing food production as all the necessary incentives for increased production had been created.

The food production programme for the year has set out to accomplish the following :—

(1) Cultivate the maximum available extents with paddy.
(2) Bring under cultivation virgin lands.
(3) Restore and improve minor irrigation works.
(4) Cultivate crops for which prices have been guaranteed.
(5) Adopt improved methods of paddy cultivation such as the use of compost, green manure, artificial fertilisers and pure line seed paddy, transplanting, weeding of fields.
(6) Increase the cultivation of onions, chillies, maize, &c., in areas where they are regarded as suitable crops.

Greater attention has been paid during the course of the year to increasing the yield especially of paddy by teaching the farmers to adopt more intensive methods of cultivation. The yield of existing fields is now being increased by—

(*a*) providing an assured supply of water to fields which depend on irrigation;
(*b*) by getting the fields sown at the correct time in the season ;
(*c*) by improved cultivation methods such as by using modern ploughs, and harrows, by trans-planting, by weeding the fields ;
(*d*) by use of manure more extensively than before—by the use of green manure, compost and artificial manures ;
(*e*) by the use of pure line seed paddy ;
(*f*) by protecting crops from pests, cattle, &c.

1 Co-operative Agricultural Production and Sales.

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Dealing with each of these in turn—

(*a*) more attention is now being paid to improving irrigation facilities to existing fields by improving or constructing channels, regulators, spills, &c. Figures supplied for the period October 1, 1949, to June 30, 1950, show that Rs. 535,025.89 were spent on repairing or restoring minor irrigation works benefiting 19,219 acres. It is expected to use the balance Rs. 305,000 in bringing about another 11,000 acres under cultivation.

(*b*) The Irrigation rules are now enforced more strictly to enable cultivators to sow their fields in time in order to eliminate damage from paddy pests, water shortage and rain at harvest time. The loss to the cultivator and the country is being reduced.

(*c*) At present a large extent of fields is being cultivated in the wet zone by tilling with the mammoty and in the dry zone by muddying with buffaloes. This reduces the extent of land which a peasant can bring under cultivation and raises cost of production. The peasant is, therefore, being encouraged to use improved types of ploughs and 5,160 ploughs suited to different types of soil that have been sold to cultivators through Government Agents, C. A. P. & S. Societies and Divisional Agricultural Officers. Harrowing of the crops is being popularised by the Agricultural Department. 687 harrows have been sold through C. A. P & S. Societies. The acreage harrowed for demonstration purposes is 2,182½ in Maha 1949–50.

Transplanting is regarded as one of the surest ways of increasing the yield when combined with proper manuring. Besides, it has been found that weeds can be effectively controlled with proper manuring. Six to eight experienced women can transplant an acre in one day at a cost of approximately Rs. 20 to Rs. 24 which is very much less than the profit obtained by the increased yield. Wide publicity is now being given by opening up a large number of demonstration plots all over the Island, holding competitions, &c. There has been a good response from all over the Island, especially in those areas which are served by irrigation water and where water is plentiful. In colonisation schemes where Crown lands have been given under the Land Development Ordinance every colonist is compelled to transplant at least one acre of his paddy holding. The extent transplanted is 82,693 acres during Maha 1949–50.

(*d*) Bone meal manure and artificial fertilisers are sold by Government to individual farmers or are given on loan to members of C. A. P. & S. Societies. Bone meal manure has during the past years become popular with the local paddy farmers and there is now a big demand for its supply. In view of its high cost the use of bone meal manure is not economic and the cultivator is being encouraged to use instead artificial manure suitable for the dry, wet and mid zones recommended by the Agricultural Department. Government has under considera-ration a proposal to meet part of the cost of these mixtures as a subsidy to the cultivator for the first three years till he gets used to the artificial mixtures.

The making of compost and green manure is being popularised by organising competitions, offering prizes and propaganda through Rural Development Societies. The use of cattle manure for paddy fields has made much progress in the North-Central Province. Weeding and ploughing have also been done extensively. 40,021½ acres were weeded and 31,367 acres were ploughed with the model plough during Maha 1949–50 season.

(*e*) The Agricultural Department has produced a number of pure line strains suitable for various parts of the Island and are now being multiplied in their departmental farms and in the fields of selected paddy farmers. Much headway has been made especially in the dry zone and many farmers now use pure line seed in their farms, thus giving them a better yield. Loans are granted to C. A. P. & S. Societies for the purchase and distribution of pure line seed to members.

(*f*) To effectively combat the fly pest Government Agents are doing their best to see that cultivators adhere to the correct cultivation seasons. Timely and systematic cultivation has helped to reduce damage by pests. Besides the Director of Agriculture is responsible for the control of pests when they break out in epidemic form. All C. A. P. & S. Societies are given loans for purchase of Gammexane for sale to members for the active control of pests in their areas.

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Protection of crop from cattle has become a serious problem of late mainly due to lack of grazing ground especially in the wet zone. Large tracts of paddy land have been damaged by cattle. The Government now sells to individual cultivators and gives on loan to C. A. P. & S. Societies barbed wire necessary for perimeter fencing of the paddy tracts. This has enabled cultivators to save their fields from straying cattle, wild animals, &c. The quantity issued to C. A. P. & S. Societies up to date is 11,094½ cwts.

During the year 1948–1949, 30,006 acres of virgin land were alienated to colonists (paddy 15,394 acres and garden crops 8,997 acres) under the major irrigation schemes (more than what was laid down in the Six Year Plan). Under minor irrigation schemes a total extent of 20,074 acres have been brought under cultivation or benefited by repairs to minor irrigation works during the year 1948–49, at a cost of Rs. 259,505.80 on 191 minor tanks. During 1949–50 a sum of Rs. 850,779.21 has been allocated for minor irrigation works. The subsidy given to *bona fide* cultivators for bringing 5,288 acres of new land under paddy cultivation during the period October 1, 1949, to June 30, 1950, has been Rs. 101,770.

DRY FARMING SCHEMES

Government has realised that Ceylon cannot achieve self-sufficiency in foodstuffs by developing lands under major and minor irrigation schemes alone as the population is increasing at a considerable pace and the extent that can be provided with irrigation facilities is limited by various factors such as availability of technical staff, availability of water, &c. The vast tracts of unirrigable land in the dry zone have to be brought under cultivation and experiments recently carried out in the dry zone at Kurundankulam have shown satisfactory results. It has been decided now by Government to open up three dry farming schemes in the dry zone in 1951 and watch the progress made before embarking on more extensive lines. The dry farming schemes have been selected in areas where the soils are suitable for soil conservation, where water is available for drinking and bathing, where transport problems are not difficult and where land is available for future expansion. Each scheme will be about 700 acres in extent with about 40 families and each holding would be about 14 acres in extent and will be utilised as follows :—

Six acres to be cropped for about 4 years.

Six acres to be rested for about 4 years for stock raising.

Two acres for the harvested vegetable garden, &c.

Dry grains, cotton, chillies, green gram will be the main crops. The colonist would be given substantial help by Government by the provision of :—

(*a*) a fully cleared, stumped and ridged land.

(*b*) a type plan house.

(*c*) minimum livestock required for farming.

(*d*) a set of agricultural implements

(*e*) seed materials.

(*f*) barbed wire for fencing.

(*g*) financial assistance for the first six months till he markets his first crops.

(*h*) provision of soil conservation measures.

In addition there would be general amenities such as a co-operative store and a school, and the Medical Department will carry out anti-malarial measures. With this amount of assistance, it is expected that the dry farming schemes would be a success.

Attempts are also being made to increase the production of guaranteed crops. The output of paddy will be increased not only by bringing new land under cultivation but also by instructing the villagers in improved methods of cultivation. Demonstration plots showing the benefits of transplanting, manuring and the use of pure line seed paddy have been opened up in all parts of the Island, especially in the important paddy growing areas. The C. A. P. & S. Societies have been urged to cultivate

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all paddy lands available in their areas and to adopt improved methods of cultivation in paddy fields by the use of modern ploughs, pure line seed paddy, transplanting, manuring, weeding, &c., for all of which financial assistance is given. To make a special drive to increase the transplanted area societies in surplus areas are now given cash loans of Rs. 15 per acre ; in addition they are given cash loans of Rs. 15 per acre for reaping and threshing and for preliminary cultivation expenses such as hire of buffaloes.

Paddy or Rice

Acreage.—The area under wet land paddy in 1949 was estimated to be 899,932[1] acres yielding approximately 15 million bushels of paddy (grain in husk) per annum. The greatest proportion of the acreage lies in the North-Western Province. But large extents are found in all the provinces.

If ' hill ' paddy (*elvi*) is excluded, it may be said that the cultivation of paddy in Ceylon is based upon a plentiful supply of water. Not only are the plants dependent upon a good supply in all stages up to the ripening period, but the processes of cultivation in all parts of Ceylon, except some of the most northerly, are dependent upon it.

Rain-water Cultivation.—Cultivation without the help of irrigation is carried on, not only in dry districts like Jaffna, but also in wetter parts like the Kandy District. The success of the crops is entirely dependent upon a sufficient and reasonable rainfall, and upon the soil being capable of retaining the water for a fairly long period in order to tide over the rainless intervals. Should the rains fail after the paddy has been sown, the crop will perish, and then the cultivator must re-sow his field with a paddy which can mature in the remainder of the season, or lose the season entirely. Similarly, if the rains are late, the earlier maturing varieties of paddy must be sown.

Irrigation.—When paddy is grown under irrigation, the water may be supplied by springs, streams (*elas*), wells or reservoirs (*tanks*). Cultivation under streams may be seen in the Central and Uva Provinces and under tanks in the drier Eastern, Northern and North-Central Provinces.

Asweddumization.—In all cases where a system of irrigation is employed the land must be ' asweddumized ', or prepared for paddy. Should the paddy area not be level, it is necessary to terrace it. This terracing is brought to a high level of perfection in the hilly districts. Distribution channels convey the irrigation water to the upper plots, and drains carry off the surplus water.

Seasons.—There are two paddy-growing seasons, both of which are made use of for the cultivation of the same tract of fields when sufficient labour and water are available. The *maha* crop is sown from the end of July to middle of October, according to the district. The harvest from this crop is reaped in January or February. The *yala* crop season commences with sowing in March-April, the harvest being reaped in July to September. The corresponding Tamil seasons are called *munmari* and *pinmari* or *kalapokam* and *sirupokam*. Generally speaking, six and three months are required for the respective *maha* and *yala* crops. In some districts sowing takes place between *maha* and *yala* seasons for a *meda* or *iddi* crop.

The main efforts of the Department of Agriculture were directed towards the increase in the production of paddy by the introduction of better methods of cultivation. Light iron ploughs for the preparatory village operations are progressively replacing the local wooden single typed implement called the village plough. In the Western Province alone there are over 10,000 light iron ploughs in use. The two popular models so far are ' C ' and ' D ' the former being heavier and more suited to work with buffaloes and the latter for light soils and smaller oxen. Over 1,000 demonstrations have been given with these ploughs in different parts of the Island and preference is shown for one or other of them. Three types of ploughs from Burma were obtained and new models are being made incorporating some of the features of these ploughs for test. The other implement recommended in paddy cultivation is the toothed harrow introduced originally from Burma for use in puddling the soil after ploughing and also for levelling. It was subsequently found

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1 The actual extent sown in 1949 was :—

1948–49 —' Maha '	..	..	.. 635,987 acres
1949 —' Yala '	..	..	.. 436,816 acres
			1,072,803 acres

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useful for harrowing the standing crop when three to four weeks old as a measure of weed control and for thinning out excess plants. A number of harrows are now in use as a result of several demonstrations which have been given. In the case of varieties of over 4½ months age, harrowing will not be necessary if transplanting is adopted. An intensive campaign has been launched to popularise this practice.

The value of pure line paddies is being increasingly appreciated by growers and the demand for seed far exceeds the supply. A large number of private seed farms has been organised to augment the supply from the Department of Agriculture Seed Stations. The most popular pure lines are as follows :—

Podiwi.—Six months for the wet lowland areas.

Sulai.—Three and half months for the wet lowland areas in the *maha* and *yala* seasons.

Vellai illankalayan.—Four months for the dry lowland as well as the wet lowland for the maha season.

Pachahaiperumal.—Three months for the dry lowlands in the *yala* season.

OTHER CROPS

In addition to paddy cultivation, considerable attention is being paid to the extension of the area under dry grains, especially *maize* and *kurakkan* (which come under the guaranteed price scheme). About 26,145 acres will be under maize and this is expected to give a yield of about 78,435 bushels. Attempts are being made to increase this extent by ensuring that at least one acre in each garden allotment in colonisation schemes and village expansion schemes is brought under cultivation. Already maize purchased under the guaranteed price is being bought by bakeries for mixing with wheat flour at a certain percentage. It is expected to cut down wheat imports to the barest minimum by increasing the extent under maize as it has been found to be an ideal crop for the dry zone. The area under kurakkan is about 57,778 acres. The Department of Agriculture has improved seed for both maize and kurakkan and it is expected to obtain better yields by the sowing of these seeds.

The cultivation of seed onions in Jaffna, Vavuniya, North-Central Province and Uva has been progressing satisfactorily. The following figures show the local purchases of red onions by the Commissioner of Co-operative Development :—

	Cwt.	*Qrs.*	*Lb.*
1949—1*st season*—			
March	1,316	2	19
April and May	4,706	0	07
	6,022	2	26

	Cwt.	*Qrs.*	*Lb.*
1949—2*nd season*—			
August	14,834	1	12
September	23,280	1	27
October	12,843	2	21
November	793	2	06
	15,752	0	10

	Cwt.	*Qrs.*	*Lb.*
1950—1*st season*—			
March	13,249	3	06
April	19,195	2	07
May	9,420	0	04
	41,865	1	17

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All the above onions were produced by C. A. P. & S. Societies in the Northern Province. The purchases in 1950 were made direct from the N. D. A. P. [1] Union at Rs. 25.55 per cwt. The total cost was roughly :—

	Rs. *c.*
1949—1*st season*	105,394 00
2*nd season*	1,079,399 00
1950—1*st season*	1,069,657 00
	2,254,450 00

The extent under chillies too has increased especially in view of the high price of dried chillies. Although correct figures are not available, it has been reported that 16,312 acres are under chillies and that a crop of about 81,560 cwts. is expected. In the dry zone most of the chillies are dried and sold at very reasonable prices. In the wet zone, where drying of chillies is not popular owing to vagaries of the weather and the great demand for green chillies, the crop is consumed when green. This is expected to lower the total quantity of dried chillies required from the dry zone for internal consumption in Ceylon.

All other crops such as ginger, turmeric, green gram, mustard and gingelly have made headway because of the encouragement given to local producers by the operation of the Agricultural Products (Regulations) Ordinance and the Guaranteed Price Scheme. In mustard and gingelly the Island is already self-sufficient and markets have to be found for the excess production.

Loans to the general public for food production purposes have now been reduced to the barest minimum and the only type of loan now given to the public is seed paddy. During the period October 1, 1949, to June 30, 1950, the Revenue Officers have issued on loan 54,033½ bushels of seed paddy valued at Rs. 519,907.07 to cultivators. All other loans, whether in kind or in cash are now issued to cultivators only through C. A. P. & S. Societies.

Although loans amounting to as much as Rs. 11,626,850 have been approved in principle, for the financial year 1949–50, up to date only Rs. 2,638,024.07 have been released. This is because most of the Societies established during the last two years have obtained the capital necessary for their initial outlay.

(B) COMMERCIAL CROPS

Tea

Acreage, &c.—555,576 acres were planted in tea (*Thea sinesis*) in 1949 and consisted of 2,398 estates and 77,977 small holdings. It is grown at elevations varying from sea level to 6,000 feet above. Teas grown over 4,000 feet are classified as High Grown, over 2,000 feet as Medium Grown and below 2,000 feet as Low Grown. The better quality of teas is grown in the higher elevations.

The manufactured product consists of the young tender shoots which after plucking undergo the process of withering, rolling, fermenting and drying or firing.

Rainfall.—A fairly evenly distributed rainfall of 80 to 120 inches a year is required for tea.

Labour.—The labour force on tea estates consists mostly of immigrant labour from India. An estate requires on an average about 1 labourer per acre.

Yields.—Yields vary considerably according to elevation, cultivation, &c., but may be said to range from 300 to 1,200 lb. made tea per acre.

Factory.—The principal machinery required consists of tea rollers, roll breakers, shifters, &c., and dryers. Suction gas engines are the usual source of power.

Preparations for export.—Tea is exported in metal lined wood packages. It is usually blended and packed in packets before it actually reaches the consumer's hands.

1 Northern Division Agricultural Products.

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Restriction.—At the end of March, 1948, the Tea Control Ordinance implementing the International Tea Agreement ceased to be operative. The Internations Tea Committee under whose supervision the International Tea Agreement was, with the concurrence of the Governments of the participating countries, have drawn up a new agreement on the lines of the previous agreeement for a further period of two years. This agreement has now been signed by the main producing countries India, Ceylon, Netherlands East Indies and Pakistan. Pending the passing of a new Tea Control Bill, the export of tea was regulated under the Defence (Control of Export) Regulations, as a temporary measure.

Tea Research.—The Tea Research Institute, with laboratories and its own tea estate of 400 acres (St. Coombs) in the Dimbula district, is maintained by the tea industry itself by means of a cess on tea exports ; during 1949 this was collected at the rate of 25 cents per 100 lb. of made tea exported. The highly qualified staff carry out research and advisory work to estates on all aspects of tea production and in spite of the fact that the institute was seriously understaffed owing to the loss of two senior officers, there was a big increase in its activities, notably in the volume of advisory work. A small sub-station is also maintained in the Passara district, and three officers are stationed in out-districts for advisory work to small holders.

The Blister Blight campaign continued to be of oustanding importance, and with the preliminary mycological work completed, the institute's efforts in this direction were concentrated on control. This problem has resolved itself into the adaptation of modern crop protection methods, and with the object of obtaining expert advice in this sphere, two experts from well known organisations in the U. K. specialising in crop protection spent two months touring the principal blister-infected areas. A symposium was organised to coincide with their visit, attended by scientific officers from all the principal tea producing areas affected by Blister Blight, and a limited number of experienced planters. Although as was expected, no immediate or spectacular results were obtained, their advice, coupled with this pooling of all available information enabled a detailed programme of research work to be made out and the authorisation of special funds for this was pending at the end of the year.

In addition much basic work was done by the institute on fungicides and different types of spraying machines and nozzles ; small-scale field experiments were carried out on tea recovering from pruning in the south-west and north-east monsoons, and as encouraging results were obtained with copper fungicides (*e.g.* Perenox), these will be extended on a large scale in the future.

Events of particular importance during 1949 which illustrate the wide interest taken in the work of the institute were the 8th Biennial Conference at Kandy (attendance 260), and the two-day field demonstration at St. Coombs (attendance 550). At the latter, a number of mechanical appliances likely to be of considerable importance to the tea industry were demonstrated—notably in connection with mechanised spraying, plucking, and uprooting old tea bushes.

Work on vegetative propagation (by internode cuttings) continued to receive high priority, and the selection of blister-resistant clonal material was an important aspect of the Blister Blight campaign. Results have shown, however, that the importance of selecting for high yield and vigorous growth should not be overlooked in favour of attempting to find completely blister-resistant bushes.

Details of the institute's work are published in the Tea Quarterly and Bulletins issued by the institute which are supplied free to all tea estates and to those associated with the industry.

Another important problem confronting the institute is the general deterioration of some tea areas, particularly in up-country districts. Although Blister Blight, combined in some cases with hard plucking and hard pruning has undoubtedly contributed towards this deterioration, the principal cause has probably been inadequate manure applications—particularly of potash. The effect of the shortage of this nutrient during the war, aggravated by the fact that many estates grew food crops as well during those years, is only now becoming apparent owing to the exhaustion of soil reserves ; in fact, a potash deficit over the last ten years amounting now to 200 lb. and over per acre has been found to be widespread. Fortunately, however, this temporary set-back is one that can easily be remedied in time by adequate potassic manuring.

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The institute's extensive fertiliser trial plots, some of which were laid out over 20 years ago, continued to provide valuable field data concerning the effects of nitrogen, phosphoric acid and potash at different levels. Complementary to these artificial manuring experiments may be mentioned trials of a number of new green manures.

The institute is fortunate in having its own tea factory equipped with both commercial and small scale plant for experiments with small batches of leaf. The long-term study of rolling methods continued, and amongst various short-term investigations might be included tests with tea chests from the Government Plywood Factory.

Rubber

Acreage, elevation and rainfall.—The acreage under rubber in 1949 was 656,583* acres. The rubber tree cultivated in Ceylon (*Hevea brasiliensis*) flourishes at elevations below 2,000 feet and requires a well distributed rainfall of not less than 80 inches per annum. It is cultivated to varying extents throughout the Island, chiefly in the Province of Sabaragamuwa and in the Western, Central and Southern Provinces.

The Rubber Control Department was established in May, 1934, under the Rubber Control Ordinance, No. 6 of 1934, to implement the International Rubber, Regulation Agreement signed in London on May 7, 1934. This Agreement, which expired at the end of December, 1938, was extended under a new Ordinance No. 38 of 1938, till December, 1943, and eventually terminated on April 30, 1944.

In 1942 as a result of the extension of the theatre of war to the East, the issue of rubber coupons was suspended ; and Ordinance No. 38 of 1938 was amended by Ordinance No. 63 of 1943. This Ordinance repealed *inter alia* the sections relating to the assessment of rubber lands and the issue of coupons.

The Department now functions for the collection of statistics of acreage, production, exports, imports and local consumption ; issue of permits for new-planting and replanting ; maintenance of registers of rubber lands, and allocation of rubber dealers' stocks.

Ceylon is a member of the Rubber Study Group, London, an organisation comprising almost all the territories substantially interested in the production or consumption of rubber and the statistics collected are transmitted monthly to this Group.

Acreage.—The total verified acreage under rubber in Ceylon as at December 31, 1949, was :—

		Acres
Area under rubber as at December 31, 1948		633,215
Less cancellations of registrations, reduction of acreage, &c.		3,810
		629,405
	Acres	
Nurseries and experimental plots, 1943–49	609	
New plantings, 1943–1949	26,569	
		27,178
		656,583

Approximately 460,000 acres of this area consisted of rubber planted prior to 1922.

* At the time of publication this figure was revised to 655,111 by the Rubber Contoller.

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The verified acreage of 629,405 acres was distributed as follows :—

	Acres
Wholly planted	522,369
Interplanted	72,215
Budded rubber	34,821*
	629,405

This extent of 629,405 acres fell into the following categories :—

Description	*No. of Registrations*	*Total extent Acres*
(*a*) Lands below 10 acres	112,951	149,800
(*b*) Lands 10 acres to 100 acres	5,181	131,942
(*c*) Lands over 100 acres and below 550 acres	658	150,641
(*d*) Lands 500 acres and above	215	197,022
	119,005	629,405

The rubber acreage is owned in the following proportion :—

Ceylonese	58 per cent.
European	39 per cent.
Others	3 per cent.

PRODUCTION

The following table indicates the monthly production of rubber during 1949 :—

Month	*Production (tons)*	*Month*	*Production (tons)*
January	9,500	July	7,000
February	3,500	August	7,500
March	7,000	September	8,000
April	7,500	October	8,500
May	7,000	November	8,500
June	6,500	December	9,000

Total 1949 = 89,500 tons

LOANS FOR THE REHABILITATION OF THE RUBBER INDUSTRY

Government decided to advance one million rupees out of the Consolidated Fund to the Agricultural and Industrial Credit Corporation at 1½ per cent. per annum. The corporation in turn was to grant loans at 2 per cent. per annum for the replanting of existing rubber lands with high yielding material or with other crops on the recommendation of the Director of Agriculture and the Rubber Controller as well. The details were being worked out and it was expected to launch the scheme in 1950.

THE RUBBER RESEARCH SCHEME

The Rubber Research Scheme is established under the Rubber Research Ordinance (Cap. 302) and is financed by the industry through a cess on exports. The scheme maintains an advisory service and conducts research at its experiment stations.

* Excludes an area of 37,700 acres replanted with Budded rubber during the period June 1, 1934, to December 31, 1949, and which area is included in the wholly and interplanted areas.

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Owing to an acute shortage of senior scientific staff no major investigations no plant breeding was undertaken but existing experiments were continued. About 3,500 trees were test tapped in various experimental areas at Dartonfield and Nivitigalakele and about 24,000 clonal seedlings were established in nurseries at Nivitigalakele. Twenty-five new clones established mainly from high yielding Prang Besar and Tjikadoe seedlings were planted out in a large scale clone trial at Hedigalla Experiment Station.

Investigations on replanting work have been made regarding the cost of replanting when the method of killing the old trees by poisoning with Sodium Arsenite is adopted. Although the cost is considerably less when this method is adopted it has been found that root disease remains a matter of considerable economic importance, as *Fomes lignosus* in the ' dormant ' rhizomorphic stage remains as a potential source of infection in the roots of the old tree which are not killed by the poisoning method. It is therefore felt that the felling of old rubber on a contract together with the sale of timber resulting in a considerable saving in replanting cost should be given preference over the method of poisoning.

The efforts to control pests and diseases were continued. A special officer was appointed in 1949 to work on *Oidium heveae*, which is the most important disease of rubber. Alternative methods of control such as the use of a mist applicator have been investigated. The search for Oidium resistant clones has resulted in the selection of one variety which up to date has suffered no leaf fall due to mildew. The foliage is infected to a slight extent but not seriously enough to cause leaf malformation, dwarfing or shedding, in fact, so far powdery mildew is an insignificant factor in the growth of this clone.

Unfortunately this clone is a poor yielder of latex but it is hoped to make use of it for breeding purposes by crossing it with higher yielding clones, in the endeavour to obtain progeny with high yield and mildew resistance. Crown buddings at eight feet with this clone on twinned stocks of known clonal seed with a high yielding clone budded on one of the pair of twins and the resistant clone on the other were made at Hedigalla. From these crown budded trees it is intended to obtain data on the effect of this low yielding (but Oidium resistant) crown on the yield of latex as compared with the high yielding crown used for comparative purposes.

The smallholdings department provided by the scheme continued to function in its enlarged state and its general advisory services have been increasingly recognised and sought after by smallholders.

Coconut

Acreage.—During the Census of 1946 an effort was made to collect more accurate statistics of the acreage under coconut in Ceylon. Consequently, it was revealed that the extent under coconut in Ceylon was 920,942 acres. This figure does not include coconuts growing in town and village gardens, most of which contain a few trees for domestic use. The total of these holdings of one acre or less, usually forming the compound of a dwelling-house, is 309,381 acres of which about 150,000 acres are under coconuts. Thus the total area under coconuts in Ceylon is little over one million acres, the largest acreage under any crop in Ceylon.

Cultivation.—On estates regular ploughing and disc-harrowing are usually carried out. It is estimated that only about 25,000 acres of coconut land are regularly manured with artificial fertilizers, on small properties, cultivation is manual for the most part ; some form of cattle manuring is common, usually by tying cattle round the palms.

Yields.—Coconut palms are usually planted at about 60 to the acre. In such fertile areas as Madampe and Rajakadaluwa and Marawila, first class properties give annual yields of 4,000 nuts per acre or more. 3,000 nuts per annum is a reasonable estate average ; nut the general average of all coconut land in Ceylon is not reckoned to exceed 1,700 over a period of 5 years. Crop fluctuations occur because a serious drought in one year can reduce yields in the year following.

According to the report of the Ceylon Coconut Commission, published in October, 1949, the peak year of production was 1948 when, according to the estimate, a total crop of 2,001,622,165 nuts was obtained. This is equivalent to a yield of 1,900 nuts per acre.

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Coconut Research Scheme.—The Coconut Research Scheme, which was established by Ordinance No. 29 of 1928 (Chapter 303), has its headquarters at Bandirippuwa Estate, Lunuwila. A sub-station at Ratmalagara Estate, Madampe, was opened in 1938. Scientific research is carried out on the breeding and improvement of the coconut palm, manuring and cultivation, the technology of coconut products and the inter-relationship between animal husbandry and coconuts.

Useful results have been obtained from fertilizer trials and the manuring of coconut palms in Ceylon has been placed on a rational bais. The scheme has in the thirteen years 1936–1948 supplied over 600,000 selected seednuts and 135,000 seedlings raised in the nurseries of its estates.

As many of the coconut areas now consist of old palms, it was decided to accelerate this work and in 1949, a Planting and Advisory Division was attached to the Coconut Research Scheme. The Department of Agriculture provided the funds required for the establishment of nurseries to supply high-grade seedlings to the general public and the Department of Co-operative Undertakings, financed the establishment of co-operative nurseries by the scheme for the supply of selected seedlings to co-operators.

Starting from scratch, the replanting work has been gradually developed and extended on sound lines. In twenty-four months since the inception of the Replanting Scheme in March, 1949, no less than twenty-two nurseries have been established. In this same period 1,077,835 seed-nuts have been laid down in these nurseries of which the equivalent replanted acreage is approximately 11,000 acres, *i.e.* one per cent. of the total acreage, has been replaced.

Cacao

Commercial ' Cocoa ' is produced from the seeds of the plant *Theobroma cacao*. The variety now grown in Ceylon is largely *Forastero*, though there is a small proportion of *Criolla cacao*.

Elevation and rainfall, &c.—The cultivation of cacao is restricted to favourably situated valleys at an elevation between 50 to 2,000 feet which receive a well regulated rainfall of 60 to 80 inches and are protected from high winds. Plantations lie almost entirely in the Kandy and Matale Districts of the Central Province. Of an approximate acreage of 19,700 acres under cacao in the Island 55 per cent. is in the former districts and 33 per cent. in the latter.

Labour.—The labour required for a cacao estate works out at about one labourer for 2 acres. Tamils generally form the bulk of the labour force, but Sinhalese are also employed for lopping, &c.

Planting.—As the young plant requires to be carefully shaded, shade trees must be planted at the same time between the rows about the same distance apart as the cacao.

Crops.—Cacao commences to bear fruit about the fifth year, two crops a year being then gathered. The general average yield is about $3\frac{1}{2}$ to 4 cwt. per acre.

Packing.—Cacao after grading is packed in bags (112 lb. to a bag) when it is ready for export. Most of the cacao from Ceylon is shipped, in this form.

Cinnamon

Cinnamon, once the main export, still occupies a place, though a minor one, in the trade of the Island. The approximate total acreage is 33,000 acres.

The industry is entirely in the hands of Ceylonese. The number of large properties of 100 acres and over in extent is limited and these receive systematic attention. The majority of plantations are small areas of 10 to 25 acres in extent.

The tree.—The cinnamon tree may grow to the height of 20 to 30 feet and the trunk may be upwards of a foot in circumference. The trees cultivated to produce the cinnamon of commerce are coppiced, and long willowy shoots are produced, growing to a height of about 10 feet and to the size of a fair-sized walking stick. The shoots are cut and the bark is peeled off, and rolled into quills, which constitute the cinnamon of commerce.

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Citronella Oil

Citronella oil grass is a large coarse grass growing 3 to 4 feet high, cultivated in Ceylon (and of late years in Java) for its essential oil, which is obtained from the leaves by distillation. It flourishes up to an elevation of 2,000 feet, but its cultivation is confined entirely to the Southern Province where the acreage under this crop is estimated to be 30,100 acres of which over 50 per cent. are in Matara District and the rest in Hambantota District. Cultivation is in the hands of the Ceylonese. The grass is readily propagated by division (seed being rarely produced), and may be planted about 2 by 3 feet apart in rows. Two cuttings a year may be obtained, and about 40 lb. of marketable oil per acre is an estimated annual yield. The oil is of a strong aromatic odour ; it is exported for use in scenting soaps, perfumery, &c., and is also a preventive against the bites of mosquitoes and leeches.

Tobacco

Acreage and localities.—The extent under tobacco in 1949 was 10,450 acres. Of the total acreage, a little over half is found in Jaffna District, which is in the Northern Province where great care is given to cultivation. The methods adopted are peculiar to this area and the manufacture of the leaf gives rise to the most important industry in the district. Another variety of leaf is grown in the Central Province which claims about 20 per cent. of the total acreage under the crop. Dumbara in the Kandy District is a particularly favoured area, while in the Matale District the crop is of some importance to the peasant, besides there being a small manufacture of cigars and pipe tobacco from the local leaf as in the case of Dumbara. Tobacco is also grown in the Kurunegala District where the method of manufacture to produce a chewing tobacco differs from that adopted in Jaffna. Elsewhere cultivation is carried out in the North-Central and Eastern Provinces to less extents.

Cigarettes Tobacco.—Within recent years attention has been given to the possibility of establishing an industry for the cultivation and flue-curing of cigarette tobacco. This tobacco can be grown either as a purely rain-fed crop in the *maha* season or on well drained paddy lands under irrigation in the *yala* season. Good quality leaf has been produced and it is hoped that the cultivation of cigarette tobacco will find its place in the agricultural economy of the Island in the future.

Cardamoms

Acreage.—The total acreage under cardamoms is estimated to be 6,000 acres, of which about 80 per cent. is confined to the Central Province—Kandy, Nuwara Eliya, and Matale Districts. The rest of the cultivations is in Kegalla and Ratnapura Districts (Province of Sabaragamuwa). The bulk of the plantation is in the hands of the European owners, but the number of small gardens of a few acres in size in the hands of peasants, is not inconsiderable.

Uses.—Cardamoms are of a commercial value on account of the spice obtained from them, which is well known to cooks and confectioners, and is used in pharmacopiae as a deadner of tastes and a medicine.

Habitat, &c.—The commercial value of the plant lies in the fruit which is borne on racemes rising from the ground. The plant itself (*Elettaris cardamomum*) grows in stools or clumps under the shade of forest trees at elevations between 2,800 and 4,000 feet, with a rainfall of 115 to 150 inches a year.

Manufacture.—The fruit is collected and is manufactured into either (1) bleached, or (2) green dried.

Arecanuts

Conditions.—The arecanut palm is grown in all village gardens in the wetter districts of the Island. It produces heavy crops of fruits, and provides straight stems, which are used for the erection of temporary structures. Pure cultivations of the palm similar to those to be found in Southern India are rarely seen in Ceylon, although in the Kegalla District there are some fairly extensive pure plantations. The area under arecanut is about 69,000 acres.

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The fruit.—The fruits of the arecanut palm are harvested when ripe, and are sold in their unhusked state in all the bazaars and markets of the Island.

Arecanuts are generally exported to India and the Maldive Islands.

Cotton

This is one of the important annual cash crops suitable for cultivation in the dry lowlands. It is mainly grown in chenas, but it can be successfully introduced as a rotation crop. For the 1947–48 *maha* season, 1,774 cwt. were produced by peasants and the crop was purchased by the Department of Agriculture acting on behalf of the Spinning and Weaving Mills at Wellawatta. For the 1948–49 season, about 2,500 acres were planted with the medium staple cotton originally received from Uganda. In tests, it has proved greatly superior in yield and quality to the former *cambodia* strain. It is estimated that with this strain which has been exclusively cultivated in the Island for the *maha* 1948–49 season the average yield will be about 3 cwt. per acre from chenas.

III. Agricultural Marketing

The year 1949 has been one of steady progress in the sphere of agricultural marketing. There has been a progressive realisation of the policy of helping the primary producer and craftsman to market his produce at a fair price and at the same time assuring to the consumer a good quality product at a reasonable price. The agricultural producer is still the backbone of the country and there is urgent need to encourage him to increase production by assuring him of a steady market and a fair price for the produce. The Marketing Department continued systematic propaganda to popularise the use of a local produce and operate the Agricultural Products Regulation Ordinance and the guaranteed price scheme for foodstuffs such as paddy, maize, kurakkan, gingelly, mustard, &c., to the general benefit of the primary producer. 10,000 copies of the Market Information Bulletin are distributed free in Sinhalese, Tamil and English, giving retail selling prices of foodstuffs, grains, fruits and other consumer goods and the quantities, prices and varieties of agricultural produce available in important fairs in the Provinces. Among other measures adopted towards improving the lot of the producer and to check exploitation by middlemen by increased prices, &c., are the establishment of Checking Centres in charge of Marketing Officers in the provinces for purchase of produce and of ' Ceylon Products ' shops in the principal towns and places such as Inginiyagala, to carry on retail sales.

Vegetable Purchase Scheme.—The ten vegetable collecting centres established at Negombo, Kandy, Nuwara Eliya, Bandarawela, Batticaloa, Jaffna, Galle, Kurunegala, Anuradhapura and Ratnapura collected direct from the producer or through Co-operative Societies 3,900,288 pounds of vegetables. These were disposed of locally as well as at other units of the Department in the outstations and in Colombo. In Colombo, the vegetables and fruits received from collecting centres are sold to consumers at the Tripoli Warehouse, the Old Town Hall Market, and the Ceylon Products Shop in the Fort. Supplies are also made to the hospitals in Colombo and the outskirts, and delivery services to bungalows and street sales in vans are also conducted.

In the outstations supplies are made to 46 outstation hospitals and sales are conducted in the Ceylon Products Shops in addition to sales in the van. It has been found necessary to resort to purchases from dealers only for the purpose of supplying on emergency orders to the hospitals when the items ordered are not immediately available from the quantities collected by the departmental officers. Such purchases form only a small percentage of the total supply of vegetables and fruits under this scheme. The following statement gives the quantity of fruits bought from producers, Co-operative Societies and State Farms :—

Limes	918,232
Mangoes	231,541
Oranges	750,709
Pineapples	58,263
Plantains	7,285,936
Other fruits	194,241

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Tripoli Warehouse continues to serve as the collecting store and depot from which vegetables and fruits are distributed to various other depots in Colombo including the Hospital Supply Section and the Kitchen.

A scheme to collect plantains from the producers in the Jaffna Peninsula has worked during the year with marked success. The departmental van goes to the gardens and collects daily over 100 bunches of plantains which are transported by rail to Colombo for supplying the hospitals and for other sales.

Egg Scheme.—The scheme for collection of eggs operated in the Negombo and Kochchikade areas has been expanded with the aid of the Rural Development Societies and Co-operative Societies. The eggs are collected by van from 60 Co-operative Stores Societies, Co-operative Agricultural Production and Sales Societies, Rural Development Societies and two schools and transported to Colombo by lorry, where every egg is candled and graded and sold to the consumer at fixed prices. Any eggs returned as being bad, are replaced without question. It may be claimed that now the farmer or producer of eggs is given an adequate return for his investment and labour. The number of eggs collected during 1949 was 4,360,201 of which 3,680,232 were from the Kochchikade area.

Rice Milling.—The Marketing Department has three mills at Ambalantota, Batticaloa and Anuradhapura and ten hulling plants at Trincomalee, Kalawewa, Medawachchiya, Nikaweratiya, Maho, Nanadan, Periyapulachchipotkerni, Paranthan and Matara. The failure of the Yala crop and the local market price being higher than the guaranteed price for paddy proved a serious obstacle to the flow of paddy into the departmental mills and the Co-operative Societies and other agents were unable to buy paddy at the guaranteed price or were reluctant to transfer the paddy whenever they collected any as the price paid by them was in excess of the gauranteed price.

The quantity of paddy received during the period January to December, 1949, paddy milled and the rice produced are as follows :—

	Bushels
Paddy received	565,991
Paddy milled	517,590
Rice produced	259,518

CEYLON PRODUCTS SHOPS

In addition to the existing shops in the outstations, two new shops were opened at Ampari and Inginiyagala to assist in the sale of provisions and other goods to the labour force and other employees under the Gal-oya Development Scheme, canteens for supplying cooked meals are also established at these places and the value of their services has been appreciated by the authorities.

The sales at the Ceylon Products Shop at Chatham street have improved during the year. With a view to strengthening the over-seas market, samples of Kalutara basketware, lace, Kandyan arts and crafts goods and curios, were sent abroad to the Embassies in the U. K. and U. S. A. and to Ceylon House, Bombay, in consultation with the Director of Commerce. A few orders have already been received. Considerable trade is expected to develop from these sources.

PROCESSING AND CANNING

This section has been considerably expanded during the year and production increased but costs were reduced and an improvement effected in the quality of products. For the first time production of jams and jellies was undertaken and although the quantity produced was only 15,239 tins, these have been selling fast and there has been a keen demand for pineapple jam from the hospitals and local consumers.

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An additional plant, taken over from the Agricultural Department, has been set up at Walpita State Farm and worked in addition to the plant at Chatham street and the Mobile Canning Plant. The production of canned fruit and jams, &c., during 1949 was as follows :—

Canned pineapples	62,510 tins
Canned mangoes	24,250 tins
Jams and jellies and marmalades	15,239 tins
Cashew nuts, coffee powder, and other products	6,609 tins
Fruit juices	2,919 bottles
Ghee, gingelly oil, &c.	4,745 bottles

This activity is full of prospects and it is proposed to pursue this activity with the utmost vigour. Apart from curtailing imports, it is possible to develop a considerable over-seas market for our canned fruits and thereby encourage the local fruit grower by payment of fair prices.

A. P. R. O. AND MARKETING OF HOME GROWN FOODS

The Agricultural Products (Regulation) Ordinance was re-introduced from December 1, 1948, in respect of the following commodities :—

Dried chillies, black pepper, green gram, mustard, turmeric, red onions and tamarind.

The experience of working the Ordinance shows that the guarantee of fair prices to the producer encourages him to intensify production and achieve the object of curtailing imports into the country. The difficulty experienced at first in the marketing of maize was overcome later by the Food Commissioner agreeing to take over the flour for distribution with wheat flour under the ration scheme. There was a bumper harvest of gingelly and mustard and despite the prohibition of imports, large quantities are still lying in the hands of the Department awaiting sale locally or in over-seas markets.

The total quantity collected up to the end of September, 1949, is as follows :—

	Cwt.		*Bushels*
Mustard	11,689	Gingelly	123,000
Green gram	1,089	Kurakkan	2,456
Tamarind	3,106	Maize	41,506
Coffee	389		
Pepper	7		
Turmeric	5		
Dry chillies	28		
Red onions	59,976		

IV. Irrigation

EARLY HISTORY

From the earliest period in the history of the Island, the importance of conserving water for irrigation has been recognised. Historical records indicate that the construction of the necessary tanks and channels came to be regarded as a special and solemn duty assigned to the King for promoting the wealth and welfare of his subjects, and that in proportion to the zeal with which different monarchs had exercised this prerogative their names were venerated. The remains of extensive and intricate networks of tanks and canals can be found today in every part of the Island. Though it is unlikely that all these various irrigation systems ever existed simultaneously in full working order, it is clear that the ancient engineers realised the principles of conserving on a very large scale the intermittent supplies carried by the main rivers, and with the advantage of an unlimited command of labour and an intimate knowledge of their terrain, though handicapped by the primitive nature of their technique and appliances, they made valiant and often successful efforts to apply them.

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DECAY AND SUBSEQUENT GROWTH

Indigenous irrigation activity and agricultural prosperity seem to have reached their zenith about the twelfth century A.D. From then onwards to the modern era Ceylon was not infrequently ravaged by internal warfare and pestilence. No large irrigation work was constructed in this period, and, until the advent of the Dutch and subsequently of the British, the works already built were allowed to fall into disuse and disrepair. There is probably no form of civil engineering work that demands more constant and unremitting attention to its maintenance than that connected with the control of water, and it is not difficult to appreciate that without such attention the once great irrigation works very rapidly succumbed to the onset of floods and the ceaseless inroads of the jungle. In modern times many of the old irrigation works have been restored to active usefulness. There are yet others embedded in the jungle which await restoration as and when occasion arises.

IMPORTANCE OF IRRIGATION

The importance of irrigation in Ceylon is due to two causes, one dietic and the other climatic. Rice is the staple food of the people and its cultivation, though not always remunerative, has, through secular and religious encouragement, acquired a definite social status as the national agricultural industry. Rice practically grows in water, and although the rainfall in the Island is generally adequate in total amount, its seasonal incidence is uncertain. Rice cultivation cannot succeed if it depends solely on the vagaries of such rainfall, and the construction and maintenance of artificial means of diverting and conserving water are manifestly essential.

CLASSIFICATION OF IRRIGATION WORKS

The total area under paddy in Ceylon today may be divided into three main categories according to the system of water supply available for each—

(i) Major works.
(ii) Minor works : Village tanks.
(iii) Direct rainfall.

The owners of land under major works are required to contribute, by an assessed annual rate, towards the cost of construction and maintenance of the works. The 'construction rate' is generally a very small percentage of the capital cost of the work and the 'maintenance rate' not infrequently produces considerably less revenue than the actual expenditure incurred by Government on the maintenance of the work.

Minor works, both tanks and channels, are maintained by the villagers themselves under the general supervision of Government officials and with the tangible and often considerable assistance of Government. The fourth category covers lands that, being situated in localities of evenly distributed rainfall, are able with reasonable chances of success to dispense with artificial irrigation. The trouble on these lands is often the super abundance of water rather than its deficiency, and drainage rather than irrigation is their particular need.

PROGRESSIVE DEVELOPMENT OF ACTIVITIES

When the Irrigation Department was created in 1900 it was assigned the engineering duties of operating and maintaining those major works which had already been restored in whole or part, and of restoring a selection of old abandoned works under which the prospects of development appeared to be favourable. The administrative side of these works and the general responsibility for all minor irrigation works remained the function of the revenue officers, with such advice and assistance as they required from the Irrigation Department. Under this regime steady progress was made with the extension and improvement of irrigation service under major works, and latterly the engineering resources of the Department have been applied in a rapidly increasing degree to the

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improvement of minor irrigation tanks and channels on modern scientific lines. Another development of the department's functions, which is rapidly acquiring considerable importance, is the construction of schemes for preventing or abating floods, for improvement of drainage conditions on irrigable lands, and for exclusion of sea-water therefrom. With this development the Department has become directly interested in irrigation, flood protection, salt water exclusion and land drainage in Ceylon and the scope of its service has correspondingly widened.

NEW DEVELOPMENT SCHEME

The most outstanding feature during 1948, in so far as the activities of the Irrigation Department are concerned, was the completion of designs and estimates and the award of the target-estimate contract to the firm of American engineers for the construction of the gigantic Gal-oya project in the Eastern Province which when completed will convert about 90,000 acres of jungle land into arable land and will provide irrigation and flood protection to a further 30,000 acres of asweddumised land. This is in fact a multi-purpose project designed to provide, primarily a huge dam to generate cheap hydro-electric power which will be of incalculable benefit to the industrial development of the country, secondly a storage reservoir for irrigation purposes, and thirdly a flood detentive capacity basin to prevent the annually recurrent floods in the area, which in the past have done extensive damage to crops and property.

In addition to its normal activities the Department is concentrating its attention to a six-year programme specially drawn up to bring about 86,000 acres of new lands under paddy cultivation by September of 1953. Some of the important items in this programme are Parakrama Samudra Scheme, Elahera, Minneriya, Huruluwewa, Kagama Extension, Bathmedilla, Ridi Bendi-ela, Minipe Extention, Devahuwa, Gal-oya, Kanthalai Extension, Allai Extension, &c. This programme is solely confined to new development schemes of a productive nature and does not include any of the numerous other major schemes carried out by the Department such as Nalanda-oya Scheme, Jaffna Lagoon Scheme, Balagalla Tank, &c., which are designed either to replenish other schemes or to provide improved facilities.

With a view of further development of new acres under the forward policy of increased food production, a long term programme is also being drawn up.

During the year 1948, irrigation, drainage, access salt water exclusion and flood protection facilities were provided for the first time for over 10,640 acres the largest area being 3,179 acres under Parakrama Samudra Scheme. Improved irrigation facilities were at the same time provided for another 22,025 acres of existing lands both under major and village irrigation schemes.

MODERNIZATION OF CONSTRUCTION

Intensive employment of earth moving and other construction machinery has not only expedited the completion of large construction works, but has also resulted in economy.

Machinery has been imported since 1943 and with the inauguration of the multi-purpose Gal-oya project latest construction and earth moving equipment to conform to modern standards of construction have been obtained and are being used.

Apart from tractors and implements used on mechanised agricultural operations, there are no less than 85 tractors of large and medium sizes together with ancillaries, 22 excavators of various sizes, 9 motor graders, 9 stone crushers, 29 air compressors, 58 penumatic drills, 20 power road rollers, 19 euclid bottom dump trucks (13 cu. yd.), 15 rear dump euclid trucks, 43 concrete mixers and a large fleet of transports and several other lesser items of machinery are engaged on intensive construction works throughout the Island. The above excludes the large variety of mechanical equipment which is being used on the construction of the Gal-oya project.

In order to keep and maintain the several machines in repair, a well-equipped mechanical organisation is in operation with a central workshop at Ratmalana and other field workshops at work centres.

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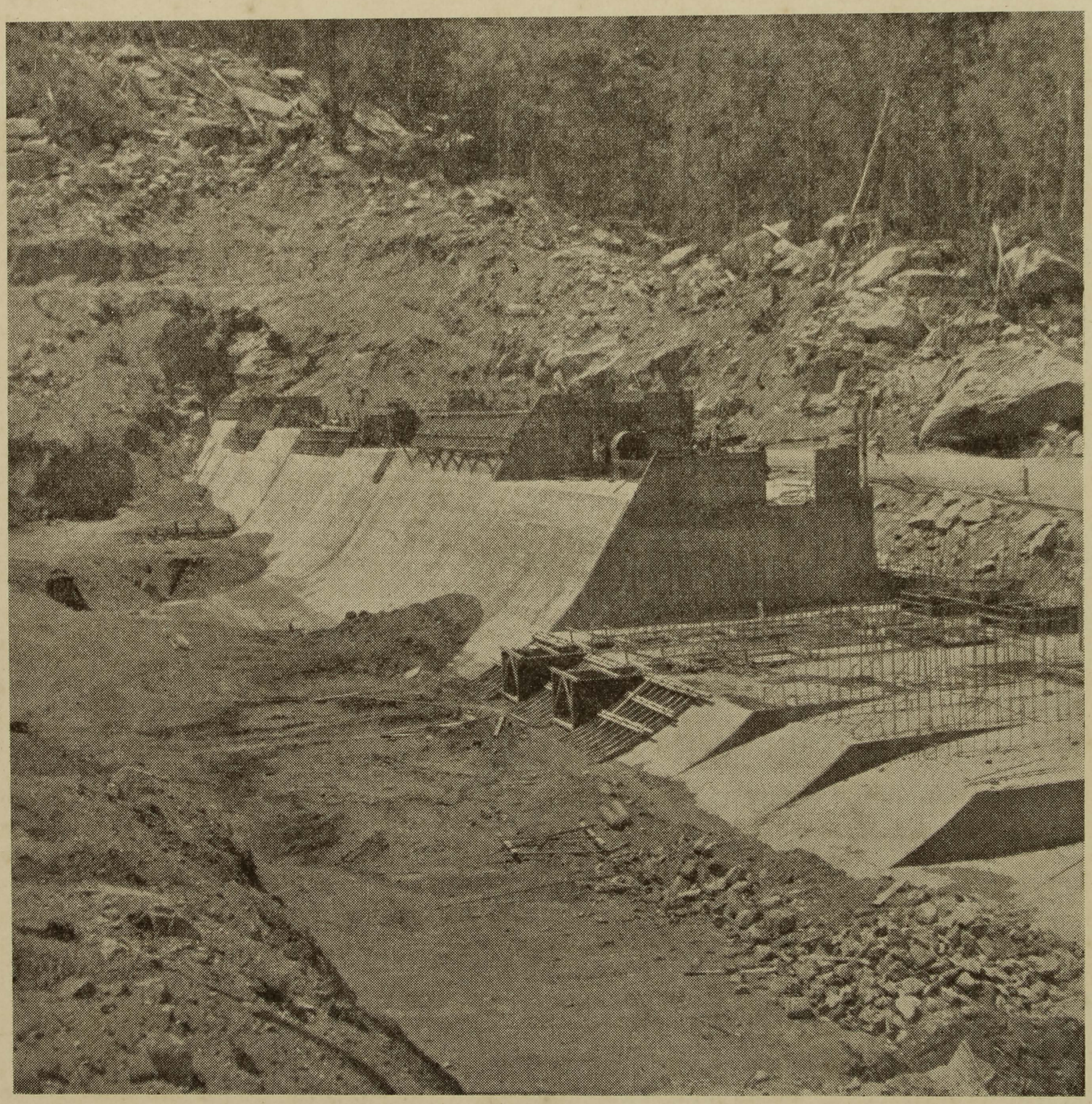
The following is a brief description of some of the major projects covered by the Developmental Programme :—

GAL-OYA SCHEME (MULTI-PURPOSE)

The Gal-oya Scheme comprises the damming of the Gal-oya river in the Eastern Province of Ceylon to provide yearly about 700,000 acre feet of water for irrigation, with which it is hoped to irrigate 90,000 acres now under jungle, and to improve the irrigation of 30,000 acres already cultivated.

The new land will be leased to peasant cultivators, who will each get in the area on which paddy is to be grown 4 acres of irrigated land and 3 acres of unirrigated land, with a small house and garden. In the area which is to be devoted to sugar-cane cultivation the proportion of irrigated land will be higher. It is hoped to provide 21,000 peasant holdings in the new area. In the area already cultivated, two crops a year instead of one may be possible on 30,000 acres.

GAL-OYA—SPILLWAY DAM UNDER CONSTRUCTION



WALAWE (MULTI-PURPOSE)

Construction of an earth dam across the Walawe-ganga river together with related structures to store 250,000 acre feet of water to irrigate 40,000 acres of new land and to ensure supplies to 13,000 acres of existing paddy land and to produce 10,000 kwh. hydro-electric power. The reservoir

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will also serve as a flood-reducing agent. Two channels on the left and right banks of the river together with the distributory and field channel system will serve the whole area. In addition to the paddy land, approximately 24,000 acres of garden land will be developed.

KANTALAI

Construction of a 16 mile long channel tapping the Alu-oya and Gal-oya streams to feed the existing Kantalai tank which seldom fills now. Rising the spills of this tank and the restoration of Vendarasam Kulam to form a single reservoir of capacity 90,000 acre feet. The reservoir together with the channel system will be made use of to irrigate 19,000 acres of new paddy land and 4,900 acres of existing paddy land and to develop 14,250 acres of high land for garden crops, in addition to the existing acreage of 4,900 acres of paddy land below Kantalai Tank.

HURULUWEWA

Restoration of an earth dam, 1.6 miles long, together with the related works to form a reservoir of 55,000 acre feet capacity and the construction of the main, distributory and field channels systems and roads for the development of 10,000 acres of paddy land and 6,000 acres of high land for garden crops.

PARAKRAMA SAMUDRA SCHEME

Construction of a diversion weir across the Amban-ganga, an inlet channel $2\frac{3}{4}$ miles long, and the restoration of three tanks to form a single reservoir of 83,000 acre feet capacity and the construction of the main, distributory and field channels together with a road system serving 21,000 acres of paddy land and 8,000 acres of high land for garden crops.

V. The Island's Food Situation

The gradual improvement in the food situation was maintained over the greater part of 1949 until currency devaluation took place towards the end of the year resulting in a general increase in the prices of imported food-stuffs and a consequent rise in the cost of living. World production of basic foodstuffs showed a further advance towards pre-war levels, except in the case of rice, whose increased production was hampered by political troubles in Burma and Indo-China, two of the chief producing countries. Government importation of foodstuffs was further relaxed, and during 1949 was confined to rice, flour and sugar and skim milk powder. All other foodstuffs were imported through the normal trade channels.

Ceylon obtained from the International Emergency Food Committee an allocation of 400,000 tons of rice for the year 1949 ; of this, 280,000 tons were to be imported from Burma and the balance from Siam, Egypt and Italy. 394,489 tons of this allocation were actually imported, despite the difficult situation in Burma, the chief source of supply.

The rice position during the year was, however, not as uneventful as these figures might suggest, as on more than one occasion delay in the arrival of cargoes led to critical situations which were got over only by emergency shipments arranged by the Singapore Sub-Committee of the International Emergency Food Committee. Towards the end of the year, under pressure from the rice exporting countries who desired a free hand with their exports in order to obtain better prices, the International Emergency Food Committee decided to abandon allocation of rice as from January 1, 1950, and after consultations with other importing countries, Ceylon commenced negotiations in December, 1949, with the Government of Burma for the supply of her requirements for 1950. Imports during 1949 enabled the rice ration to be maintained throughout the year.

Increased production of wheat and wheat flour led to the removal of this commodity from international allocation and to the signing of an International Wheat Agreement in March, 1949, under which exporting countries undertook to sell and importing countries to buy definite quantities for a period of four years, at prices to be negotiated between maximum and minimum levels laid down under the Agreement. Ceylon guaranteed to buy 86,000 tons of wheat flour per annum. However, before importation could take place under the Agreement devaluation had occurred and nullified the benefit of reduced prices expected under it. Imports of flour during the year amounted

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to 166,719 tons. Both rice and flour continued as before to be procured through the British Ministry of Food until about the end of the year when the Ministry withdrew and the Ceylon Government began direct procurement from Burma and Australia respectively.

Imports of sugar during 1949 were on an increased scale and amounted to 107,130 tons, the increased demand being largely due to the shortage of jaggery, both local and imported. Sugar continued to be bought from the British Ministry of Food, which controlled most of the Commonwealth production. The year saw increased imports, compared with 1948, of a large number of essential commodities such as pulses, preserved milk, milk foods, butter and cheese, chillies, onions and dried fish. The cost of food imports on a c.i.f. basis for the year 1949 was, according to the Customs returns, Rs. 503 millions (liquor excluded), and might have been higher had it not become necessary owing to the development of an adverse trade balance, to reintroduce import restrictions in August, 1949, and revise the food programme on restrictive lines.

The Free Milk Feeding Scheme was further expanded during 1949 when there were over 3,500 centres functioning and 250,000 children and mothers were fed daily at these centres. 1,000 tons of skim milk powder for reconstitution were imported during the year for the scheme. An innovation adopted was the use of fresh milk instead of reconstituted milk in areas where sufficient fresh milk could be had at a reasonable cost, and 150 centres changed over to fresh milk during the year. The expenditure on the scheme for the financial year 1948–49 was Rs. 3,444,500 which puts the cost of a child's daily feed, *i.e.*, $\frac{1}{4}$ pint of milk, at approximately four cents.

Towards the end of the year Government decided that the Department of Food Supplies should take over the further function of administering the Guaranteed Price Scheme for agricultural produce, the purpose of which is to stimulate food production by the offer of guaranteed prices to farmers. Considerable preparatory work in setting up the organisation necessary to purchase produce from farmers was done with a view to putting the scheme in operation at the beginning of 1950.

The following table contains the principal items of food imports, their quantities and value for the year 1949 :—

Commodity	*Quantity in tons*	*Value in rupees*
Rice	396,786	226,355,771
Flour	156,959	82,460,362
Sugar	116,456	47,429,397
Pulses	31,656	18,643,720
Preserved Milk	5,061	7,702,206
Milk Foods	2,944	12,577,062
Animal Foods	5,777	1,044,420
Meat	795	1,437,496
Sheep and goats (number)	46,447	2,094,043
Butter, cheese, ghee	990	3,661,370
Jaggery and sugar candy	9,258	5,194,597
Coffee	916	1,790,987
Potatoes	22,483	5,482,553
Chillies	11,579	29,096,608
Corriander	3,664	2,042,769
Other spices	7,644	6,032,649
Onions	34,482	9,809,993
Dried fish	27,223	30,314,130
Eggs (number)	2,710,148	387,062
Other foodstuffs	—	10,649,610*
		504,206,805

* Liquor excluded.

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FOOD CONTROL

The possibility of Food Control being removed in the near future does not exist for the following reasons :—

(i) Production of rice in this part of the world will have to be greatly increased to enable all importing countries to have as much as they want at a reasonable price. It is believed that pre-war production has indeed been passed but the huge increases of population in every country has reduced the ' per capita ' production.

(ii) The availability of exchange. The all-round increase in prices makes it likely that this will be a big factor in determining the amount which Ceylon will import in the future, even if foodstuffs were available for this purpose. The coming into being of a free market in rice from 1950 has added to this difficulty.

(iii) The necessity to subsidise rice. It would appear that the high imported cost of rice will make this necessary for several years unless the Government decides that the internal price of rice is to be increased to a figure commensurate with the imported cost. The issue of rice on a ration book is the only method of ensuring that every person gets his fair share of this benefit.

The main function of the Food and Price Control Department is to see that available supplies of rice and flour are equitably distributed, that the Government subsidy thereon reaches those for whom it is intended and that other essential foodstuffs are available at the controlled prices.

In 1949, up to June 11, a total of 6,769,968 rice ration books, made up as follows, were issued :—

Worker	1,498,466
Ordinary	3,737,496
Child	1,019,277
Infant	514,729

On this number of ration books issued, at the present rationed rate of 1½ measures per Worker, 1¼ measures per Ordinary book, 1 measure per Child and ¾ measures per Infant, coupon issues of rationed rice for a year works out at about 386,000 tons. The actual issue of rationed rice for the year 1949 was only 370,000 tons. The 16,000 tons unissued must be regarded as due to lapsed coupons. These figures taken together can be considered to be satisfactory indication that every person gets his fair share of the Government subsidy on rice. The loss sustained by Government for the year 1948–49 on the distribution of rice is approximately Rs. 100 million. This sum works out to about Rs. 70 per family in Ceylon.

For some time now flour has been unrationed and unrestricted issues have been made. Imports of flour are arranged so as to meet the full demand. The flour is sold at approximately cost price but a reduction in the import price about the middle of 1949 resulted in a very small profit being made on this commodity. With devaluation there has been an increase in price but it is expected that the distribution of flour can be achieved without any appreciable loss to Government.

The following commodities were under Price Control at the beginning of 1949 :—

Rationed rice ; wheat flour ; bread ; dried fish ; maldive fish ; brown sugar ; red onions ; manioc ; Sweet potatoes ; coconut poonac ; basic rice meals.

Rice meals were de-controlled in April. Owing to the adverse effect that Price Control was having on the production of local onions, Price Control on onions was removed in September. This caused a temporary increase in the price but steps have been taken to meet this situation and it is expected that the price will be stabilised so as to give a fair deal to the consumer as well as to the producer.

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CHAPTER XIII

FORESTS, FISHERIES AND MINERALS

I. Forests

ZONES, TYPES AND IMPORTANT SPECIES

THE Island may be divided into three main climato-geographical regions each with its own distinctive types of forests, viz. :—

(*a*) the wet low and mid-country zone,
(*b*) the low-country dry zone, and
(*c*) the sub-tropical montane zone.

(*a*) *The wet low and mid-country* zone comprises roughly the south western quarter of the Island including also the mountains up to an elevation of 4,000 ft. approximately. The mean temperature of this region varies from 70° to 80° F. Rainfall is heavy and contributed by both monsoons. It ranges from 100 inches to over 300 inches per annum. With relatively high temperature and abundant rainfall the highest possible development of natural vegetation in the world—the Rain Forest—results.

This type of forest is characterised by tall, lofty trees giving the sense and appearance of cathedra vaults. The largest of them stand with crowns isolated well above the dense canopy of the other trees below them. Several other canopy-layers consisting of trees of lesser heights and progressively higher shade-enduring capacity fill up the space between the dominant canopy layer and the dense undergrowth which usually occupies the forest floor. The principal tree species to be found in these forests are : *Hora* (*Dipterocarpus zeylanicus*), *Duns* (*Doona* spp. & *Hopea* spp.), *Hedawakas* (*Chaetocarous* spp.), *Molpedda* (*Isonandra lanceolata*), *Tawenna* (*Palaquium rubiginosum*), *Del* (*Artocarpus nobilis*) *Dambe* (*Syzygium* spp.), *Milla* (*Vitex pinnata*), *Liyan* (*Homalium zeylanicum*), *Etamba* (*Mangifera indica*), *Pelan* (*Kurrimia zeylanica*), *Na* (*Messua ferrea & M. thwaitesii*), *Kekuna* (*Canarium zeylanicum*) &c. These are only a relatively small fraction of the very large number of different tree species to be found. Except for those occurring gregariously, like *Hora* (*Dipterocarpus zeylanica*) and *Aridda* (*Campnosperma zeylanica*), each species rarely constitutes more than one per cent. of the specific composition of such forest.

Occurring as they do in the most populous quarter of the Island the proportion of forest to total area is very small. In several districts forest occupies less than one per cent. of the land area. There are only scattered and isolated patches of forest in the wet low country. Most of the forests are to be found in the hinterland at the bases and lower slopes of the central mountains. It is imperative that such forests as remain should be most carefully conserved and maintained as such unimpaired, if not improved.

(*b*) The '*Dry Zone*', so called, constitutes practically three quarters of the Island. It includes the northern half of the country, the broad coastal plain east of the south central mountains and a rather smaller portion to the south of them. On any international system of climatological analysis it would be considered a 'humid' and not a 'dry' region. Mean annual rainfall in this zone varies from 50 inches to 100 inches per annum contributed mostly by the north-east monsoon. Mean monthly temperatures are slightly higher than in the wet zone. Unlike in the latter there is a distinct period of drought of three to four months in the year from May–June to August-September. During this period dry south-west monsoon winds, deprived of their moisture on the windward side of the mountains, are an important inhibitory factor as regards the growth of the vegetation.

There is a fairly high proportion of forest left in this zone. Roughly from 60 to 80 per cent. of the land still remains under forest of sorts. In the northern-most and in a narrow coastwise belt a low thorny scrub jungle is prevalent. Here, as when it occurs more scattered in the interior it is the result of secondary regrowth following temporary shifting cultivation. The natural high forest is generally of the type known as the 'Dry Mixed Evergreen Forest', that is to say, forest of overall evergreen character with a proportion of deciduous tree species amongst the dominant. The principal economic timber species in this type of forest are *Satin* (*Chloroxylon swietenia*), *Palu* (*Manilkara hexandra*), *Ranai* (*Alseodaphne semecarpifolia*), *Milla* (*Vitex pinnata*), *Halmilla* (*Berrya cordifolia*), *Kumbuk* (*Terminalia arjuna*), *Ebony* (*Diospyros ebenum*), *&c.*

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The structure of the forest is simpler and the dominant canopy is even without any emergents as in the wet evergreen forest. The undergrowth is relatively light. The tree species mentioned are all durable hard woods. They are usually to be found scattered as single stems in a matrix of *Wira* (*Hemecyclia sepiaria*) except in the case of Halmilla which is inclined to be gregarious in moist situations.

(*c*) *The sub-tropical montane zone* includes the region within the central mountain core of the Island above an elevation of 4,000 ft. approximately. The mean monthly temperatures here vary from about 60° to 70° F. Ground frosts are common on clear nights above an elevation of 5,000 ft. and occur mostly in January and February. Mists are prevalent during the monsoonal periods. Rainfall is relatively heavy—100 to 150 inches per annum generally and over 200 inches around the Adam's Peak range. There is generally no period of drought except in the patana grassland basin of the Province of Uva. The forests in this region are confined to hill tops and ridges. Their existence to-day is due mainly to the intervention of Sir Joseph D. Hooker, who in 1873 protested to the Secretary of State for the Colonies against the indiscriminate clearing of forest for coffee and tea. In the same year the Secretary of State ordered that no land over 5000 ft. should be alienated.

The forests in this region are of the sub-tropical wet montane evergreen type. The trees are generally short boled, branchy and xerophytic in character. The canopy is single storeyed, of even height as in the dry evergreen forest and there are no tall emergent trees as in the wet evergreen forest. Undergrowth is heavy, often entirely of *Strobilanthes* spp. The principal timber trees are : *Kina* (*Calophyllum walkeri*), *Dambe* (*Syzgium* spp.), *Mihiriya* (*Gordonia* and *Ternstroemia* spp.), and *Sapu* (*Michelia nilagarica*). These forests are of inestimable importance from the stand point of the conservation of climatic, soil water and scenic values. No great economic returns in the form of timber are to be expected. All forests in the region are to be treated and conserved as climatic and scenic reserves.

FOREST RESERVES

The areas of constituted Forest Reserves and Proposed Reserves at the end of 1949, by Provinces are given in the following table :—

TABLE 13.1. AREAS OF PRODUCTIVE AND PROTECTIVE FOREST RESERVES—BY PROVINCES

Province	*Productive Forests (Area in Acres)*	*Protective Forests (Climatic) (Area in Acres)*
Northern Province	500,020*	Nil
	8,246	
North-Central Province	96,907*	Nil
	394,550	
North-Western Province	92,630*	1,324*
	244,419	11,577
Eastern Province	524,156*	Nil
	329,724	
Central Province	15,985*	3,962*
	14,530	90,660
Province of Uva	5,843*	Nil
	13,455	717
Province of Sabaragamuwa	9,276*	16,778*
	56,646	10,432
Western Province	12,052*	894*
	54,530	320
Southern Province	63,146*	16,982*
	56,101	7,801

* Areas reserved by Proclamation.

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FOREST REGENERATION

The exploitation of the wet evergreen forests is being done, as far as possible, on the basis of inducing and promoting the natural regeneration of economic timber species. In addition there are approximately 6,500 acres of artificial plantations mainly of *Jak* (*Artocarpus integra*) and *Mahogany* (*Swietenia macrophylla*) but also of other species including *Nedun* (*Perciopsis mooniana*), *Lunumidella* (*Melia composita*) and *Alstonia macrophylla*. In the dry evergreen forest and in the sub-tropical montane wet evergreen forest the promotion of the natural regeneration of economically valuable timber species has proved more difficult. In both forest types restitution has largely been through artificial planting. In the former approximately 10,000 acres of teak plantations have been raised. In the latter forest mixed plantations have been raised, of the *Monterey Cypress* (*Cupressus macrocarpus*), *Eucalyptus* (principally *Eucalyptus microcorys*, *E. maculata*, *E. robusta E. saligna*) and several other European and Australian timber tree species. These amount to about 7,500 acres in extent. In addition afforestation of grasslands and estate fuel plantations of *Eucalyptus robusta* make up about another 4,000 acres of artificial plantations.

MANAGEMENT

During 1949, regeneration fellings were carried out in the wet evergreen forests covering a total area of approximately 10,400 acres, and in the dry evergreen forest cultural (selective) fellings were carried out in altogether approximately 79,000 acres.

Cleanings were done in the areas under regeneration in the wet evergreen and intermediate zone forests ; this operation was devoted mainly to freeing young regeneration from rank vegetation and covered a total area of approximately 3,500 acres. In the dry evergreen forests climber cutting and girdling or felling of trees of inferior species were done over a total area of approximately 3,700 acres ; the area so treated was smaller than in the previous year owing to lack of staff for adequate supervision.

In the up-country plantations fellings and cultural operations were carried out according to working plan prescriptions. Thinnings were carried out in approximately 1,600 acres of artificially raised plantations spread throughout the Island.

Artificial regeneration continued to be restricted to afforestation of patna (grassland) in the up-country with *Eucalyptus* species and *Acacia decurrens*,, selected areas in the dry zone with teak and gaps in dry zone forests to supplement natural regeneration of *halmilla*. The areas planted during 1949 were : 110 acres patana, 200 acres teak and 1,000 acres *halmilla*.

UTILIZATION

Production resulting from the cultural operations mentioned above is given in the following table :

TABLE 13.2. TIMBER PRODUCTION, 1949

	Quantity produced (*cu. ft.*)
Log timber	1,541,883
Sawn timber	632,626
Sleepers	99,055
Round timber (poles)	466,596
Firewood	1,646,266

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The major part of the above material was supplied to Government Departments. In addition the under-mentioned imports and local purchases from private sources were arranged to meet their requirements :—

TABLE 13.3. QUANTITY OF TIMBER SUPPLIED TO GOVERNMENT DEPARTMENTS, 1949

Kind of Timber	*Quantity supplied*
Imports—	
Sleepers	69,405
Burma teak squares and planks	78,600
Pine boards	358,200 sq. ft.
Local Purchases—	
Gini sapu	46,157 cu. ft.
Lunumidella boards	29,200 sq. ft.

FORESTRY RESEARCH

When planned and systematic silvicultural research commenced in 1937, the sum total of basic information concerned with and applicable to local conditions was negligible. The investigations carried out so far have covered—

(*a*) fundamental basic studies concerned with the systematy, phenology, pests and diseases, seed germination, seedling characteristics and behaviour and silvicultural requirements in the early life of our principal timber species.

(*b*) special investigations, including a large number and variety of problems.

In the last thirteen years very considerable gains have been made in silvicultural knowledge and techniques.[1]

The Senior Assistant Conservator of Forests, Research and Education, represented Ceylon at the Third World Forestry Congress at Helsinki, Finland, in July, 1949. Ceylon had the honour of having its representative elected as Vice-Chairman of the Congress. After the conference the officer spent a period of four months at the Forest Products Research Laboratory, of the United Kingdom Ministry of Scientific and Industrial Research, Risborough. A modest organisation for the purpose of undertaking timber utilization research in addition to silvicultural research, which alone has received attention so far, is in the process of being set up. Some of the woodworking machines, other scientific equipment and a timber seasoning kiln required for the woodworking, preservation treatment workshops and the laboratory have been imported. The Research Branch of the Department has been invited to join the International Union of Forestry Research Organization, Geneva. It is proposed to accept the invitation and join the union as an ordinary member as soon as possible.

Government has accepted the principle that all staff in the Forest Department including minor executive, viz., Forest Rangers, Range Assistants and Forest Guards should be trained. It has previously been the practice to have Forest Rangers trained in the Forest Ranger College, Coimbatore. This practice was suspended during the last war period but has since been resumed. A Forestry Field Training School is in the process of being established for the purpose of the instruction of untrained staff of the Forest Guard grade as also officers of the Ranger and Range Assistant grades who cannot be sent to India for training. Three selected natural science graduates were under training on Government Scholarships at the Forest College, Dehra Dun, North India. Two others were sent for training at the Imperial Forestry Institute and Forestry School of the University of Oxford

1 For more detailed information reference may be made to the publications :—
(1) "A decade of silvicultural research in Ceylon" by C. H. Holmes—Proceedings of the British Empire Forestry Conference, 1947.
(2) "Some Forestry problems in Ceylon and the search for their solution" by C. H. Holmes—Presidential address, Section B, Proceedings of the 4th Annual Sessions of the Ceylon Association of Science.

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FAUNA AND FLORA PROTECTION

The Fauna and Flora Protection Ordinance was administered by the Conservator of Forests during the first nine months of 1949. From October 1 onwards a new Department of Wild Life was formed for the administration of this Ordinance and for the more effective preservation of wild life. In the absence of a full-time Warden as the Head of the new Department the Conservator of Forests in his capacity as Warden under the Ordinance acted as the Head of this new Department in addition to his own duties.

The total extent of areas proclaimed under the Ordinance at the end of 1949 was 665,342 acres of National Reserves and 200,085 acres of Sanctuaries. The National Reserves are of the following classes and the total extent of areas proclaimed under the Ordinance at the end of 1949 are as follows :

	Acres
(1) Strict Natural Reserves	174,599
(2) National Parks	169,594
(3) Intermediate Zones	321,148

The areas of National Reserves remained the same as at the end of 1948, while the increase in the area of Sanctuaries was due to the addition of Welhella-Ketagilla Sanctuary consisting of 332 acres in the Province of Sabaragamuwa.

The Ruhuna National Park has been by far the most popular of the National Reserves during 1949. The growing popularity of this park could be seen from the following figures :—

	1944	*1945*	*1946*	*1947*	*1948*	*1949*
No. of visitors	109	267	488	1,001	1,518	2,349

The reasons for the popularity of this National Park are due to its accessibility and the provision of Circuit Bungalows. Wilpattu National Park has also attracted a record number of visitors due to the opening of the Hunuvilagama-Maradammaduwa fair-weather road which is the easiest and the nearest approach to this National Park. Owing to the considerable casualties among the fauna in 1948 as a result of the drought, the issue of licences to shoot animals was restricted and restriction to some degree was enforced to sportsmen entering the shooting area during 1949.

BOTANIC GARDENS

There are three Botanic Gardens in the Island. All three are supervised by a Superintendent of Gardens who is responsible to the head of the Department of Agriculture. The three gardens are in three different climatic zones :—

(*a*) The Royal Botanic Gardens, Peradeniya, widely known and the best in the East, is situated sixty-eight miles from Colombo at an elevation of 1,550 ft. in an equable climate. This elevation may be termed mid-country where the vegetation is transitory between the low-country and up-country flora. Many species of tropical plants from all over the world are represented in these gardens.

(*b*) The Botanic Gardens, Hakgala, is at an elevation of 5,581 ft., six miles from Nuwara Eliya on the way to Badulla. The climate is more or less temperate and the vegetation sub-tropical or temperate with the Coniferae predominating. This altitude and climate produce a wealth of flora.

(*c*) The Botanic Gardens, Henaratgoda, Gampaha, seventeen miles from Colombo is thirty-five feet above sea level. This may be termed a low-country garden where plants that thrive best in the heat of the tropics are cultivated. The gardens are of historical importance as the first rubber (*Hevea brasiliensis*) plants that came East were accommodated here. The original plantation from which seeds were sent out to various countries, is still seen.

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All the gardens are fast returning to normal under the supervision of a well qualified head. Owing to unsettled conditions in the previous years the gardens suffered much. 1949 saw the finish of the reconstruction of the Botanic Gardens, Peradeniya and Heneratgoda from damage done by the military during their occupation. Replanting of the reconstructed areas was done and the roads and paths maintained in a good state of repair. Many improvements to the lay-out of these gardens were effected.

Research is being conducted in different aspects of Botanical importance. Scientists continue to visit these gardens and appreciate the material available for work. Students of Botany make great use of these institutions. Tourists, sightseers and those who seek relaxation and pleasure are equally struck with the beauty of the lay-out and planting schemes of these gardens.

Material both for ornamental and research purposes is often supplied from all gardens. Exchange of plants and seeds is being done and many new introductions are made regularly from various parts of the world. The sale of plants and seeds is continued, heavy demands being made on the plant supply nurseries of these gardens. Hibiscus and Cannas are specialized in at the Peradeniya and Heneratgoda Gardens while Hakgala supplies plants for higher elevations.

II. Fisheries

The Fisheries of Ceylon may be divided into four main groups :—

(*a*) On-shore Marine Fisheries,

(*b*) Off-shore Marine Fisheries,

(*c*) Brackish Water and Lagoon Fisheries,

(*d*) Fresh Water Fisheries.

Except for a few mechanized craft operated by the Government, mechanization is unknown in the fishing industry.

(*a*) *On-shore Marine Fisheries.*—The shore seine is the back bone of the fishing industry. It consists of a cod-end and wings, the central part of which is generally made of cotton, which is attached to wings of coir mesh which may be up to 1,000 fathoms long. The net is laid at varying distances from the shore—the larger nets going out as far as 1½ miles from the shore—and it is hauled in by two teams of men. Shore seining operatins are confined to the South and West coasts during the North-East Monsoon (October-March) and the North and East coasts during the South-West Monsoon (April-September). A certain amount of drift netting and hand-lining also occurs in this area where the sea bed is not suitable for the hauling of shore seines. This is carried out from canoes and rafts (Kattamarams, literally 'tied logs', consisting of four logs lashed together ; the smaller rafts are propelled with bamboo paddles, and the larger rafts use a sail).

(*b*) *Off-shore Marine Fisheries.*—These are conducted from sailing craft, chiefly of the outrigger canoe type. Operations consist of trolling, live bait fishing and hand-lining, and this fishery yields the greater part of the more popular varieties of pelagic fish. Long-lines are used in certain areas.

(*c*) *Brackish Water Fisheries.*—Various types of set nets and drift nets are used for capturing prawns, mullets, perches and other brackish water fishes. The use of the cast net is very widespread.

(*d*) *Fresh Water Fisheries.*—The fresh water fisheries of the Island have been under investigation and a considerable number of food fishes of selected varieties have been transported and stocked in various inland waters and rivers. Among these are the Gourami and the Pearlspot, whose distribution has been expanded. Imports of Chinese Grass Carp have been made possible through the courtesy of the Department of Fisheries, Singapore, and these fish have been distributed in various inland areas. This fish is very popular in culture operations throughout China and South East Asia. In addition, progress has been made in the conditioning of marine fish for distribution to fresh water areas and numbers of mullet captured in the Mannar area have been introduced, after conditioning, into Giant's tank.

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THE FISHING POPULATION

Ceylon has a fishing population of 112,000 of which about 59,000 are active fishermen. The fishing community represents 1.7 per cent. of the total population of the Island. It is remarkable that at the Census of 1921 the same proportion between the fishing community and the total population was observed ; namely, 79,000 out of a population of 4½ millions. The production of fish, however, has shown no effective proportionate increase in relation to the quantity available per head of population. Figures from statistical records maintained by the Department indicate that production is in the neighbourhood of 17,000 tons of fresh fish, while the production of dried fish is estimated at 8,000 tons. It must be presumed that the actual production is in excess of these figures, in view of the fact that the statistical system is not yet island-wide in its application. The present average production of fish per fisherman has been assessed at 1,300 lbs. per annum. When this is compared with the figures from Denmark, namely, 33,000 lbs. per fisherman per annum, it will be observed that there is considerable room for improvement in the Island's output from its fisheries. This can only be achieved by the introduction of more modern craft and fishing techniques.

The imports in 1949 amounted to 708,622 cwt. at a cost of Rs. 37,739,584.

TABLE 13.4. QUANTITY AND VALUE OF FISH IMPORTS, 1949

Fish Product	*Quantity (Cwt.)*	*Value (Rs.)*
Fish dried or salted	544,469	30,314,130
Frozen fish	14	1,497
Maldive fish	91,405	5,834,683
Tinned fish	3,959	355,880
Other preserved fish including jadi	14,653	423,012
Fish oil	5	1,005
Fish manure	53,625	804,681
Fish guano	492	4,696
	708,622	37,739,584

ASSISTANCE TO FISHERMEN

At present, the lot of the fisherman is a poor one and he is unable to make any provision for a rainy day. The real money is made by the capitalist who finances the fishermen and takes over the catch for despatch to consumer areas at rates far below the market value. The result is that the actual fisherman gets only a fraction of the value paid by the consumer.

A rescue service is operating, whereby ships and aircraft in the neighbourhood are informed of fishing craft reported missing or known to be in distress, and rescue craft are despatched as soon as definite information is available as to the location of distressed craft or men. This scheme operated through the Radio Network established by the Police Department, and through the courtesy of the Master Attendant's Department, has been very efficient in its handling of all reports received. A scheme of assistance to fishermen whose craft have suffered damage and who are not in a position to meet the cost of the repairs themselves is in operation, in collaboration with the Department of Social Services.

A few schemes have been in operation for the purchase of fish from groups of fishermen at guaranteed prices, affording them means of securing a standard return for their fish and relieving them of the burden of handling and transport of fish landed by them.

The supply of ice to the fishing industry has been maintained and progress is being made with the erection of four ice plants in various fishing districts.

Progress has been made in the construction of fishery roads and in the maintenance and improvement of those already constructed under this programme.

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Assistance has been rendered in the removal of obstructions to navigation both by the blasting of rocks and reefs and by the desilting of channels, and beacons have been erected as aids to navigation. The construction of two fishery harbours is complete.

Efforts are being maintained to increase the interest of fishermen in the formation of Co-operative Fishing Societies. There are now forty-six such societies, with a membership of about 2,000. An active drive is being maintained to increase the number of Co-operative Fishing Societies.

Since the abatement of the food crisis consequent upon the last war, the grant of financial aid has been restricted to Co-operative Societies. During the period 1941–48 about ten million rupees was issued in loans and advances to the fishing industry and of this sum Rs. 1,900,000 is still outstanding, but there are prospects of recovering a considerable portion of this amount. During 1949 less than Rs. 100,000 was issued to Co-operative Societies on loan.

Timber for boat building was issued at a reduced royalty to fishermen and salt was made available to *bona fide* fish curers at a subsidized price. Welfare depots were established for the sale of fishermen's requirements which were in short supply, yarn, fish hooks, sail cloth and other items of equipment. Rice and subsidiary foodstuffs were made available to immigrant fishermen in order to assist as far as possible the efforts of food production.

After the cessation of hostilities these activities were continued until such time as it was felt that the food situation had eased sufficiently. Thereafter, while reducing the scope of fish marketing activities, the Department turned its attention in greater detail to the improvement of the fishing industry.

REORGANISATION OF THE INDUSTRY

To this end arrangements were made for the examination of the Island's fishing industry by highly skilled personnel from all parts of the world. Dr. H. Blegvad, Director of the Danish Biological Station and Secretary General of the International Council for the Exploration of the Sea, spent two and a half months in Ceylon accompanied by a Danish fishing skipper. In the course of this visit he not only inspected the existing condition of the fishing industry in various parts of the country, but also witnessed actual fishing operations, and with the assistance of the Danish fishing skipper, made brief experiments in the use of the Danish seine, drift nets, and long lines. Associated with his visit was that of a Chemical Engineer from Denmark, Dr. E. Petersen, who studied the facilities for the handling, packing, transport, storage, processing and sale of landed fish. He made numerous experiments in the keeping quality of fish under refrigeration and in the processing of fish, and made recommendations on the provision of ice and refrigeration facilities and on the treatment of fish stocks landed for sale as food. Later in the year Dr. C. C. John, Director of Research and Professor of Marine Biology, University of Travancore, and Member of the Fishing Research Committee of India, paid a brief visit, during which he observed conditions in fishing areas in the main consumption centres. Finally Dr. G. L. Kesteven, Fisheries Representative of the F.A.O. in South East Asia and Secretary Indo-Pacific Fisheries Council, visited Ceylon and advised on the Reorganisation of the Department to meet a programme of reorganisation of the industry based on the need for greater production of fish. The recommendations of these experts have been studied carefully and action upon them has already been initiated.

FISHERIES DEPARTMENT'S ACTIVITIES

During the year, 1949, new items of equipments were introduced into the fisheries stores. Of these Nylon has captured the interest of the fishermen who have begun to use it in increasing quantities in place of cotton lines which they have been accustomed to use in the past. The specialised requirements for certain sizes and shapes of fish hook have been investigated, and samples of the fish hooks have been despatched to principal manufacturers in order to obtain supplies of the exact requirements of the fishermen. Samples of fishing nets have been obtained from Japan for investigation as to the probable requirements of the industry in these lines.

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ABOARD THE RAGLAN CASTLE—SORTING THE CATCH

Mechanised fishing operations were continued through the trawler Raglan Castle and the Seiner Halpa. The trawler continued to show that definitely good prospects exist for the operation of a trawler fishing industry ; the seiner has proved that Danish seining in Ceylon waters will not be a profitable undertaking as there are insufficient stock in our waters of the type of fish for the capture of which the Danish Seine is designed. The vessel has however been used for various other experimental mechanised fishing operations such as drift netting, long lining and towing of canoes, and has provided a valuable fund of information on these activities. Three life boats were in commission and rendered efficient service whenever the occasion arose.

The window pane oyster fishery at Lake Tamblegam was revived after a lapse of many years and nearly a million oysters were fished during 1949. It was not possible to hold an inspection of the Mannar Pearl Banks due to the non-availability of a suitable craft for the operation.

Investigations which had taken place into the decline of the brackish water fishery in the Balapitiya area resulted in the declaration of Randombe lake as a sanctuary for three years. It is felt that this measure, together with the enforcement of suitable protective legislation in neighbouring waters, will help to revive the depleted stock and re-establish a flourishing fishery.

During the latter part of 1949 an anti-dynamiting organisation was inaugurated to patrol areas where dynamiting of fish is known to be prevailing and to bring offenders to book. This force has been operating with very good results and numerous offenders have been prosecuted.

The Department has participated in a number of exhibitions where specimens of live fish and prepared exhibits of fish, fish products and fishing appliances have been shown to the public. The aquaria evoked considerable interest.

Considerable additions have been made to the library and to the stock of research equipment. Due to limitations of space it has not been possible to equip the research laboratory. An investigation of the bionomics of the shark has been started, and the effects of underwater explosions of fish stocks was studied. The Department has been called upon to give evidence in courts on samples of fish and dried fish which have been sent to it for investigation.

Besides the limitation in space, the lack of adequate trained technical personnel has been seriously felt. It is hoped that with the introduction of a new programme of development and the recruitment of the necessary technical personnel, it will be possible to increase the tempo of the Department's activities towards its major objective of increased production.

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MINERAL MAP OF CEYLON

DEPARTMENT OF MINERALOGY

CEYLON

80° E

81°

82°

9°

8°

7°

6° N

KIRIMALAI

PT. PEDRO

PUTTUR

JAFFNA

NORTHERN PROVINCE

MANNAR

PULMODDAI

VAVUNIYA

TRINCOMALEE

KUDREMALAI

ANURADHAPURA

NORTH-CENTRAL PROVINCE

TABBOWA

PUTTALAM

POLONNARUWA

DAMBULLA

ANDIGAMA

NORTH — WESTERN PROVINCE

BATTICALOA

EASTERN PROVINCE

KURUNEGALA

MATALE

CENTRAL PROVINCE

KANDY

KADUGANNAWA

KEGALLE

NEGOMBO

TIRUKKOVIL

MUTHRAJAWELA SWAMP

RUWANWELLA

N'ELIYA

BADULLA

COLOMBO

WESTERN PROVINCE

EHELIYAGODA

MONERAGALA

KURUWITA

BAMBARABOTUWA

PINNAWALA

RATNAPURA

BALANGODA

UVA PROVINCE

PELMADULLA

KALUTARA

SABARAGAMUWA PROVINCE

RAKWANA

MINIHAGALKANDA

KATARAGAMA

INDURUWA

AMBALANGODA

METIYAGODA

SOUTHERN PROVINCE

HAMBANTOTA

AKURESSA

GALLE

TANGALLE

GEM-BEARING AREA

MAIN GRAPHITE AREAS

PRINCIPAL GRAPHITE MINES

ILMENITE

PRINCIPAL IRON ORE FIELDS

KAOLIN

MICA

M MONAZITE

T THORIANITE

SCALE OF MILES

12 6 0 12 24 36

S.G.O. 4.1.51.

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III. Minerals

GRAPHITE

The chief mineral industry of the Island is the mining of graphite (plumbago). The Ceylon graphite deposits are the biggest and most productive deposits of this mineral in the world and for several decades Ceylon has been the world's principal source of graphite.

The history of the graphite mining industry during the past hundred years has been marked by many vicissitudes. The number of mines varies considerably from time to time, depending largely on the level of market prices. During the war years, when the market was firm and prices favourable there was unprecedented mining activity and the peak was reached in 1942 when over 27,700 tons were exported. With the end of the war, however, the demand fell off, production declined and the amount exported in 1945 was the lowest for many years. Since then there has been a slow but steady improvement, and the quantity exported in 1949 had risen to 12,241 tons. The following table gives the export figures, value, &c., since 1939.

TABLE 13.5. GRAPHITE MINES : PRODUCTION, VALUE, &C., 1939–1949

Year	*No. of Mines working at the end of the year*	*No. of Men employed at the end of the year*	*Exports in long tons*	*Value in Rs.*	*Average Price per long ton in Rs.*
1939	692	5,820	22,396	3,407,135	152
1940	1,207	18,000*	23,819	5,689,357	239
1941	858	16,500*	27,232	10,752,360	395
1942	452	8,925	27,734	13,168,432	475
1943	199	5,452	20,074	10,430,187	519
1944	78	2,769	12,264	5,882,789	479
1945	60	2,163	7,820	3,564,332	456
1946	31	1,785	8,082	3,521,849	436
1947	38	1,640	9,004	3,609,794	401
1948	164	3,146	13,996	6,751,934	482
1949	87	2,413	12,241	6,381,156	521

A large number of shallow workings are opened whenever the market shows signs of improvement. These small workings have no machinery and do not as a rule go down to depths of more than 250 to 300 feet. In areas where large quantities of water are encountered underground, the small workings have mechanical pumps. The entire production comes from vein deposits, lenticular deposits and pockets, and the disseminated deposits are not worked.

Plumbago mining and the trade in plumbago is entirely in the hands of the Ceylonese and the labour employed is entirely Ceylonese. The principal purchasing countries in the past two years were the United States of America and the United Kingdom. In 1948, 37 per cent. of the exports went to the United States of America and 33 per cent. to the United Kingdom. In 1949 the actual exports were 1,755 tons less than in the previous year, but the average price per ton was higher. The United Kingdom was the chief importer, while the United States of America and Japan were next having purchased almost equal quantities of the product.

MICA

Small deposits of phlogopite mica of good quality, ' amber mica ' as it is popularly called, occurs widely distributed in the hill country in close association with dolomite limestones and in the contact zones on the borders of crystalline limestones. They occur particularly in the Kandy, Matale and Badulla Districts. The deposits are irregular, the mica being found in pockets with much harder

* Approximately.

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ground in between. Mining has been haphazard and unsystematic. The production is negligible and confined to the lower grades, and exports vary considerably from year to year. The following table gives the export figures and the value of mica exports since 1939 :—

Year	*1939*	*1940*	*1941*	*1942*	*1943*	*1944*	*1945*	*1946*	*1947*	*1948*	*1949*
Exports in cwts.	6	45½	13½	—	42¼	40½	20	8¼	4½	—	—
Value in Rs.	2,800	19,224	2,500	—	7,853	7,139	3,375	1,342	2,542	—	—

PRECIOUS AND SEMI-PRECIOUS STONES

The gem mining industry in Ceylon is of great antiquity, with the possible exception of Brazil, no other country in the world produces such an abundance and variety of precious and semi-precious stones as does Ceylon. The main gem-bearing area comprises between 600 to 800 square miles in the south-west sector of the Island and is centred round Ratnapura (the city of gems), and includes such well-known gem localities as Pelmadulla, Rakwana, Eheliyagoda, Balangoda and Kuruwita. The most important gem stones are sapphire and ruby (varieties of corundum), chrysoberyl (including cat's eye and the rare stone alexandrite), beryl (aquamarine) and the semi-precious stones topaz, spinel, garnet, zircon, tourmaline, varieties of quartz (cairngorn, citrine, amethyst) and moonstone.

The gem stones are all obtained from alluvial gravels with the solitary exception of moonstone, which thirty years ago was obtained from acid gneisses in the Kandy District, but is now mined from party kaolinised (decomposed) pegmatites at Mitiyagoda, near Ambalangoda. Most of the precious stones have been derived from pegmatites associated with the Khondalite series of rocks. Garnets, corundum and spinel occur however as primary or accessory minerals of the crystalline gneisses, granulites and limestones.

Mining for gems is carried on almost entirely by Sinhalese on a remarkable system of co-operative sharing of labour, expenses and profits. According to the nature of the occurrences, the methods employed are (1) surface placer mining, (2) pits in old river alluvium and gravel, and (3) dredging of river beds. Very few pits use mechanical contrivances, *e.g.*, pumps, windfalls or winches and tubs, &c.

The gems are bought by dealers at auctions or private sales, to be cut and polished by lapidarists (chiefly Muslim), the latter industry being confined to the Ratnapura and Galle Districts.

No estimates of annual production are available, but its value may be put at 1½ to 2 million rupees per year.

RARE EARTH MINERALS

The unusual richness of some of the Ceylon rocks in rare earth minerals has been known for a long time and minerals belonging to the cerium, yttrium, zirconium, niobium, tantalum, thorium and uranium groups have been identified. Of these, thorianite is perhaps the most important from the scientific as well as from the economic point of view. The mineral was first detected in the heavy residues obtained from the washing of the stream gravels of the Bambarabotuwa area, and subsequently in Maddegama in the Galle District. From these localities nearly nine tons of the mineral were obtained in the years 1904 to 1910 and exported to England at £1,600 to £1,700 per ton. The deposits were, however, soon believed to be exhausted. Recent work in the past two years has led to the 'rediscovery' of thorianite in the Bambarabotuwa and a few other areas where unworked deposits of the mineral have been discovered. A survey of these deposits was begun in 1947 and was continued in 1949. The new electronic equipment obtained by the Department of Mineralogy towards the end of 1948 has greatly facilitated the field investigation of the deposits.

HEAVY MINERAL SANDS

The minerals ilmenite, monazite and zircon occur in large quantities on the beaches as natural concentrates of a high degree of purity, formed by wave action. Where ilmenite predominates, the sands are black in colour and are referred to as 'black sands'.

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The largest and best known ' black sand ' deposit is the one at Pulmoddai, thirty-six miles north of Trincomalee. This deposit contains about 75 per cent. ilmenite, about 12 per cent. rutile, and about 6 per cent. zircon, and the total quantity of ' black sand ' available in a well concentrated form is roughly of the order of four million tons. A comprehensive report on the exploitation of this deposits has been prepared and a site for ore-dressing plant is under investigation. The separation of these sands can be the basis of a sound and remunerative industry.

Smaller deposits of ' black sand ', more or less isolated and separated by long stretches of barren sand, are known to occur on the west coast, near the mouths of the Kelani river, Gin-ganga, Induruwa, Kudremalai, &c. These west coast deposits are generally of lower grade and in a less concentrated form, but the total reserves are probably about as much as on the east coast at Pulmoddai. Monazite and zircon are invariable constituents of the west coast black sands, while garnet becomes conspicuous in the more southerly of these deposits. In general the proportion of monazite to ilmenite rarely rises over 2 per cent., but locally, in patches and streaks, much higher concentrations of monazite occur, *e.g.*, at Kaikawela, near Induruwa, and Kudremalai.

IRON ORES

About six million tons of high grade iron ore have been located in recent years, distributed in more or less well-defined belts in the south-west sector of the Island. The ore, which is of secondary origin, consists of a mixture of hydrated oxides, and shows an average content of about 50 per cent. metallic iron. Its occurence is such that only open cast quarrying will be necessary. Though the ore reserves are comparatively small they would suffice to supply the Island's needs for at least a century, and to establish a remunerative industry, provided cheap electrical power is available.

OTHER MINERAL DEPOSITS

Very large resources of kaolin or china clay, lying a few feet below the surface, have been located in many parts of the Island. A deposit estimated at about ten million tons has been located at Boralesgamuwa, a few miles from Colombo, and other deposits occur by the coast from Negombo to Galle. When refined, these clays show excellent qualities in regard to chemical composition, burning properties, texture and plasticity. The refined clay, besides providing the raw material for a local high-grade porcelain industry, can form the basis of a profitable export trade, as the reserves are far in excess of any local demand likely to be made on them.

Other clays found in the Island include brick clays and tile clays, suitable for the manufacture of bricks and tiles.

Quartz Sand.—Several hundred million tons of high grade glass sands containing 98–99 per cent. silica occur as surface deposits on the west coast (Marawila, Kalpitiya) and in the north, near Point Pedro. The Marawila sands are at present being utilised by the Government Glass Factory at Nattandiya. The total reserves are so large as to allow of a considerable surplus for export.

Limestone.—Miocene limestone of a high degree of purity, suitable for use in the manufacture of cement, is found in large quantities in the Jaffna Peninsula. The coral deposits of the west and south coasts, and the crystalline (largely dolomitic) limestones of the interior are extensively burnt for lime.

Magnesite.—A few thousand tons of crystalline magnesite with a content of about 95 per cent. are known to occur in certain parts of Ceylon, chiefly at Randeniya.

Peat.—Over fifty million tons of peat with 50–60 per cent. total combustible matter have within recent years been estimated to occur in the Muthurajawela swamp, south of Negombo Lake, as well as in the swampy ground either side of the lower Kelani valley. Inflammable gas of favourable heating power as well as liquid by-products have been proved in the laboratory, but large scale commercial tests have still to be carried out.

Building Stones.—The commonest building stone is kabuk (laterite) which is a decomposition product of the crystalline gneisses and granulites. It is used extensively for small buildings in the south-west. When first quarried, it can be cut into slabs which harden on exposure to the air.

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The gneisses and granites are also commonly used, both as undressed building stones and as road metal. Some of these make attractive monumental stones.

THE DEPARTMENT OF MINERALOGY

The Department of Mineralogy functioned during 1949 with a staff which included the Government Mineralogist, Deupty Government Mineralogist, Inspector of Mines, two Assistant Geologists and a Chemist. The main work of the Department is a systematic geological survey of the Island with a view to developing her mineral resources and preparing a geological map. A preliminary geological map on a scale of one inch to four miles has been prepared based on reconnaissance traverses across the Island. Geological mapping on the scale of one inch to one mile has been going on since 1940 and several one inch sheets in the south-west and north-west sectors of the Island have been completed. This systematic survey has revealed many economic mineral deposits a few of which are being exploited.

Alongside geological mapping, specific investigations of economic mineral deposits, engineering geology and water-supply problems are undertaken. In recent years these duties have increased to such an extent as to take up most of the officers' time, leaving very little time for geological mapping. This has slowed down the work of the geological survey to a considerable extent.

The Department has played a most useful part in the planning and development of the Island's industrial projects. The detailed mapping and investigation of the iron ore fields that are to serve as sources of raw material for the proposed Steel Factory were begun during the year under review. Several sites were investigated and reported on in connection with the water supply for the Paper Factory and the Oil Project. These factories require pure water supplies of the order of from a quarter to one and a quarter million gallons daily. Survey of clay deposits for the Ceramic Factory and for brick and tile manufacture were carried out. Preliminary investigations on the ilmenite beach sand deposits at Pulmoddai were completed and a comprehensive report on the setting up of a Beach Mineral Plant was prepared for consideration by the Government.

In the field of Engineering Geology, the most important work was in connection with Stage II of the Hydro-electric Scheme. A comprehensive report on the foundation conditions at the Castlereagh Dam site was furnished to the consulting engineers. The investigation involved the geological examination of about 3,000 feet diamond drill cores from the site. In addition to this a geological survey of the reservoir site was carried out with a view to determining the water tightness of the proposed reservoir. Similar work was undertaken at the Gal-oya and Sudukanda reservoir sites.

The water supply section of the Public Works Department was advised on the water supply schemes of several towns, among them were, Batticaloa, Mannar, Madampe, Piliyandala and Kuliyapitiya.

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CHAPTER XIV

INDUSTRY

I. Industrial Development and Policy

MANUFACTURING industry in Ceylon has only a recent history. Its development has largely been within the last decade. Previous to this period and even now, the main emphasis of Ceylon's economic development has been on agriculture, and the national economic structure has been patterned on the traditional lines of a plantation economy specialising in the export of raw produce in exchange for manufactures in the world markets.

The first World War, 1914–1918, provided an opportunity for a degree of industrial development under the stimulus of war-time scarcities, but it would appear that no such development took place at that time. With the introduction of the Donoughmore Constitution in 1931, industrial development became for the first time under British rule, a specific subject of administration. It became a function of Government under the direction of an elected Minister.

The first few years immediately following the new Constitution were spent by the Ministry then in office in the conducting of exploratory surveys. It was during this period that the scheme for the establishment of a Coir Yarn Factory was mooted. The purpose of the proposed establishment of this factory was to make it serve as a model. The policy of Government was not to nationalise industries, but to bring the possibilities of industrial development to public notice. After the coming into office of the second Ministry of Labour, Industry and Commerce, a separate Department of Commerce and Industries was established in 1938. The establishment of this department can be regarded as the first concrete step towards the industrial development of the country. The functions of the Department, as far as industries were concerned, may be classified under the following main groups :—

(1) The establishment, maintenance and supervision of factories.

(2) The establishment, maintenance and supervision of industrial centres, workshops and schools.

(3) The maintenance of industrial investigation and research.

(4) Sales development and accounting in respect of the department's factories and industrial centres.

With the inauguration of the present constitution, these functions are exercised by the Department of Industries under the Ministry of Industries, Industrial Research and Fisheries.

POLICY

A brief statement on industrial policy was made in the 1940–41 Budget Speech of the then Minister of Labour, Industry and Commerce, when a few pilot factories had already been set up by the Government. The Minister laid down certain broad lines of policy :—

(1) It was necessary that suitable persons should be selected for training abroad in certain specialised industries. For this purpose provison had been made for industrial and commercial scholarships.

(2) State-aid should be and was being given to encourage the growth of industries.

(3) The Executive Committee of Labour, Industry and Commerce had accepted the policy of earmarking basic industries for development, *e.g.*, textiles, quinine and cement.

(4) Industrial surveys should be conducted for the establishment of major industries in this country.

(5) The Department of Commerce and Industries should carry out research on potential industries.

(6) Demonstration centres should be established throughout the Island as part of the policy of imparting technical advice and instruction in cottage industries.

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This policy had the broad objective of opening up avenues for industrial exploitation which private enterprise had hitherto generally not attempted to traverse, and there was no question of industrialisation being the sole monopoly of Government.

In November, 1945, a proposal was made by the Executive Committee that the factories already established should be formed into a corporation, in which the Government and the public were to hold shares jointly. The proposal, however, was rejected by the State Council, which was of the opinion that the Department should continue to run the factories for the present and that the question of a future policy should be considered at a later date.

The continuance of the second World War causing a scarcity of manufactured products from abroad, especially consumer goods, gave an impetus to industrial development and brought to the forefront problems regarding the question of industrial policy. Two lines of action were considered :—

(1) the establishment of permanent industries, and (2) the establishment of temporary industries to meet scarcities consequent to war-time conditions ; these industries were not expected to survive the return to normal conditions. The Executive Committee of Labour, Industry and Commerce did not consider the latter line as a part of their policy for industrial development, as they were of the opinion that it should not be the policy of Government to embark on a course of action which might savour of indiscriminate industrial development to meet *ad hoc* needs as and when they arose, especially when the period of duration of the emergency was unpredictable. In selecting the industries to be developed they adopted the policy of choosing those on which expert and technical advice were available as well as a sufficiency of natural resources. Such industries, it was thought, were capable of finding a firm economic footing.

A statement on industrial development and policy was published in September, 1946, as Sessional Paper XV of 1946. The report emphasised the fact that the standard of living of the people could not be raised by agricultural development alone and that a measure of industrialisation was needed. More specifically, it stressed the need for industrialisation on the following grounds :—

(i) Prevailing world conditions with restriction of trade and the possibility of future wars made it essential that every country should have a balanced economy of production, both industrial and agricultural ;

(ii) Industrial development would enable Ceylon to process certain agricultural raw materials such as rubber and copra ;

(iii) Import prices had risen far more than export prices, and in a short time Ceylon would be unable to pay for its imports from its exports. Local manufacture would help to bridge the gap and keep up the standard of living ;

(iv) Industrial schemes were new ventures and would give new employment ;

(v) Ceylon had valuable raw materials.

The principles of industrial policy as formulated in that report dealt on the following subjects :— (1) State Assistance to Industrial Development ; (2) State Control of Industry ; (3) Establishment and Development of Basic Industries ; (4) Non-basic Industries, and (5) The Protection of Industries.

STATE ASSISTANCE TO INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT

Certain fundamental functions which are normally exercised by every State, viz., (i) Provision of competent technical advice ; (2) Creation and sponsoring of institutions that offer long-term and medium-term credit facilities at cheap rates of interest ; (3) Provision of opportunities for technical training to ensure a ready supply of skilled labour ; and (4) Provision of adequate marketing facilities.

The facilities listed above are at present provided by State and State-sponsored institutions. The Department of Industries offers technical advice to industrialists, and undertakes industrial research ; the Government Technical College affords a measure of industrial training, while a Faculty of Engineering has recently been established at the University of Ceylon. The Agricultural and Industrial Credit Corporation offers credit facilities for long and medium-term periods, and is also

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empowered with the specific function of promoting industrial ventures by underwriting share capital and even undertaking management, while the recently created Central Bank has as one of its objects the encouragement and promotion of the full development of the productive resources of the country.

STATE CONTROL OF INDUSTRY

The Report on Industrial Development and Policy examined the question of State-control and the forms which such control should take, in the light of the objects of industrialisation, viz., the increase of the total wealth of the country, the increase in the general standard of living of the people, and the development of local raw materials with a view to attaining, within economic limits, a maximum degree of self-sufficiency.

The State-control of industry envisaged the regulation of certain immediate factors which in their turn would contribute towards the objects of industrialisation :—

(1) The full use of local raw material and power.
(2) The economic distribution of industries throughout the country, taking into account such considerations as the availability of raw materials and labour, and the use of local power and transport.
(3) Co-ordination of purpose and the avoidance of risk.
(4) The provision of adequate wages and living conditions for the labour employed.
(5) The manufacture of articles to meet the needs of the people of the country at reasonable prices.
(6) Appropriate protection, taking into account both the industry itself and the interest of potential consumers.
(7) Equitable distribution of wealth.

To achieve the effective realization of the above factors the report outlined three types of possible control :—

(1) Complete State management.
(2) Management by the State and private enterprise in co-operation.
(3) Private management subject to Government control in the form of legislation.

As against the above arguments the contention was also noted that there should be no control or intervention by the State in industry, and that the only part that Government should play in industrial development should be to promote schemes of assistance to private industry. It was observed that in recent years Ceylonese businessmen had shown a keeness to promote new ventures which have received the ready support of the local investing public. If industrialisation was left to private enterprise, the existence of competition would be a stimulus to efficiency as well as to the making available of manufactured articles at economic prices to the consumers as a result of competitive supply. This contention overlooked the creation of monopolies, but it was maintained that competition from foreign imports would safeguard the interests of the consumer.

After examining both sides of the question the report thought it sufficient if for the present purpose and for immediate policy industries that are capable of development in Ceylon be divided into two categories (*a*) Basic and (*b*) Non-basic ; and that the basic industries only be the subject of state enterprise.

BASIC INDUSTRIES

After examining the technological, economic and social factors which generally define a basic industry as well as the circumstances relative to the local economy the report regarded the following industries as falling under the group of basic industries :—

(1) Power.
(2) Heavy industries, viz., iron, steel and cement.
(3) Heavy chemicals, including the group of fertiliser chemicals.
(4) Specified drugs and pharmaceuticals.
(5) Cotton spinning.

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The report recommended that these basic industries could be best developed to the advantage of the national economy if they are nationalised and made the exclusive monopoly of State enterprise. Even where it was necessary to enlist the service of private enterprise to develop them initially it was considered that they should be undertaken under the responsibility of the State only. It was pointed out that firstly, basic industries occupy positions of strategic value in the development of industrial resources, so that their output and price-levels acquire a national significance ; secondly, by their nature these industries are ones that have all the probabilities of becoming monopolies, and supplying as they do the basic needs of the community they would be socially important ; thirdly, the industries in question require a large capital outlay, which in the circumstances it is best that the State should provide.

Attention was, however, drawn to the distinction between State-ownership and State-management, and it was recommended that the management of groups of basic industries be vested in separate corporations styled under National Industries Corporations.

NON-BASIC INDUSTRIES

This sector of the industrial field, it was recommended, should be allowed to constitute the province of private enterprise. The qualification was, nevertheless, made that the Government should at the same time undertake industrial research, and publish industrial propositions which hold out prospects of commercial development. If there was no response from private enterprise Government should as the next step arrange to promote companies in partnership with private enterprise.

PROTECTION OF INDUSTRIES

It was observed that industries require not only the right type of organization and the right type of technical, managerial and financial assistance, but also the right type of fiscal assistance. The main purpose of industrial development in the country at present is not to build an export market, but chiefly to cater for domestic needs.

Fiscal assistance to industries could take one or all of the following forms :—

(1) Exemption from, or reduction of, import duties on materials of industry.

(2) Protective duties on competing imports.

(3) Restriction of imports by the quota system.

(4) Subsidies to assist local industrial production.

The report concluded that efficient and economic industries established in a country should be able to withstand external competition, as their cost of production should compare favourably in relation to the prices of imported goods. But an industrial beginner like Ceylon was expected to bear additional costs not normally incurred by her competitors, such as costs of training labour, of acquiring skill, and of buying sometimes costly experience—cost elements which should be characterised in a sense as social costs, which all nascent industries usually have to incur before they advance to the stage of industrial obsolescence. As a compensation for these distinct disadvantages the report recommended that the pinciple of protection for industrial development be accepted.

NATIONALISATION AND CONTROL OF INDUSTRY

Despite the statement on policy which appeared in Sessional Paper XV of 1946 and in the Budget Speeches of the Minister of Finance for the years 1947–48, 1948–49 and 1949–50, there is at present no legislation relating to nationalisation and control of industries. At the moment the Government has taken a direct part in the industrialisation of the country ; but it does not follow that private enterpise is precluded from competing in those same lines.

So far there has been no case of nationalisation of industries ; but Local Government authorities, for example, the Colombo Municipal Counil have recently taken over the entire running of tramways in the city of Colombo previously owned by foreign capital and had paid compensation on reference to a valuer mutually selected.

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All industries are open to private enterprise, though there are varying degrees of control exercised by the Central Government. The more important enactments which exercise control over industries are :—

(*a*) Gemming Ordinance, (*b*) Manufacture of Matches (Regulation) Ordinance, (*c*) Salt Ordinance, (*d*) Chanks Ordinance.

Local Government control over various industries is generally confined to the regulation of nuisances and the enforcement of certain health and safety devices where industries are carried out within the limits of their jurisdiction. The following is a list of important industries so covered:—

Manufacture of manure, tanning, manufacture and extraction of fat, manufacture of soap, curing or storing of plumbago, curing of rubber, manufacture of cigars.

II. State Industrial Projects

Industrial surveys and investigations have reported favourably on the possibility of establishing several industries in Ceylon. In the light of these recommendations Government plans for the establishment of a number of industries, both basic and essential, are going on. Lack of technical staff to advise on these plans is holding back several schemes. Experts from abroad are being recruited, but it is being found that it is necessary to check one expert report against another as opinions as to the mode of manufacture appear to be different in European countries and in America. For instance, the fertiliser project has been reported on by both the U. K. and the U. S. A. specialists. Three different processes have been recommended and it is now left to the Department of Industries to decide which of these processes would be most economical for Ceylon. Plans are, however, being made for the establishment and development of the following industries :—

(*a*) Caustic soda, (*b*) synthetic ammonia fertilisers, (*c*) iron and steel, (*d*) sugar, (*e*) oil extraction, (*f*) textile, (*g*) ceramic, (*h*) plywood, (*i*) paper, (*j*) rubber processing, (*k*) kaolin refining, (*l*) cardboard, (*m*) acetic acid, and (*n*) cement.

MANUFACTURE OF CAUSTIC SODA

The manufacture of caustic soda utilising salt produced in the local salterns by solar evaporation has been investigated and the project has advanced to the stage of calling for tenders. Schemes for the utilisation of the by-product chlorine are also to be included in this. The by-product hydrogen will be used for hydrogen-action in the manufacture of lauryl alcohol. The capacity of the plant to be installed has been rated at five tons per day. Employment that will be created by the project will be of the order of bout 50 men direct and 100 indirect.

Ceylon's requirements of caustic soda vary between 1,500 and 2,000 tons per year, assuming that the soap, paper and textile industries, are to be expanded. Present consumption is said to be between 1,000 and 1,500 tons per year. The object of the scheme is thus to eliminate as far as possible the present imports.

The total estimated cost of the scheme is seven million rupees, of this, two million rupees has already been released.

SYNTHETIC AMMONIA FERTILISERS

The proposal is to manufacture ammonium sulphate and super-phosphate. The raw material used for the production of synthetic gases will be wood. Sulphur and phosphatic rock will have to be imported.

The establishment of the synthetic ammonia fertiliser plant has however, been delayed as there are three modern processes of synthetising ammonia, and it has only just been decided which process should be adopted to suit conditions in Ceylon. The estimated output is 80,000 tons of

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ammonium sulphate per year, and 40,000 tons of super-phosphate. The project is expected to create employment for about 800 direct and 1,200 indirect. The exploitation of the timber for supply to the factory will employ another 300 to 400 people. The estimated cost of the project is Rs. 35 million.

IRON AND STEEL

The requirements of iron and steel in Ceylon vary according to different sections of metal. The merchant section requirements could be estimated round about 15,000 tons per year ; and the heavier sections can be estimated to a further 15,000 tons per year. Both these estimates are conservative as it is anticipated that with the introduction of cheap cement, building programmes will go forward using cement and merchant sections instead of timber and lime. The scheme for the production of 16,200 tons of steel per year has been accepted and the location of the factory decided upon. The production programme includes manufacture of bolts and nuts, rivets, hoop iron, wire nails, barbed wire, &c.

SUGAR INDUSTRY

Ceylon has extensive areas of land which can be converted into sugar-cane farms. The present import of sugar is in the neighbourhood of 100,000 tons a year.

The scheme for the establishment of a sugar factory to produce 10,000 tons of sugar per year has already been finalised. It is estimated that about seven to ten thousand acres of sugar cultivation will be necessary to keep a 10,000 ton per year factory of this size in production for six months in the year. Land has already been ear-marked for this cultivation and progress of work will depend on the rapid colonisation of this 7,000 acres on the basis of eight acres per colonist.

OIL EXTRACTION INDUSTRY

The oil project is concerned mainly with copra and its products and secondarily with certain oil seeds. It is a comprehensive project comprising the following :—

(*a*) Continuous solvent extraction, (*b*) batch solvent extraction, (*c*) splitting of the fat for the production of glycerine which has to be refined and concentrated, and fatty acid which should be refined by distillation, &c., (*d*) cattle food compounding, utilising the poonac from the extraction plants and blending it with other suitable food materials, (*e*) refining of the oils, and (*f*) production of fatty alcohol.

About 3,800 tons of low grade oil will be available from the extraction of the oil cake in the continuous solvent extraction plant. About 800 tons of glycerine, 4,800 tons of fatty acid, 50,000 tons of cattle food, and 1,000 tons of lauryl alcohol are estimated to be produced. Direct employment of about 1,000 men and indirect employment of about 3,000 men are anticipated.

The chief purpose of the project is to eliminate waste of oil in the locally produced oil cake and processing the oil into products which bring in higher value. The unique properties of coconut oil are sought to be taken advantage of in producing glycerine and fatty alcohol so as to improve the value of the products of the coconut tree. Some of the minor oil seeds which have not been exploited to the extent required will also be brought for treatment under this project and will be more advantageously utilised.

The scheme has already been finalised and a site at Seeduwa has been taken over. Tenders for the supply of machinery have been called and accepted and the contract signed with the tenderers. Local staff for running the plant are being sent abroad for training. It is expected that the plant would be in operation within two years' time. The total estimated cost of the project is Rs. 12 million.

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TEXTILE INDUSTRY

Ceylon imports about 120 million rupees worth of textiles per year. With the present statistics provided by the Customs it is difficult to estimate the quality and quantity of the particular lines of textiles. A temporary breakdown has been effected which give the number of narrow and broad looms required for producing the textiles for Ceylon. The great drawback here is that Ceylon does not grow cotton and it is estimated by the Department of Agriculture, that about 400,000 acres will have to be brought under cultivation before the full requirements of cotton could be obtained.

In the meantime a scheme is being drawn up for the spinning of imported cotton into yarn and the establishment of a power loom factory to produce 25,000,000 yards of textiles. This scheme also provides that a further 25,000,000 yards of textiles will be produced by the handloom industry which gives a total of 50 million yards of textiles. This is approximately half of Ceylon's requirements of textiles ; but at this stage it is considered to be sufficient. A scheme for the manufacture of viscoe rayon yarn giving an output of $2\frac{1}{2}$ tons of yarn per day has been formulated and awaits Cabinet approval. About 20 per cent. of the yarn will be converted into fabrics whilst the balance 80 per cent. would be sold to the hand loom industry.

CERAMIC INDUSTRY

The ceramic industry has been established in the early nineteen forties ; but due to wartime conditions the industry was not provided with up-to-date machinery. The result is that the process practically depends on labour with consequent non-uniformity of finished ware. Recently however, the moulding process has been adopted with the result that 75,000 articles of ceramic ware are produced per month which find a ready sale. It is estimated that a plant to deal with three tons of ceramic ware per day would be sufficient for the Island's needs at the moment. Steps have been taken to instal such a plant and ceramic experts have reported on the modification of the present factory to deal with three tons per day : the present production is one-fourth ton per day.

The difficulty of obtaining an expert manager has not been surmounted and the services of the ECAFE have been solicited.

PLYWOOD FACTORY

The reorganisation of the Plywood Factory has been completed and extra machinery has arrived for the production of decorative panels. The factory at present produces 300,000 tea chests per year, and it is estimated that the Island's requirements are three million chests per year.

The present difficulty is to obtain the necessary timber at economic rates ; but it is hoped that this difficulty will be surmounted within the next year.

PAPER FACTORY

The factory is designed to manufacture from 'illuk' grass and paddy straw the ordinary types of paper for writing and printing. The 'monosulphite' process will be adopted. It is expected to produce 3,500 to 4,000 tons of writing and printing paper per year. The manufacture of kraft paper, useable in the making of about 2,000,000 cement bags per year for the Cement Factory at Kankesanturai is also included. It is anticipated that this factory will provide direct employment for 200 people and indirect employment for about 400.

A fully mechanised plant has been finalised. Work is in progress at present and it is hoped that the factory would be completed by 1952. The total estimated cost of the scheme is Rs. 12 million.

RUBBER INDUSTRY

Two schemes are in hand for Government to set up two factories as recommended by the Rubber Committee. One plant is to deal with the manufacture of all crepe rubbers, while the other is to concentrate on the manufacture of special rubbers. It is hoped that they will be running in the

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near future. It is to be remembered however, that these two plants will only be catering to one-tenth of Ceylon's requirements. If they are successful it is anticipated that further nine pairs of factories will be set up.

KAOLIN REFINING INDUSTRY

This is associated with the ceramic industry. Kaolin refining is being done by a few industrialists with the result that the price is abnormally high (Rs. 40 to Rs. 50 per ton over the price of Cornwall kaolin f.o.b. Colombo). Government now intends to take active steps to establish a kaolin refining plant to supply refined kaolin not only to the ceramic industry but also to the textile and paper industries.

CARDBOARD INDUSTRY

The former Government Paper Mill at Kakkapalliya in the Chilaw District is now being converted into a Cardboard Factory to supply 500 tons of cardboard per year. It is anticipated that this conversion will take six months.

ACETIC ACID FACTORY

The present unit (of 100 tons of acetic acid per year) which was set up using improvised plant and machinery during the war is not considered suitable to function any longer as an economic unit. The potentialities of this industry are great and it is now proposed to set up a modern industry using coconut shells as raw material. The output contemplated is 500 to 550 tons of acetic acid per annum recommended as 100 per cent. acid.

III. The Salt Industry

From time immemorial, the salt monopoly has been regarded in Ceylon as a Royal prerogative, and the practice was continued by the British. Until recently salt was manufactured or collected largely by private enterprises subject to licences, supervision, and a variable excise duty ; but owing to the inefficiency of this system resulting in fluctuating output, insufficient production and poor quality, model salterns have been established and run by Government since the early 1920's. The manufacture of salt in Ceylon, is entirely based on the solar evaporation of raw sea brine.

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The climatic features which in theory affect salt manufacture area low rainfall with one short rainy season, the prevalence of strong steady winds, and open bare rocky ground to windward. From this purely climatic angle Ceylon possesses exceptionally favourable conditions. The whole of the dry zone coasts, extending from about Mundel (65 miles north of Colombo) all the way round the north-eastern and southern coast down to Tangalle in the South (126 miles from Colombo) is *prima facie* suitable for salt production. The process of salt manufacture adopted, consists in exposing shallow layers of sea brine in successive stages in enclosures of clay to the evaporative action of sun and wind, until the brine reaches sufficient strength and is saturated with respect to salt. An attempt was made to improve quality by evaporation of brine in deep concrete tanks. Manufacture of boiled salt in 'Grainer' type pans was attempted but resulted in only poor success owing to the unexpected high cost of wood fuel. A double effect vacuum evaporator is now in commercial production. The production has so far only been marketed as table salt, a purpose for which it is not altogether suitable as, though much purer, it is less white and less 'free flowing' than the magnesium treated table salt. As soon as the acceptable quality of first-grade table salt is produced, the ordinary grade will be marked as a refined kitchen salt.

The following table shows the production of salt for the period 1939–49 :—

TABLE 14.1. QUANTITY OF SALT COLLECTED, 1939–49

Year	*Quantity (tons)*	*Year*	*Quantity (tons)*
1939	35,559	1945	41,695
1940	33,264	1946	42,920
1941	28,061	1947	22,791
1942	18,383	1948	77,429
1943	13,563	1949	28,220
1944	28,233		

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The cost price of salt is very variable. The approximate costs were as follows :—

	1939	*1940*	*1942*	*1944*	*1946*	*1948*	*1949*
	Rs. c.	*Rs. c.*	*Rs. c.*	*Rs. c.*	*Rs. c.*	*Rs. c.*	*Rs. c.*
Cost per ton	16 60	14 20	15 00	29 80	24 40	18 60	26 00

With a view to ironing out extreme fluctuations in production and providing for the needs of an increased population as well as for meeting the new demand for industrial and agricultural purposes, several schemes were drawn up in 1945 and later to augment the productive potentiality in Ceylon. In 1948 plans were laid for the manufacture of caustic soda, one of the by-products of whose manufacture ought to be about 20,000 tons of the finest boiled salt. Some of the schemes have already been taken in hand, and others are being cautiously tested. Schemes however tried out for the manufacture of gypsum, hydrated magnesia, plastered magnesia, oxychloride cements, and Epsom salts and a pilot factory is being set up to test out possible processes on a plant scale.

One very large project drawn up by the Salt Department is primarily for the production of the Island's full post-war needs of 50,000 tons of potash salts. It will also enable the production of vast quantities of other products including 1½ million tons of salt, 100,000 tons each of gypsum and magnesia, several thousand pounds each of iodine and boric acid and a horde of secondary chemicals.

There is no reason to anticipate that Ceylon will go short of salt if these schemes were put into effect. Supervision and control have also been tightened up and much greater care than hitherto has been lavished during the rainy season to protect the remaining brine of the previous season. The result has been a remarkable increase in productivity and diminution in cost. Ceylon salt is now among the cheapest in the world, and there is, indeed, every possibility of a surplus of salt being exported at fully economic and profitable prices. The various forms of salt now being marketed include boiled salt, crushed salt, table salt, block salt and pharmaceutical salt.

At present protection for Ceylon salt is afforded by the tariff of Rs. 4 per cwt. on imported salt (which does not apply to Government imports for resale) and a by-statutory licensing systems for both imports and exports. Since Ceylon manufactured a second grade table salt the imports of table salt were completely stopped since 1942. No imports of table salt have been permitted since then, but traders found a loophole in the salt used for packing ham, bacon, and the preserved flesh products. This packing salt is now placed on the market as table salt, and commands some acceptance.

IV. Private Industries

In the field of private industry, development began to take effect in the period after September, 1947. A pharmaceutical factory was set up to make a number of tinctures, alkaloids, gallenicals and injectules ; tea chest production was increased ; new soap factories were beginning to rise with small capital, but had unusual difficulties in obtaining adequate quotas of caustic soda ; glassware workshops were rapidly rising to saturate local demands in that line ; the first paint and distemper factory took its place as a pioneer effort of Ceylon capital. The co-operative movement was gaining strength particularly in the Northern Province, more as a challenge to the middlemen than otherwise. Interest in the cottage industries movement with a wide variety including textiles, coir, mats, twine and hosiery manufacture, toys, button making, lace production and other miscellaneous subjects was becoming increasingly popular. Salvage schemes began to take stock of accumulations of waste with a view to conserving its needs for important industries for the future, instead of allowing exports as before. Shortages of bricks and tiles precipitated the establishment of new factories with better kilns for supplementing this vital need. Beginnings of a private factory for making chemical products, mainly essential oils on modern principles of distillation were made. Tanneries were being increased in capacity to deal with the full complement of local hides.

The country, however, was not quite ripe for these major changes and supply difficulties began to be felt in many fatories. In the plywood manufacture, timber was a big problem; and one factory

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closed down owing to the increasing cost of timber. Private tanneries have found that owing to the high premium obtainable on exports of raw hides it would pay them better to export them in that form. Private match factories are experiencing difficulties in obtaining replacements for this machinery.

This period after September, 1947, was also important in that foreign capital hedged by exchange consideration was looking to newer fields for investment. Proposals for such investments were received by the Department of Industries in connection with the establishment of a rubber tyre factory, an aluminium foil factory for use in tea chests, a creosoting plant, a cement asbestos plant and the manufacture of foam-cement, &c.

In the group of agricultural industries, rubber predominated. A plant to manufacture better grades of rubber, mainly sponge rubber, foam-latex and cream-latex and sole crepe was set up.

Papain production which is entirely in private hands showed signs of deterioration owing to abuses in packing. Steps were formulated for laying down a standardised scheme to guarantee the quality exported.

V. Electricity

COLOMBO SUPPLY

The Colombo Electrical installation was purchased by Government in 1928 from a private supply authority and has since been operated by the Department of Government Electrical Undertakings. The Department is fully commercialised and the policy laid down for its working is that its revenue should meet all working expenses and interest and repayment charges and provide for a reserve fund, the surplus being utilised to effect a reduction in tariffs for the benefit of the consumers.

The generation of electricity is by steam turbine and diesel alternators and 11 KV ring mains distribute the energy throughout the city. Extra high tension transmission lines running north, east and south of Colombo supply large power consumers and energy in bulk to local authorities for distribution in their own areas. The following table indicates the expansion of the undertaking since it was purchased by Government.

TABLE 14.2. COLOMBO ELECTRICAL SUPPLY STATISTICS, 1929, 1939, 1949

	1929	*1939*	*1949*
Peak load KW	2,600	7,239	13,395
Units generated	703,700	2,780,385	57,075,779
Units sold	5,859,073	22,562,853	46,551,744
No. of consumers	3,176	11,277	16,551

OUTSTATION SUPPLY

Besides the Colombo Supply Undertaking, the Government now operates three other electricity undertakings for public supply. At Norton Bridge the 1,000 KW construction plant for the Hydro-electric Scheme is utilised to supply power to adjacent tea factories and the Hatton-Dickoya Urban Council area. A hydro and diesel electric scheme is operated at Nuwara Eliya and a diesel electric scheme at Diyatalawa, Haputale and Bandarawela.

Forty-seven local authorities operate electricity schemes in their own areas by diesel generation or by purchase of energy in bulk. There are also four private electricity licensees operating small schemes for public supply. The development of local electricity schemes had been at a standstill during the war years but many new schemes are now being constructed and almost all the existing schemes extended by the installation of additional generating plant and the construction of new street mains.

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The development of public electricity supply in the outstations is indicated in the following table :—

TABLE 14.3. OUTSTATION ELECTRICAL SUPPLY STATISTICS, 1929, 1939, 1949

	1929	*1939*	*1949*
No. of undertakings	17	47	54
Aggregate peak load KW	—	3,702	7,675
Units generated or purchased	—	6,171,653	16,147,843
Units sold	—	5,769,671	15,132,887
Total No. of consumers	—	15,522	28,733

In addition to the supply from public undertakings, there are over a thousand private generating units installed in factories, institutions, bungalows, &c.

HYDRO-ELECTRIC SCHEME

The Aberdeen-Laksapana Hydro-electric Scheme was designed to take advantage of the rapid fall and proximity of two streams in adjacent valleys and by damming each to convey the water to a point in the ridge between the two valleys where the combined flow can be discharged through pipe lines down a hillside with a total drop of 1,500 ft. on to turbines at the bottom for the generation of electricity. Though known generally as the Aberdeen and Laksapana streams, the correct names for the rivers are the Kehelgamu-oya and Maskeliya-oya.

Electricity will be generated at 11,000 V and transmitted at 66,000 V westwards to Colombo, north to Kandy, east to Nuwara Eliya and south to Galle. These transmission lines will be tapped at narrow points from which secondary or lower voltage transmission lines will radiate and make the power available over an extensive area. The lower voltage transmission lines will in turn be tapped at suitable points from where current will be transmitted to ' Low Voltage ' for distribution to consumers.

The second stage will fully develop the Kehelgamu-oya with a reservoir at Castlereagh, four or five miles above Norton Bridge. The water from this reservoir will run into the Norton Reservoir, whence it will be led through the tunnel constructed under stage one. New pipe lines and generating machines will be installed to generate an additional 25,000 KW of power.

The difference in levels between Castlereagh and Norton will enable the water flowing from one reservoir into the other to produce additional power and it is proposed to instal a low head generating plant at Norton Bridge of capacity 25,000 KW.

The third and fourth stages will provide for the development of the Maskeliya-oya in two stages, the combined output being 75,000 KW.

The total power development will be 150,000 KW in the four stages.

The first stage of the Hydro-electric Scheme is nearing completion and when completed it will have an installed generating capacity of 25,000 KW and will be inter-connected with the existing system in Colombo by a 66 K V transmission line. There is now operating in Colombo a thermo-generating station with a loads of 15,000 K. W. and this is being distributed not only within the Colombo Municipal area but to the adjoining districts as well.

With the development of the Hydro-electric Scheme, it is the aim of Government to erect about 70 miles of subsidiary transmission lines every year, but owing to the non-delivery of materials some of the lines have fallen behind schedule. Now that the materials are more readily available, it is hoped that the programme can be stepped up. In addition, the power that can be generated from the various multi-purpose dams that are being constructed in connection with agricultural development, especially the Gal-oya irrigation project, will add to the power that will be available for use in the country.

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CEYLON
COMMUNICATIONS

0 9 18 34 53 68 MILES

railway
major & minor roads
lighthouses/beacons
fishing ports/centres
MAJOR PORTS { minor ports / naval ports
aerodromes
inter coastal shipping routes

Kankesanturai
Point Pedro
Kayts
Jaffna
Kodikamam
Elephant Pass
Mullaittivu
Talaimannar
Pesalai
Mankulam
Mannar
Madhu Road
Vavuniya
Nilaveli
Trincomalee
Madawachchiya
Anuradhapura
Kalpitiya
Puttalam
Gal Oya
Polonnaruwa
Dambulla
Kalkudah
Maho
Batticaloa
Chilaw
Kurunegala
Matale
Marawila
Wennapuwa
Polgahawela
Negombo
KATUNAYAKE
Bibile
Badulla
Tirukkovil
Colombo
Avissawella
Nuwara Eliya
Moneragala
Mount Lavinia
Hatton
Pottuvil
RATMALANA
Bandarawela
Moratuwa
Panadura
Haputale
Wellawaya
Ratnapura
Opanake
Kalutara
Bentota
Little Basses
Ambalangoda
Kirinda
Great Basses
Hikkaduwa
Hambantota
Dodanduwa
Galle
Tangalle
Weligama
Matara
Dondra Head

Drawn by Edmund.V.Christian

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CHAPTER XV

TRANSPORT AND COMMUNICATIONS

I. Railways

THE Railway system of the Island has been patterned to meet her commercial and agricultural requirements and falls naturally into two types : (*a*) railways serving the flat country and (*b*) railways serving the central hilly portion of the Island and the Kelani Valley which produces its tea and rubber.

Under (*a*) there are—

(1) the Coast Line from Colombo to Galle and Matara ;

(2) the Northern Line from Colombo on North to Kankesanturai *via* Polgahawela with a branch line from Madawachchi to Talaimannar ;

(3) the Chilaw Line runs along the coast north of Colombo ;

(4) the two railway lines serving the Eastern Province starting from Maho on the Northern Line—thereafter bifurcating at Gal-oya, one going to Trincomalee and the other to Batticaloa ;

(5) the Kelani Valley Line starts from Colombo and serves Avissawella and Ratnapura terminating at Opanaike.

All these lines except the Kelani Valley Line are broad-gauged. A double track exists only on portions of two lines : (i) on the Main Line up to Polgahawela and (ii) on the Coast Line up to Panadure.

Under (*b*) there is the portion of the Main Line beyond Polgahawela and meanders right through the central mountainous part of the country on to Badulla. This broad-gauge reaches the extreme height of 6,225 feet above mean sea level at Pattipola.

The total length of railway line open in Ceylon is 896 miles, of which 809 miles are broad gauge (5½ feet gauge) and 87 miles narrow gauge (2½ feet gauge).

The number of passengers and the tonnage of goods conveyed annually since 1943 were as follows :—

	1943	*1944*	*1945*	*1946*	*1947*	*1948*	*1949*
Passengers conveyed (thousands)	19,214	21,346	25,383	26,425	26,476	26,933	26,678
Goods conveyed (thousand tons)	1,313	1,553	1,691	1,369	1,110	1,200	1,268

ORGANISATION

All the railways in Ceylon are State-owned and controlled, the management being vested in the Ceylon Government Railway Department. Until May 1925 the organisation was based on the traditional British ' departmental ' system. There were five departments of the Railway and the head of each reported direct to the General Manager. In 1925, however, a change over was made towards the ' divisional ' system. Three operating divisions were formed, each under a Divisional Transportation Superintendent.

The new organisation was designed to ensure greater flexibility and continued practically unchanged up to the present time. The present set-up consists of the following divisions of sub-departments whose work is organised under the General Manager :—

(1) Administrative work under the Chief Administrative Officer.

(2) The care of the permanent way, bridges and buildings, under the Chief Engineer, Way and Works.

(3) Heavy work in connection with the care of locomotives, passenger coaches and goods waggons, under the Chief Mechanical Engineer.

(4) Commercial work under the Commercial Superintendent.

(5) Movement of traffic, excluding provision and maintenance of motive power, under the Operating Superintendent.

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FINANCES

Commercial accounts were begun to be maintained by the Ceylon Railway in the year 1928–29. Excluding provision for interest and annuity, the following table compares working results since 1928–29 :—

TABLE 15.1. EXPENDITURE AND REVENUE OF THE RAILWAY, 1928–29 TO 1948–49

Year	*Working Expenditure Rs.*	*Gross Receipts Rs.*	*Nett Receipts Rs.*
1928–29	25,996,899	32,498,948	6,502,049
1929–30	25,085,120	29,659,683	4,565,563
1930–31	23,809,576	25,324,379	1,514,803
1931–32	21,688,864	22,024,355	335,491
1932–33	19,319,240	19,711,602	392,362
1933–34	18,943,156	20,980,422	2,037,266
1934–35	18,911,326	18,273,081	— 638,245
1935–36	19,587,815	16,749,221	— 2,838,593
1936–37	20,355,043	16,304,611	— 4,050,432
1937–38	20,268,061	16,128,529	— 4,139,532
1938–39	20,021,602	15,441,208	— 4,580,394
1939–40	21,157,355	17,107,451	— 4,049,904
1940–41	22,721,693	18,589,925	— 4,131,768
1941–42	24,439,334	28,302,436	3,863,102
1942–43	28,880,704	39,693,953	— 10,813,249
1943–44	32,218,329	52,010,771	19,792,442
1944–45	39,746,454	59,592,041	19,845,587
1945–46	52,097,685	56,308,688	4,211,003
1946–47	62,847,052	48,349,070	— 14,497,982
1947–48	70,862,702	52,468,355	— 18,394,347
1948–49	71,245,607	55,078,332	— 16,167,275

It will be seen that the railway worked at a profit from 1928–29 to 1933–34. From 1934–35 to 1940–41 the railway worked at a loss. Between 1936–37 and 1940–41 when the accumulated effect of the trade depression was felt, the yearly loss being about four million rupees. 1941–42 showed the benefit accruing from war traffic and the railway showed a profit from that year until 1945–46. The best years were 1943–44 and 1944–45 when the yearly profit was just under twenty million rupees. In 1945–46 the profit had dropped to about four and a quarter million rupees and in 1946–47 there was a loss of about fourteen and half million rupees. In 1947–48 this deficit increased to eighteen million rupees and decreased by two million rupees in the following year.

The total capital outlay on the railways since 1942–43 was as follows :—

	1942–43	*1943–44*	*1944–45*	*1945–46*	*1946–47*	*1947–48*	*1948–49*
(Rs. thousand)	222,127	218,170	218,171	218,311	222,173	231,598	236,109

MISCELLANEOUS

Passenger Fares.—The fare charged in respect of each passenger for each mile of a single journey is as follows :—

	First Class Cents	*Second Class Cents*	*Third Class Cents*
(i) On the Main Line from Rambukkana to Badulla	16	10	4
(ii) On other lines	11	7	3

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In calculating the fare between any two stations, any fractional part of five cents which is below two and a half cents is not reckoned or charged for and every fractional part of five cents equal to or above two and a half cents is reckoned and charged for as five cents.

Sleeping Cars.—Trains which run on the up and down night mail trains between Colombo, Kandy and Badulla, Colombo-Kankesanturai, Colombo-Trincomalee and Colombo-Batticaloa are provided with sleeping berth accommodation. Each berth is provided with bedding and an attendant accompanies each car. The charge for a sleeping berth is Rs. 5 in addition to the ordinary first class fare to the station to which the journey is made.

In the Indo-Ceylon mail trains sleeping berths without bedding are provided for through first class passengers without any extra charge, but berths are not guaranteed unless they have been reserved, for which a charge of Rs. 2.50 per berth is made. If bedding is required Rs. 5 must be paid for each set of bedding at the time of booking. In such cases no registration fee is charged.

Sleeping berths without bedding are provided for second class passengers on the Colombo-Kankesanturai up and down night mail trains at Rs. 2.50 each, on the Colombo-Talaimannar Pier up and down night mail trains at Rs. 2.50 each for through Indo-Ceylon passengers, and on the Colombo-Trincomalee and Colombo-Batticaloa up and down night mail trains.

Restaurant Cars and Rooms.—Restaurant cars are attached to the important trains on the Main and Northern Lines.

Restaurant Rooms are provided at Maradana, Polgahawela, and Nanu-oya on the Main Line, Colombo Fort and Alutgama on the Coast Line, and Anuradhapura on the Northern Line. Refreshments at these places are supplied at moderate prices.

Refreshment baskets can be supplied for any train from Colombo on giving 20 minutes' notice to the Manager, Restaurant Cars and Rooms, at his office at Colombo Fort Station.

Luggage.—Each adult passenger is allowed, free of charge, the following weight of luggage :—

	lb.
First Class	112
Second Class	84
Third Class	70

A free allowance of half these quantities is made for each person travelling with a half ticket. No luggage is conveyed free for children under three years of age who travel free.

On March 1, 1948, the Uda Pussellawa Narrow Gauge Railway from Nanu-oya to Ragala, a length of 19m. 16c. was closed for traffic. A Road Carrier Service is in operation in this section now.

Out Agencies have been opened at the following stations and the traffic dealt with is as follows :—

(1) *Goods and Parcels :—*

Matara to Tissamaharama :	Dickwella, Tangalle, Ranna, Hunugama, Ambalantota, Hambantota, Tissamaharama
Bandarawela to Welimada :	Welimada
Kodikamam to Point Pedro :	Point Pedro

(2) *Passengers, Goods and Parcels :—*

Chilaw-Bangadeniya-Puttalam :	Battulu-oya, Mundel, Madurankuli, Palavi, Puttalam
Nanu-oya to Ragala :	Nuwara Eliya, Kandapola, Brookside, Ragala

Collection and Delivery Services are in operation within the Municipal limits of Colombo and Kandy on zonal basis.

Colombo

(1) *Central* (Church Street-Korteboam Street-Hulftsdorp Street-Maradana-Darley Road-Union Place-Lake Road-Queen's Street-Church Street).

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(2) *Inner* (Between Central Area and Outer Area-Korteboam Street-Grandpass-Baseline Road-Buller's Road-Kollupitiya Road-Galle Face Centre Road).

(3) *Outer* (Within the Town limits and the Inner Circle).

Kandy

(1) *Inner* (Area within Railway Approach-Katukelle Road-Colombo Road-Colombo Street-Brownrigg Street-Hill Street-Trincomalee Street-King's Street-Palace Square-Malabar Street-Victoria Drive Junction (Near United Service Library)-Ward Street-Victoria Drive-Mosque Road-Market Square-Jail Road-Esplanade Road (up to Ratwatte Pavilion)-Hanthane Road (up to Kandy Hospital)-Station Road.

(2) *Outer* (Area outside Inner Zone and extending up to the Outer Limits of the Kandy Municipality).

Rail Car Service.—With the arrival of the twenty-three diesel electric rail cars, a fairly intensive rail car service is being operated between Matara, Galle and Alutgama ; and Colombo, Gampaha and Kochchikade.

The railway is still handicapped by shortage of locomotive and carriage stock, as it has not been possible to obtain any fresh stocks. All carriage stock were renovated and all possible pre-war amenities have been provided.

RE-ORGANISATION

The Hammond Commission, which reported on the working of the Ceylon Railways in 1937 concluded that it was not essential to the maintenance of the economic structure of the Island to protect the railways from undue competition from the road. The Rutnam Report of 1949, which examined the existing position of transport in Ceylon, with special reference to road and rail, however, stressed the necessity for a proper co-ordination of the railway system with road transport to prevent either system from getting out of hand.

II. Roads, Canals and Tramways

ROADS

There are about 10,500 miles of motorable roads in Ceylon. Considering that the area of the Island is 25,300 square miles, there is therefore one mile of motorable road to every 2.5 square miles. Of the total mileage in road 5,200 miles are bitumen surfaced and open to lorry traffic. Thus there is one mile of road open to lorry traffic to five square miles of area.

Motorable roads are mainly of mortar bound macadam in most areas. The need for wider and better surfaced roads to take an increasing volume of fast traffic is acutely felt. All the schemes of land development now undertaken in the Island are to be made approachable by good motorable roads.

The Public Works Department is the central road authority in the Island, being in charge of the main thoroughfares. In 1949 it had approximately 6,500 miles of road under its charge. There are also other road authorities such as District Road Committees, Municipalities, Urban Councils, Town Councils, Village Committees, &c., who are in charge of a total of over 12,000 miles of road approximately.

Deterioration of roads and bridges has resulted from the greatly increased volume and weight of traffic during the war, together with the acute shortage of labour, plant and material during the period. This was further aggravated by the devastating rains of August, 1947, which caused considerable damage almost throughout the Island, particularly in the Central Province where unprecedented floods wrought havoc to several roads and bridges. Repair and reconstruction were effected speedily by departmental Engineers. The programme of general rehabilitation and improvement is being executed as expeditiously as possible with due regard to economic considerations.

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The roads vary in standard from narrow country roads to wide modern thoroughfares, the standard depending on the nature of the country traversed and the traffic carried. The metalled roads are maintained in good order, and, with but few exceptions may be considered passable to all classes of traffic. Gravelled roads can be considered as dry weather roads only ; in dry weather they are generally in fair order, but they cannot be relied upon to the extent of metalled roads. A large mileage of the metalled roads is tarred or otherwise surface-treated.

The distribution of main roads, distances between the principal centres, &c., can be ascertained on reference to the motor map of Ceylon prepared by the Surveyor-General.

The distances from Colombo to other chief towns by road (given to the nearest half mile), are shown in the following list :—

Colombo to—	*Miles*	Colombo to—	*Miles*
Galle	72½	Batticaloa (*via* Badulla)	241
Peradeniya	68	Anuradhapura (*via* Puttalam)	129
Kandy	72	Anuradhapura (*via* Matale)	158½
Nuwara Eliya (*via* Peradeniya)	112	Trincomalee (*via* Kurunegala)	169
Nuwara Eliya (*via* Ginigathena)	106½	Jaffna (*via* Puttalam)	250

CANALS

Ceylon has a series of navigable canals connecting a chain of lakes on the west coast at Bolgoda, Colombo, Negombo, Chilaw, Mundel and Puttalam—as also the estuaries of the Kalu-ganga, Kelani-ganga, Maha-oya, and Deduru-oya. There is a continuous waterway from Kalutara in the south to Puttalam in the north, a distance of approximately 120 miles. These were maintained in good order.

In addition there are about forty-five miles of boat channel maintained by dredging the Jaffna Lagoon.

TRAMWAYS

The only tramways operated in Ceylon are in the City of Colombo. They were acquired by the Colombo Municipality in September, 1944, from a private company who had been running them since 1900.

The total length of double track is 7½ miles and the fleet consists of 50 single-deck tram cars. The tracks are laid out in the form of the letter ' A ' the top of the letter representing the terminus of two routes situated in what is known as the Fort area ; this is the harbour, main shopping centre and head offices of most mercantile offices. The legs of the letter ' A ' represent two routes going out to the suburbs three miles away in each case. These routes are connected across about half way along their routes by a cross route of one mile double track.

MOTOR VEHICLES

At the end of 1938 the number of motor vehicles in Ceylon stood at 31,231. During the war years, owing to the restriction of imports the position declined, so that in 1945 the number of motor vehicles was 29,949. In 1946, however, owing to the revival of trade there has been a steady increase in the number of motor vehicles. On December 31, 1949, there were 52,085 motor vehicles in the Island.

All drivers must hold the Government Certificate of Competence. Numerous facilities for repairs exist in Colombo, Kandy, Nuwara Eliya, and most of the other towns. Supplies of petrol and oil are available in all towns and in most of the larger villages.

The Automobile Association of Ceylon is affiliated or has reciprocal agreements with most of the Automobile Associations and Clubs in other countries and the Secretary (P. O. Box 338, Colombo) will afford any information which may be desired. The various landing, Customs, and registration

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formalities can be arranged for visitors by the association. Facilities afforded by the International Convention relative to motor traffic are now avaliable to Ceylon and a Ceylon TRIPTYQUE for the Customs purposes is available through the leading Automobile Institutions overseas. International Driving Permits, International Certificates of registration for motor vehicles, and Fiscal Permits are valid in Ceylon.

The number of omnibuses on the registers on December 31, 1949, was 2,947. There is a good supply of motor omnibuses carrying passengers for hire and running on nearly every main road in the Island.

A new scheme for the re-organization of the bus industry was brought into operation by Ordinance No. 47 of 1942. This Ordinance provides for a system of exclusive licences under which the issue of road service licences are so regulated to ensure that different persons are not authorised to provide regular omnibus services on the same route. Companies were formed by bus owners to operate on certain main and subsidiary routes ; exclusive road service licences have been issued to seventy-nine operators to provide bus and cab services in the Island. A licence is issued for each route so that each operator is issued as many licences as the number of routes on which the services are operated by him. The licences are issued for periods of one or two years and are renewed when they expire if the services have been operated satisfactorily in the meantime. As new roads are opened for bus and cab services new licences are issued to provide service on these roads.

This system has resulted in the elimination of duplication and wasteful running resulting from competition ; more efficient use is made of buses and men engaged in the industry under this system of monopoly licences. The public has been safeguarded against abuse of monopolies since the Commissioner has power to fix time-tables, fare tables and other conditions of service and to cancel licences for frequent breach of these conditions.

During 1948 and 1949 there has been an increase in the number of passengers carried and although the number of trips have been increased on many services, yet, it must be admitted that on many routes the number of trips provided is still inadequate for the needs of the public. It is only possible to increase the number of trips as and when the operators are in a position to put in more buses on the roads. The number of buses has increased during this period but is still inadequate to meet the demand of the public. On many routes the services may therefore be said to be still inadequate.

However, in spite of the considerable increase in the costs of operation bus fares have been kept stable. At present the fare per passenger mile varies from two and a half cents to five cents according to the nature of the roads, availability of traffic and economy of operation. Cab services are allowed fares varying from five cents to ten cents per passenger mile. Increases in fares are not allowed unless the Commissioner is satisfied that it is not possible for the operator to run his services economically at the approved fares. Certain operators made applications for increases in fares and were allowed an increase of half cent per passenger mile.

The All-Ceylon Omnibus Owners' Association has made an application for a general increase in fares on the ground of large increase in the costs of operation and this matter is under consideration.

Up to the end of 1949, 792 licences were issued to seventy-eight operators to provide regular bus and cab services in the Island. Fifty-five of these licences were cab services while the rest were for bus services. The following statement shows the number of buses licensed and number of miles run and passengers carried during the month of March, 1949 :—

Total number of buses licensed	1,672
Total number of miles run	4,359,844
Total number of passengers carried	14,333,708

During the year, 7,011 applications for occasional services were received out of which 6,438 licences were issued.

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LORRY TRANSPORT

In the pre-war period there were about 3,500 lorries which were issued licences. The number of licences issued at the end of 1946, 1947 and 1948 were 5,200, 5,528 and 8,337 respectively. No new licences were issued during 1949 as it was decided not to consider any applications till the Government's decision was known on Transport Adviser's Report.

In spite of the improvement in the bus transport industry there are still a large number of defects. As regards the goods transport industry, the increase in the numbers of lorries has resulted in the railway being financially affected ; the Government therefore appointed Mr. Donald Rutnam, M.B.E., as Adviser to the Minister of Transport to report on transport conditions in the Island and to make recommendations with a view to effecting better co-ordination and eliminating wasteful competition. The two reports of Mr. Rutnam have already been published and are being considered with a view to framing legislation to remedy the existing defects.

TABLE 15.2. REGISTRATION OF MOTOR VEHICLES

(*a*) Total number of motor vehicles in the Register of Motor Cars on December 31, 1949		52,085
Classification—		
Motor cars and cabs	31,261	
Buses	2,947	
Lorries	10,286	
Tractors	168	
Trailers	429	
Motor cycles	6,994	
(*b*) Total number of new registrations in 1949	5,627	
Total number of transfers in 1949	15,050	
Total number of alterations from class to class, &c.	873	
Total number of cancellations in 1949	752	
Total number of duplicate certificates of registration issued in 1949	1,945	

TABLE 15.3. LICENSED DRIVERS AND CONDUCTORS

(*a*) Total number of drivers on register on December 31, 1949	102,555
Total number of certificates of competence issued in 1949	8,940
Number of female drivers to whom new certificates were issued in 1949	233
Number of duplicate certificates of competence issued in 1949	1,638
Number of certificates of competence extended from one class to another in 1949	1,714
(*b*) Number of new conductors' licences issued in 1949	4,773
Number of duplicate licences issued in 1949	349
Number of licences renewed to be valid for 1949	9,229

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TABLE 15.4. IMPORTS OF MOTOR VEHICLES, PETROL AND DIESEL OIL, 1949

Type of Product	Country of Origin							
	U.K. No.	Canada No.	Germany No.	Czech. No.	France No.	Italy No.	U.S.A. No.	Total No.
Motor cars	3,001	65	—	105	208	169	141	3,689
Motor trucks, omnibuses and tractors :								
(1) Petrol	317	80	4	—	—	—	201	602
(2) Diesel	15	—	—	—	—	—	—	15
Trailers	4	—	—	—	—	—	5	9
Motor cycles	210	—	6	40	—	1	10	267

	Gallons
Petrol	26,339,536
Diesel	41,727,962

The chief transport of goods by road are the motor lorry and the local bullock cart. A double-bullock cart is capable of taking 1½ tons at a time and travels at the average rate of about two miles an hour. Motor lorries are fast replacing bullock carts in the movement of estate goods and in other industries. Lorries vary in load capacity from 5 cwt. to 5½ tons and travel at speeds of about fifteen to twenty miles per hour, fifteen miles being the legal speed limit for heavy lorries. They run mostly on petrol, a small number on steam or kerosene, some on crude oil, and a very few on charcoal.

III. Civil Aviation

THE DIRECTORATE

The Directorate of Civil Aviation in Ceylon is one of the departments under the control of the Minister of Transport and Works. The Department, which was administered by the Director of Public Works since 1938, was given an independent status with effect from February, 1, 1946, and has been re-organised for the increasing services demanded of it in connection with the regulation and development of air transport.

Ceylon was admitted to membership of the International Civil Aviation Organisation in July, 1948. This administration in common with other member states continues to implement, through its national legislation, the international standards and practices that are recommended by the International Civil Aviation Organization for the systematic and ordely development of air transport.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

Ceylon, as a sovereign member state of the International Civil Aviation Organization, was represented in 1949 at the third assembly of the organization by His Excellency Mr. G. C. S. Corea, the Ambassador for Ceylon in the U. S. A., Mr. Chandrasoma, C.C.S., and Mr. P. Nadesan, C.C.S.

BILATERAL AIR AGREEMENTS

In the absence of a multilateral convention permitting commercial air transport services of one country to operate to and through other countries and to pick up and set down passengers, mails and goods, it has become necessary that one country should negotiate with the other for traffic rights. Ceylon has already concluded bilateral air agreements with several countries, viz., India, Pakistan, United Kingdom, Egypt, Australia, Burma and Thailand. By these agreements Air Ceylon is permitted to operate services through those countries and to pick up and set down passengers, mails and freight. Negotiations are being continued with Italy, Iraq, France and Netherlands.

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AIR TRANSPORT SERVICES

Air Ceylon, the Government airline, which commenced regular operations between Colombo and Madras in December, 1947 considerably expanded its regional services and now operates on the following routes with ' Dakota ' aircraft :—

Daily :	Colombo/Madras *via* Jaffna.
5 per week :	Colombo/Trichinopoly *via* Jaffna.
3 per week :	Colombo/Jaffna.
1 per week :	Colombo/Trichinopoly/Bombay/Karachi.

Air Ceylon inaugurated an international transport service with ' Skymaster ' aircraft on March 9, 1949. The service initially operated on the route Colombo/Bombay/Karachi/Cairo/Rome/London weekly and later expanded eastwards from Colombo through Singapore and Darwin to Sydney once a fortnight.

Air India, Ltd., continued to operate a daily service to Ceylon on the route Karachi/Bombay/Madras/Colombo with ' Dakota ' aircraft.

British Overseas Airways Corporation continued to operate on the London/Malta/Cairo/Basra/Karachi/Bombay/Colombo route and on the Colombo/Singapore sector once a week with ' Lancastrian ' aircraft. These were later replaced by forty-two seater ' Canadair ' aircraft.

AIR MAIL

The Air Mail Agreement between the Ceylon Government and the Government of India accorded the monopoly of the carriage of mails to Air India, Ltd. This agreement which was originally intended to run for a period of fifteen years terminated on December 31, 1948, as a result of discussions which took place in New Delhi between the two Governments. As a result the Ceylon postal administration is now able to utilize Air Ceylon ' Dakota ' services for the purpose of sending air mails to India, the Air Ceylon ' Skymaster ' service to London and Sydney for sending air mails to countries on the Air Ceylon international route, and any other foreign airline which may call in Ceylon.

AIR LEGISLATION

As a result of the change in the political status of Ceylon the old Colonial air legislation which was applicable to this country was rapidly becoming obsolete. It was necessary therefore to replace it by an Act passed by the Parliament of Ceylon. The Air Navigation Bill was presented to Parliament and passed early in 1950. Under this Act the Minister of Transport and Works is empowered to give effect to the provisions of the Chicago Convention on International Civil Aviation and generally to regulate and administer air navigation in Ceylon. A set of regulations which is under review by the Civil Aviation Department is expected to be placed before the Minister shortly for his approval under the provisions of the Air Navigation Act.

AERODROMES IN CEYLON

There are three international aerodromes presently in use in Ceylon. These are :—

(i) *Colombo Airport* (*Ratmalana*), situated eight miles to the south of the Colombo harbour. This is the chief civil aerodrome in the Island and Government proposes to develop it into a first class civil airport capable of receiving the largest air transports now operating on international services. At present owing to the load limitations of the runway which is in existence, this aerodrome has been approved for regular use by aircraft not larger than the ' Dakota ' which weighs about 30,000 lb. fully loaded and for occasional use by the ' Skymaster ' type of aircraft which weighs about 73,000 lb. fully loaded. This aerodrome is considered by far the most attractive of all the aerodromes in the Island, situated closest to the Capital of the Island and (as a result of expert investigation) found to be capable of developing to the highest standards.

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(ii) *Negombo Airport.*—This is a military aerodrome which is being used by civil aircraft incapable of being received at Ratmalana. It is situated approximately nineteen miles to the north of Colombo harbour. Once the runway at Ratmalana is developed and strengthened Negombo aerodrome will cease to be of importance as a civil international airport.

(iii) *Jaffna Airport* (*Kankesanturai*).—In 1947 this aerodrome assumed importance as an airport used primarily as a staging post for Air Ceylon services to Madras and Trichinopoly. It is daily gaining in importance as an internal air link between Jaffna and Colombo. The aerodrome is situated on the northern-most tip of the Island and approximtely twelve miles north of Jaffna. It was built during the war but when hostilities were over and it was abandoned, only a utility type control building remained besides the runway which was in good condition. Considerable improvement work has been done after the Civil Aviation Department took over this aerodrome and plans have been laid for further extensions and alterations to the terminal building, &c.

The aerodromes at Puttalam, Minneriya and Vavuniya have been maintained by the Department as emergency landing grounds. These are however used by learner pilots for training in cross country flying.

FLYING TRAINING

Until recently flying training was imparted by a temporary organization known as the Board of Control (Flying Training). In November, 1950, an Air Acadamy was opened as a part of the activities of the Civil Aviation Department. In this way, ample opportunities are extended to young men of courage and adventure to find employment in the ' Air ' or on the ' Ground ' and thereby provide a nucleus of trained personnel who will be an asset to the country.

ACCIDENTS

Five aircraft accidents occurred during 1949 as a result of which four aircraft were written off. Details of these accidents are as follows :—

Date	*Type of aircraft*	*Cause of the accident*	*Injuries, &c.*
9. 4.49	DH-82 Tiger Moth-VP-CAY	The pilot anticipated that engine would cut dead after spluttering. He therefore endeavoured to make a forced landing in the paddy field. Due to his inexperience he overshot the paddy field and landed in the river.	Slight bruises to pilot. Aircraft written off.
21. 5.49	DH-82A Tiger Moth-VP-CBB	The actual cause of the accident remains obscure.	Pilot killed. Aircraft written off.
10. 6.49	Stinson Sentinel L5 VP-CAI	The accident was the result of the aircraft striking trees whilst flying low in conditions of poor visibility in an endeavour to land in very bad weather conditions.	Pilot and passenger killed. Aircraft written off.
9.11.49	DH-82 Tiger Moth-VP-CAW	Loss of flying speed caused by the pilot endeavouring to stretch the glide, as he had noticed some labourers working on the spot where he intended to touch down.	Nil. Repairable damage to undercarriage.
21.12.49	DC-3-VP-CAT	Error of judgment on the part of the pilot.	Non-fatal injuries to First Officer and pilot. Aircraft written off.

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AIR INSPECTORATE

This is an important branch of the department which keeps a close watch on the standards of maintenance, repair and overhaul of aircraft. Its duties are highly technical and consist of the survey and inspection of aircraft before issue or renewal of Certificates of Airworthiness ; approval and certification of manufacturers, also components and materials ; examination of pilots and persons employed in the inspection of aircraft and any other duties performed by licensed aircraft engineers ; the checking of technical records and log books to ensure accuracy and the use of approved methods of workmanship, also the supervision of aircraft engineers and personnel engaged in maintenance and overhaul of aircraft engines, instruments and accessories. Its organisation is under the direct supervision of the Chief Aeronautical Inspector who is a highly qualified technical officer.

REGISTRATION OF AIRCRAFT

At the end of 1949, there were seventeen aircraft on Ceylon's register of civil aircraft, particulars of which are given below :—

Date of registration or re-registration	*Nationality and marks*	*Type of Aircraft*	*Type of engine*	*Name and address of owner*
			Private aircraft	
29. 9.46	VP-CAO	Auster	Blackburn Cirrus Minor II	Mr. J. P. Obeysekera, Batadola Veyangoda
20. 9.46	VP-CAP	do.	do.	Mr. R. A. F. Farquharson, Agra estate, Lindula
14. 9.48	VP-CBC	do.	MK. II Lycoming	Mr. Emil Savundranayagam, 5, Elibank road, Colombo
			Training Aircraft	
22.11.49*	VP-CAH	Stinson Sentinel	Lycoming L5	Board of Control (Flying Training), Colombo Airport, Ratmalana
11. 6.46	VP-CAN	do.	do.	do.
7. 1.50	VP-CAU	do.	do.	do.
22.11.49*	VP-CAV	DH-82A	Gipsy Major	do.
30. 8.47	VP-CAW	do.	do.	do.
28. 1.48	VP-CAX	Fairchild Argus	Warner Super Scarab	Lanka Airlines, Ltd., 83, Chatham street, Colombo
10. 5.48	VP-CAY	DH-82A	Gipsy Major	Board of Control (Flying Training, Colombo Airport, Ratmalana)
12. 7.48	VP-CAL	Stinson Reliant	Lycoming	Director of Civil Aviation, Colombo
9. 7.49	VP-CBF	DH-82A	Gipsy Major	Board of Control (Flying Training), Colombo Airport, Ratmalana
			Air Ceylon Aircraft	
17. 2.47	VP-CAS	C. 47 DC-3	P. & W. Twin Wasp R 1830/92	Air Ceylon
24.11.47	VP-CAR	do.	do.	do.
20. 5.48	VP-CBA	do.	do.	do.
3. 2.49	VP-CBD	Skymaster	P. & W. Twin Wasp 2SD13G	do.
21. 1.49	VP-CBE	do.	do.	do.

* Date of re-registration

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The regulations in Ceylon require that every one of these aircraft should possess a Certificate of Airworthiness before they are allowed to fly and in accordance therewith the majority of the aircraft hold current Certificates of Airworthiness.

AIR CREW LICENCES

Twelve examinations were conducted in 1949 for candidates who presented themselves for the original issue of licences and for obtaining additional endorsements on licences previously issued.

Pilot's ' A ' Licences	4 examinations
Pilot's ' A. 1 ' Licences	3 examinations
Pilot's ' B ' Licences	1 examination
Endorsement on ' B ' Licences	4 examinations

Arrangements were also made with the Postmaster-General to hold an examination for the P. M. G's Certificate of Competency in Radio Telegraph (Class II). Five candidates sat for this examination—two were successful.

The following are particulars of licences issued, renewed or validated during the year 1949 :—

	Issues	*Renewals*	*Validations*
(*a*) Pilot's ' A ' Licences	11	18	2
(*b*) Pilot's ' A. 1 ' Licences	3	—	—
(*c*) Pilot's ' B ' Licences	44	16	41
(*d*) Navigator's Licences	7	2	1
(*e*) Wireless Operator's Licences	10	2	1
(*f*) Radio Telephone Operator's Licences	1	—	—

IV. Shipping

Colombo, occupying a central position in the Indian Ocean, has been from ancient times an important trade route junction in the Orient. Since the opening of the Suez Canal, this position, so geographically advantageous, has been further enhanced by its being drawn to the path of the shortest trade route linking East with West. Massive breakwaters were, therefore, built in Colombo at the end of the last century and the open roadstead converted into a great port affording excellent facilities for docking, bunkering, loading and unloading cargo, &c., to the vast tonnage of shipping that navigate on the trade routes of the East. The Port of Colombo to-day ranks as the seventh busiest port in the British Commonwealth of Nations.

In 1950 a start was made on a vast Port Development Scheme, costing well over ~~78~~ 87 million rupees, to modernise the port by providing 16–17 alongside berths with all the latest quay amenities for the quicker turn-round of shipping. This work has been undertaken by a combine of two well known French firms, Messrs. Schneider & Co. and Etablissements Billiard of Paris.

The Development Plan is designed to develop the Port in four stages. Stages I and II comprise the construction of alongside berths for cargo ships, as well as an Oil Dock for the discharge of tankers. This will give an additional eight to nine berths to the number existing at present. Stage III will increase the number of alongside berths by six. They will be used by passenger ships and ships taking in oil bunkers. Stage IV is the extension of the existing breakwater, so as to give an Outer Harbour of some 450 acres in extent. This will give six to eight additional exchange berths, as well as 16 alongside berths in the Inner or existing harbour.

For Stages I and II about 2,000 to 3,000 persons will be directly employed for about four years and an additional 1,500 to 2,000 will be indirectly employed in supplying material. Stages III and IV will give employment to approximately double the number of persons directly employed in the next four years and employment for half that number for another two years.

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The Port of Colombo has contributed largely to the commercial and economic prosperity of the Island and this fact is borne out by the phenomenal growth of the City of Colombo. Colombo is a great entrepot and the volume of business passing through its Customs houses is indicative of the state of the trade and general prosperity of the Island. The quantity of imports and exports, excluding coal, oil and transhipment cargo handled in the Port of Colombo in 1949 amounted to 2,193,373 tons (1,509,427 tons imports and 683,946 tons exports) as against 2,003,379 tons (1,302,074 tons imports and 701,305 tons exports) in 1948, thus showing an increase of as much as 189,994 tons.

HARBOUR

The harbour is enclosed on all sides, being bounded on the South and East by the land and on the North and West by massive breakwaters. The approach to the harbour is free from navigational dangers. Vessels drawing 36 feet can enter by the Western entrance and vessels drawing 30 feet can enter by the Northern entrance. The Western entrance channel is 750 feet wide, with a navigable depth of 38 feet L.W.O.S.T., and the Northern entrance channel 700 feet wide, with a navigable depth of 32 feet L.W.O.S.T. The sheltered area of the harbour amounts to 643 acres at low water, of which 163 acres have been dredged to 39 feet and over 107 acres to a depth varying between 36 feet and 39 feet, 161 acres to between 33 feet and 36 feet, 70 acres to between 33 feet and 30 feet, the remaining 142 acres have a depth of less than 30 feet.

Berthing accommodation, exclusive of the Graving Dock, Guide Pier, and Oil Jetties is available for 33 large vessels and 5 small vessels in the south-west monsoon and 42 large vessels and 5 small vessels in the north-east monsoon. Berths are available in either monsoon for vessels drawing up to 35 feet of water. Some of these large berths are for vessels of unlimited length.

A broad gauge railway runs through the Port premises and is connected with the main railway system of the Island, thus affording direct communication with all parts of the Island and Southern India. Sidings are provided at different places on the waterside. The length of the railway is 6 miles 19 chains, but the total mileage of railway used, including sidings, &c., is 16½ miles. The Port Railway is available not only for the coneyance of goods but also for the conveyance of passengers in special trains. The tonnage of goods handled by this railway during 1949 amounted to 594,107 tons.

Communication by road to the harbour is excellent.

LAKESIDE FACILITIES

The Lake to Harbour canal affords direct water transport between stores and mills situated on the lakeside and the harbour. It is navigable by fully loaded 40-ton harbour barges and to some extent relieves the congestion on roads. This canal, together with the lock basin and locks and the water area of the Beira Lake including the San Sebastian canal locks, is included in the limits of the port of Colombo.

The total number of lighters, launches, &c., which passed through the Lake to Harbour canal during the year 1949 was 10,725.

The development of the lakeside Barge Yards comprising the portion of land bordering the Beira Lake, has opened up for commercial purposes a valuable stretch of land on the water front of the lake, and has relieved the congestion in the harbour by affording facilities for the reception of a number of boats, which had hitherto been moored in the harbour. There is every indication that when trade improves there will be an increasing demand for land on the lakeside which by its propinquity to the harbour and easy access thereto both by land and water, affords a valuable venue for commercial purposes.

The Beira Lake is now an integral part of the port, and its progressive development will eventually lead to the establishment of a commercial zone in the vicinity of the port serving as a feeder to the business of the port and fostering its development.

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PASSENGER JETTY

The baggage office has good accommodation and examination halls. There is a staff always on duty day and night, and baggage landed with passengers is passed without delay. There is also provision for the storage of such baggage which a passenger wishes to leave in the premises. A small storage rent is payable for this. There are at the Passenger Jetty a Railway Booking Office, a Post Office and an Information Office of the Government Tourist Bureau for the convenience of passengers. The Passenger Traffic handled in the port during the year 1949 was 286,148, showing an increase as much as 89 per cent. over the 1948 figure and thus indicating that Ceylon is gaining ground in popularity as a centre of tourism.

LANDING AND SHIPPING

Landing and shipping of cargo is assisted by an efficient crane service. There is a total quayage of 15, 657 lineal feet. The following are the particulars of cranes available at the Port :—

Electric cranes	33
Steam cranes	34
Hand cranes	12
Floating cranes	5
Mobile cranes	8

The largest lift which can be made is 60 tons. The conveyance of cargo from the vessel to the wharf is done by lighters and is carried out by recognised stevedores and landing companies.

Cargo for shipment is brought down to the warehouse by cart, lorry, train or barge. The Port Commission Railway runs direct into the premises alongside three of the export warehouses. With regard to shipment, the same considerations apply as in the case of imports, some firms finding it more convenient to employ a clearing or shipping agency than to maintain their own staff. As in the case of import cargo, goods remain in the Government warehouse at the risk of the exporter. To suit the convenience of shippers, who do not carry out their own shipments, landing and shipping companies are prepared to take over cargo at the shipper's stores for removal to the warehouse in the company's own lorries. Export harbour dues are payable for all goods sent to the warehouses or wharf. If they lie there for more than three days, further dues are payable for each day, and in addition a similar sum by way of warehouse rent. Cargo is taken to the vessel by means of lighters. A good supply of labour is available.

WAREHOUSES

As goods are not always promptly cleared from the Port, it has become necessary to provide extensive warehouse accommodation for the increasing volume of goods demanding storage. The total warehouse accommodation available in the Port for dealing with import and export cargo is 8,264,323 cubic feet. representing a floor area of 628,663 sq. ft. Most of the warehouses are rail served and cranes are available where required. Most of the import warehouses are situated between the root of the south-west breakwater and the Lake to Harbour Canal. Other import warehouses and landing areas are also situated on either side of the canal and these are largely used for the landing of yard cargo, such as timber and metal. Export warehouses occupy the area west of the Lake to Harbour Canal up to the boundary wall of the Port Commission premises. Further north, five warehouses are available at Kochchikade, two of which have recently been built in the Coal Grounds opposite No. 11 Jetty. These warehouses too are provided with rail facilities.

There are several bonded warehouses within the Customs premises, and certain firms have their own bonded warehouses outside the premises. Goods may be bonded for any period up to two years, after which, they must either be removed or rebonded. All goods placed in bond are liable to the same rent and harbour dues as in the case of import cargo up to the time of bonding, after which no further dues are payable and bonded warehouses rent is recovered, the amount payable per week on bonded goods being the same as the charge per day on import cargo. No rent is payable to the Customs in the case of goods which lie in bonded warehouses belonging to private firms, though a charge is made for Customs supervision of deposits and removals.

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Several firms have their own warehouses and stores on the lakeside, which have direct access from the harbour through the canal and locks. Special facilities are given by the Customs for import cargo to be removed direct to these stores and, conversely, to the direct shipment of export cargo from these stores to the vessel. Rent and dues are, however, payable as in the case of goods landed in the warehouse, but the advantage of this direct traffic lies in obtaining two additional handlings which would be necessary had the goods been landed or shipped from a quay.

Two large warehouses situated in Ceylon Wharfage Co. Ltd's premises with a capacity of 281,102 cu. ft. representing 35,314 sq. ft. are exclusively used for accommodating transhipment cargo pending reshipment. Another warehouse with a capacity of 122,085 cu. ft. representing 8,139 sq. ft. is situated in the main Port premises for the use of the other landing companies handling transhipment cargo.

No import duty is payable upon transhipment cargo, and rent and harbour dues are payable at a reduced rate, amounting to 1/5th of the rate payable upon ordinary import cargo. In the case of direct transhipment from vessel to vessel, a small fee is payable for Customs supervision.

The total number of packages transhipped during 1949 was 517,782 showing an increase of as much as 162,559 packages over 1948. The tonnage for 1949 is 55,538 while that for 1948 is 38,520. There is a steady traffic with Tuticorin and other South Indian ports of transhipment of cargo to and from the United Kingdom, America, Australia, the Far East, &c.

Goods may be cleared either by the importer himself or by any landing company or recognised clearing agency. Firms, who import on a large scale find it convenient to keep their own staff of wharf clerks for the clearing of cargo and the passing of the necessary entries through the Customs. On the other hand, firms whose business is not so great as to justify the maintenance of such a staff, find it more convenient to clear their goods through a landing company or a clearing agency.

Warehouse rent and harbour dues are payable upon all goods landed at the Wharf, and three clear days are allowed for the removal of the goods, exclusive of Customs holidays, of which there are five in the year, and Sundays. On goods removed after the expiry of this period, further rent and dues are payable in respect of each day inclusive of Sundays and Customs holidays. Special facilities are offered by the Customs for clearing goods prior to the passing of the entry and the payment of the duty, rent and dues. The usual system is to place a cash deposit with the Customs against which goods are removed after any examination found necessary, the importer guaranteeing to pass the necessary papers within a reasonable period. Special facilities are also given for the clearing of perishable goods and of consignments, such as rice and sugar, which are landed in large quantities at a time.

COALING AND REFUELLING

There are about 29 acres of land on the foreshore of the harbour, half of which is leased to different companies for the stacking of coal. The coaling grounds between the Barge Repairing Basin and the Graving Dock have 17 coaling jetties. Large supplies of coal can be procured, and steamers are bunkered with good despatch at any hour of the day or night.

The quantities of coal imported and issued for bunkers during the years 1948 and 1949 were as follows :—

	1948	*1949*
	Tons	*Tons*
Imports	347,622	378,737
Bunkers	115,233	111,064

The port is equipped with an up-to-date oil fuel installation which provides for the rapid bunkering of ships using oil fuel. The main oil installation depot, about 128 acres in extent, is situated at Kolonnawa, about 4 miles from the harbour front, and various oil companies have erected their own storage and distribution tanks there. This depot is divided into a non-dangerous and dangerous oil section and is separated by a safety reservation. Four main pipelines are laid connecting the

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discharge berth in the harbour with the main oil depot, two for oil fuel, one for gas oil and the other for kerosene and petrol. In connection with the bunkering of vessels, a measuring tank depot, about 19 acres in extent, has been established at Bloemendhal, about ¾th of a mile from the harbour front and branch pipelines are provided from Kolonnawa to Bloemendhal and from Bloemendhal to the bunkering berths. The oil depot is also connected to the main railway system of the Island. Three reinforced concrete jetties, two for bunkering purposes and one for discharge of oil tankers, have been provided. The outer oil bunkering jetty is now out of commission due to work on the Port Development Scheme. The inner bunkering jetty is used by barges for bunkering. Vessels of 550 feet length and 33 feet draught can be berthed at the discharge jetty, where the latest facilities for discharging oil ships are provided, and vessels of deeper draught up to 33 feet are accommodated at the Graving Dock Guide Pier.

Liquid fuel imports during the last two years were as follows :—

	No. of Tankers Discharging	*Tons*
1948	49	444,858
1949	68	668,850

The quantities of liquid fuel issued for bunkers during the last two years were as follows :—

	No. of ships bunkered	*Tons*
1948	929	370,921
1949	1,299	563,992

The oil facilities receipts during the year 1949 was Rs. 2,311,027.92 while those for 1948 was Rs. 1,557,925.31.

BULK COCONUT OIL FACILITIES SCHEME

The Bulk Coconut Oil Facilities Scheme was completed and officially opened by the Minister for Communications and Works on February 4, 1946.

The installation consists of eight storage tanks, six of which have each a capacity of 445 tons and two each a capacity of 1,000 tons—the total storage capacity amounting to 4,600 tons. An 8 in. diameter pipeline delivers oil at the rate of 180–200 tons per hour to the Guide Pier where ships berth to load the bulk coconut oil. Deliveries to ships will shortly be speeded up to about 300 tons per hour when a boasting pump is installed.

The receipts collected from operating this scheme in 1949 amounted to Rs. 188,373.99.

FRESH WATER

The charges for fresh water supplied to steamers at their berths varies with the company that supplies the water. The charges for water supplied to vessels using the Graving Docks and for washing hulls is Rs. 6.75 and Rs. 1.50 per 1,000 tons respectively.

It is interesting to note that the tonnage of water taken by vessels calling at this Port is on the increase. In 1949, 655,664 tons of water were supplied as against 491,162 tons in 1948. This represents a 34 per cent. increase.

GRAVING DOCK

Length of floor, 694 feet 7½ inches ; breadth of entrance-cope level 85 feet ; depth over sill at low water 30 feet ; depth over sill at high water 32 feet. Docking can be carried out by day or night. The Inner Graving Dock, 330 feet long, entrance width 54 feet with a depth of 20 feet 'at sill' was completed in July, 1938. This is an extension of the Outer Graving Dock.

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Both docks are founded on solid rock, the outer being closed by a ship shaped Caisson, berthed alongside the South Jetty when dock is open, the inner dock being shut off from the main dock by a ' Box ' flap gate, hinged along the sill and operated by a hydraulic winch.

The main pumping station on the north side of the main dock entrance is equipped with main steam driven centrifugal pumps capable of emptying the dock in less than 4 hours and is further equipped with drainage pumps, salt water pumps, electric generator for both 110 and 220 D. C. current air compressor and hydraulic pumps for operating penstocks and capstan-compressed air, salt and fresh water mains and electric supplies being available in both docks.

PATENT SLIP

Length, 800 feet ; length of cradle, 200 feet ; breadth of cradle, 25 feet ; depth over keel blocks at lower end at low water, 21 feet 6 inches ; depth over keel blocks at upper end at low water, 11 feet ; inclination 1 in 20. Capable of slipping a vessel of 1,000 tons dead weight.

An ambulance launch is available for the conveyance of sick and injured persons between ship and shore. The Colombo Municipal Council provides an adequate and efficient motor ambulance service for the port.

Efficient protection is ensured at all hours in the Port by the Fire Float ' Phoenix ' as well as by land appliances.

On entering the harbour each ship is visited by the Port Health Officer or his Assistant, and no person is allowed to board the ship or leave the ship till pratique is granted. If there are cases of infectious disease on board, such as plague, cholera, small-pox, yellow fever, or typhus, the ship is held in strict quarantine until all necessary measures such as removal of the sick person, disinfection of the ship, vaccination, &c., as the case may be, are carried out. Thereafter, the ship is allowed to be worked in restricted quarantine, any persons having business on board being allowed on special permits.

PORT COMMISSION

The Colombo Port Commission which is an advisory board, is composed of the following :—The Chairman, Colombo Port Commission (Chairman) ; the Principal Collector of Customs ; The Director of Medical and Sanitary Services ; The General Manager of the Railway ; The Mayor of Colombo ; The Master Attendent, Colombo and Galle ; The Harbour Engineer ; and ten unofficial members appointed by the Minister for Transport and Works to represent Ceylonese interests.

For the future efficiency and well-being of the Port of Colombo and in order to continue on a permanent basis, the necessary powers given to the Colombo Port Commission by emergency legislation, an Act called the Port of Colombo (Administration) Act, was approved by the Government, in March, 1950. This Act, which vests in the Department considerable administrative powers, came into operation on January 1, 1951.

V. Postal and Telecommunication Services

The Island is well served with various post-office facilities. On December 31, 1949, 1,224 offices were open for business.

211 Post Offices up to July 31, 1950 (excluding the Central Telegraph Office which does only telegraph business) dealt with all classes of postal business, viz., mail and parcel work, registration and insurance of postal articles, money order, postal order, and Savings' Bank work, and telegraph and telephone business.

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594 Sub-Post Offices conducted all classes of postal business except insurance, and also provided telephone-telegraph facilities. 176 Sub-Post Offices also conducted such business except telephone-telegraph work.

423 Village Receiving Offices dealt with mail work only. At twenty-six railway stations, facilities for the despatch and receipt of inland postal telegrams were available. At eight of these stations, mail work was also conducted.

There are 10,693 miles of telegraph wire (including railway telegraph wires), of which 3,121 are laid underground, and 74,464 miles of telephone wire (including Trunk and Junction lines) for subscribers' circuits, of which 44,331 are laid underground (excluding private estate lines). There are also 126 miles of under-water cables.

AIR MAIL SERVICES

The Air Mail Service is available to all countries.

TABLE 15.5. RATES OF AIR MAIL LETTERS TO THE PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES

Country	*Rates*	
	Letter per ½ oz.	*Post Cards*
	Rs. c.	*Rs. c.*
United Kingdom	0 75	0 35
Australia	0 60	0 30
Canada	1 50	0 75
Egypt	0 60	0 30
France	0 75	0 35
Germany	1 00	0 50
India	0 30	0 15
Malaya	0 50	0 25
South Africa	0 75	0 35
U. S. S. R.	1 00	0 50
U. S. A.	1 50	0 75
Japan	0 75	0 35

An air letter service (special light weight communications written on air letter forms) is available to almost all the countries. The rate for air letters is 35 cents per item, except in the case of air letters sent to certain distant countries.

An inland Air Mail Service for first class correspondence (Letters and Postcards) is available between Colombo and the principal offices in the Jaffna Peninsula. The air fee is 5 cents per article in addition to the ordinary inland postage at the letter or post-card rate, as the case may be.

TABLE 15.6. SURFACE RATES OF POSTAGE

Ceylon and Maldive Islands	*Cents*
Letters, per ½ oz. or part thereof	5
Post Cards each	3
Printed matter, per 2 ounces or part of that weight up to a maximum of 2 pounds	4
Registered newspapers per copy not exceeding 8 oz.	3
Every additional 8 oz. or fraction of 8 oz.	3

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TABLE 15.6. SURFACE RATES OF POSTAGE (*continued*)

	Cents
India	
Letters, each ounce or part thereof	10
Post Cards each	5
Printed papers per 2 oz.	4
Registered newspapers—same as in Ceylon	3
Empire Countries	
Letters for the first ounce	15
Additional ounce or part thereof	10
Post Cards each	12
Printed papers, per copy 2 oz.	4
Non-Empire Countries	
Letters for the first ounce	25
Every additional ounce or part thereof	15
Post Cards each	15
Printed papers, per 2 oz. or part thereof	5

Postal articles can be transmitted by the inland post on the value-payable system provided that the amount payable is not less than 50 cents or more than Rs. 600. A posting and delivery fee of 5 to 15 cents, according to value, will be levied on every value-payable article at the time of posting. The Cash-on-Delivery Service is in operation between Ceylon and the United Kingdom, the Straits Settlements, Malaya and Burma. Details will be found in the ' Ceylon Post Office Guide '.

MONEY AND POSTAL ORDERS

Money Orders can be obtained at any of the Post Offices payable at any of the others and in most foreign countries. The maximum for Inland or Indian Money Orders is Rs. 600, for foreign orders to countries outside the sterling area £10. to countries within the sterling area the maximum is £40. The rate of commission for Inland Money Orders is 20 cents for each complete sum of Rs. 20 and 20 cents for the remainder, and for Burmese and Indian Money Orders 20 cents for each complete sum of Rs. 10 and 20 cents for the remainder. The rate for Foreign Money Orders expressed in sterling is 25 cents on sums not exceeding £1, and on sums exceeding £1, 25 cents on the first £ and 20 cents on each complete additional sum of £1 and 20 cents on the remainder. Money Orders payable in the United Kingdom or countries served through the United Kingdom are despatched by Air Mail.

Telegraph Money Orders can be despatched in the Inland Service. Telegraph Money Order Service is also available to Burma, India, United Kingdom and the Straits in the Malayan Union. A fixed fee of 10 cents irrespective of the amount of the order is charged for Inland, Burmese, and Indian Telegraph Money Orders. There are fixed minima for Telegraph Money Orders according to the currency in which the order is advised. Details will be found in the ' Ceylon Post Office Guide '. A permit from the Controller of Exchange is necessary.

There are ten denominations of Ceylon Postal Orders ranging form 50 cents to Rs. 10 (*i.e.*, 50 cents, Re. 1, Rs. 1.50, Rs. 2, Rs. 2.50, Rs. 3, Rs. 4, Rs. 5, Rs. 7.50 and Rs. 10). Commission is charged at the rate of 5 cents on each of the first six denominations and 10 cents on each of the remaining four denominations. Broken amounts up to 49 cents (but not including fractions of a cent) may be made by affixing unused Ceylon Postage Stamps not exceeding three in number in the space provided on the order.

Ceylon Savings Certificate (*Third Series*).—Savings Certificate with a face value of Rs. 5, Rs. 10, Rs. 100 and Rs. 1,000 are on sale at all Post Offices (including Sub-Post Offices), D. R. O's Offices, Kachcheries and Banks at a purchase price of Rs. 4.25, Rs. 8.50, Rs. 42.50, Rs. 85 and Rs. 850,

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respectively. On surrendering the certificate at the office of registration five years after the date of issue, the holder will be entitled to receive a sum equivalent to the face value of the certificate. The difference between the face value and the purchase price represents 3.3 per cent. compound interest.

Twelve-year Savings Certificates.—Twelve-year Savings Certificates of the denominations of Rs. 7.50, Rs. 15, Rs. 75, Rs. 150 and Rs. 1,500 are on sale at all Post Offices at a purchase price of Rs. 5, Rs. 10, Rs. 50, Rs. 100, Rs. 1,000 respectively. These certificates are not surrenderable within the first year and interest is not paid if the certificates are surrendered within the first three years. The difference between the purchase price and the face-value represents 3.5 per cent. compound interest. The certificates mature in twelve years.

TELECOMMUNICATION

Telecommunication Services in the Island are provided by the Department of Posts and Telecommunications, which holds the monopoly in respect of these services. In the early 1930's there were a large number of manually operated private telephone systems in estate areas operating under licence from the Postmaster-General and Director of Telecommunications, but the majority of these have since been taken over by the Post and Telegraph Department and replaced with automatic exchanges.

1935 is an important landmark in the history of Ceylon telecommunications. In this year after protracted consideration of proposals for handing over the system to private companies, the Government finally decided to retain its monopoly and go ahead with the modernisation of the then existing antiquated system. Since then development has been phenomenal. The worn out Colombo Exchange was replaced with an up-to-date automatic system, and 97 small automatic exchanges were installed in various parts of the country, before war broke out in September, 1939. This put a brake on development, but with the cessation of hostilities the work was re-started with renewed vigour, and the number of automatic exchanges had increased to 142 by September, 1950. The post-war demand for telephones throughout the world was not unexpected and unprecedented. Ceylon was no exception. Manufacturers, however, were unable to cope with the demand for equipment as a result of which the waiting list for telephones has been steadily mounting up. The problem has been further aggravated by the shortage of skilled personnel for installation work. Nevertheless it is hoped substantially to reduce the waiting list by the end of 1951.

TELEPHONE SYSTEM

Telephone communication exists between the principal towns and most of the rural districts. The towns are generally served by Government exchanges and the rural districts by Government or private licensed exchanges which are connected to the general trunk system by means of Government trunk lines. At the end of 1949 the number of telephone subscribers in Colombo was 5,280 and those in the provinces was 3,733, while the number of telephone call offices was 433.

There are 240 telephone exchanges of capacities varying from 5 lines to 10,000 lines. The largest is at Colombo and consists of a Central automatic exchange of 7,000 lines capacity and two Satellite exchanges each of 1,800 lines capacity. The next largest exchanges are in the towns of Kandy, Galle, Jaffna and Nuwara Eliya and have capacities varying between 200 and 400 lines. Kandy and Galle are both automatic, while Jaffna and Nuwara Eliya will be converted to automatic working in 1951. The majority of the remaining exchanges are automatic and of unit construction, with capacities of 10, 25 and 50 lines non-extensible ; and of 50 lines, extensible to 250 lines by the addition of extension units of 50 lines capacity. These exchanges are mainly unattended and are housed in prefabricated concrete kiosks. 104 such exchanges were in service in October, 1950. The balance are small magneto exchanges of under 50 lines capacity.

All automatic exchanges are of the step-by-step type employing rotary line finders and Strowger type two-motion selectors.

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Prior to 1945, the trunk network only joined up the various telephone exchanges in the Island, leaving even important places like Mannar, Hambantota and Batticaloa without telephone service to other parts of the Island. Since then the policy has been to extend the trunk network, hundreds of sub-post offices being opened up all over the country and in the remotest areas. By October, 1950, substantial progress had been made in this direction, telephone call office facilities having been made available at 225 sub-post offices, without telephone exchanges.

The majority of trunk circuits are run overhead on pole routes. Carrier circuits are in operation over some of the longer routes ; such as from Colombo to Galle, Diyatalawa, Nuwara Eliya, Trincomalee and Anuradhapura. There is a trunk cable between Colombo and Kalutara, a distance of 27 miles.

Telephone service is available to exchanges and call offices in the Dominions of India and Pakistan. Communication is also available *via* the Radio Telephone Service to U. K. and Eire, Australia, South Africa, France, Netherlands, Belgium, Luxenbourg, Switzerland, Denmark, Norway, Sweden Finland, Czechoslovakia and Germany (U. K., U. S., and French Zones), Gibraltar, Hungary, Spain, Italy and Vatican City.

The charge for the use of a public call box for three minutes or less is 10 cents.

TABLE 15.7. THE INLAND TRUNK CHARGES ACCORDING TO THE DISTANCE BETWEEN STATIONS MEASURED IN A STRAIGHT LINE

Distance	*Day Rate* Rs. c.	*Night Rate* Rs. c.
When such distance does not exceed 5 miles	0 20	0 20
When such distance—		
exceeds 5 miles but does not exceed 7½ miles	0 30	0 20
exceeds 7½ miles but does not exceed 10 miles	0 40	0 20
exceeds 10 miles but does not exceed 15 miles	0 50	0 25
exceeds 15 miles but does not exceed 20 miles	0 70	0 35
exceeds 20 miles but does not exceed 30 miles	0 80	0 40
exceeds 30 miles but does not exceed 40 miles	1 00	0 50
exceeds 40 miles but does not exceed 50 miles	1 20	0 60
exceeds 50 miles but does not exceed 70 miles	1 50	0 75
exceeds 70 miles but does not exceed 90 miles	1 80	0 90
exceeds 90 miles but does not exceed 110 miles	2 00	1 00
exceeds 110 miles but does not exceed 150 miles	2 50	1 25
exceeds 150 miles but does not exceed 190 miles	2 75	1 40
where such distance exceeds 190 miles	3 00	1 50

TELEGRAPHS

The telegraph network is as widespread as the telephone network, in that telegrams handed in at sub-post offices are transmitted by telephones. Busier offices are provided with separate telegraph circuits worked by morse or teleprinter. The general policy in regard to telegraph transmission is for telegrams handed in at the small offices to be transmitted by telephone to a telegraph centre from where the messages are disposed of by teleprinter circuits to other important centres. There are 20 teleprinter circuits between Colombo and important outstation offices.

The minimum charge for inland ordinary telegrams is 60 cents for the first ten words, including the address, and 5 cents for each additional word. These telegrams can be sent from any one telegraph office to any other in the Island.

The charge for urgent telegrams is Rs. 1.20 for the first ten words, including the address, and 10 cents for each additional word.

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Foreign and Colonial Telegrams.—The rates for telegrams to India are Rs. 5 (Express) and Rs. 2 (Ordinary) for the first 12 words or less, and 15 cents and 10 cents respectively for each additional word.

Telegrams to other Empire Countries can be sent *via* Imperial at the following flat rate per word :—

' Ordinary ' 70 cents, Code 57 cents (with a minimum charge for 5 words).

Telegrams to other foreign countries can be sent on a minimum charge per word varying from 65 cents to Rs. 2.55 for ordinary telegrams according to the distance of the place of destination, the route by which the telegram is to be sent, &c. A full list of places to which foreign and colonial telegrams can be sent, together with the rates charged is given in section 11 of the ' Ceylon Post Office Guide '.

Foreign Cheap Rate Telegrams.—Telegrams in plain language are accepted for transmission as ' Letter Telegrams ' to various places abroad at considerably reduced rates. A list of places to which this service is available, and the scale of charges will be found in section 11 of the ' Ceylon Post Office Guide '.

Radio Telegrams.—Radio-Telegrams are accepted at any Postal Telegraph Office in Ceylon for transmission to ships equipped with radio-telegraph apparatus through the Coast Stations in Colombo.

TABLE 15.8. RADIO-TELEGRAM CHARGES

	Per word cents
Private telegrams to His Britannic Majesty's Ships of War *via* Colombo Radio	40
*Private telegrams to His Majesty's Ships of the East Indies Fleet *via* Colombo Radio	25
All other Government or Private telegrams *via* Colombo Radio only	65
On Radio Telegrams sent to :—	
(*a*) Spanish and Swedish Ships the charge is	60
(*b*) Finnish ships the charge is	50

OVERSEAS COMMUNICATIONS

Ceylon is very well served by overseas communications. Telephone communications to India is *via* a submarine cable laid across the Palk Straits between Talaimannar and Rameswaram, and across to the Indian telephone network is obtained *via* two carrier telephone circuits between Colombo and Trichinopoly. Radio telephone service is also available between Colombo and the United Kingdom, most European countries, most of the countries in Africa and Australia. A subscriber in Ceylon can thereby communicate with a large proportion of the world's telephone subscribers.

Telegraph communication to India is *via* the Talaimannar-Rameswaram submarine cable. There are five voice frequency teleprinter circuits in use, giving direct communication between Colombo and Madras, and between Colombo and Madura. From these stations distribution to and collection of traffic from other places in India takes place. Submarine telegraph cables operated by Cable & Wireless, Ltd., and radiating from Colombo provide access to all other parts of the world. Radio telegraph circuit operated by Cable & Wireless, Ltd., are also available to carry some of the overseas telegraph traffic. Negotiations are in hand and will shortly be completed for the taking over by the Ceylon Government of the assets of Cable & Wireless, Ltd., following the lead set by the United Kingdom and other Dominion Governments in their areas. Direct radio telegraph facilities are available between Colombo and ships operating in the Indian Ocean area.

* The address of these telegrams should contain the name of the addressee, the word ' Warship ' the name of the ship and the words ' Eastindies Colombo Radio '. The words ' Warship ', ' Eastindies ' and ' Colomboradio ' are charged for as one word each. No departure from this form of address is permissible.

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BROADCASTING SERVICE

Wireless broadcasting was started in Ceylon in 1923, just one year after such a service was started in Great Britain. Passing through many vicissitudes of fortune in its early years, the processes of development gained momentum soon after the last war and the year 1948–49 marked the beginning of a new era in the history of broadcasting in Ceylon. Three events of major importance took place during the period. The first was the formal transfer of Radio Ceylon to the ownership of the Ceylon Government, acquiring at the same time the powerful transmitter originally used by Radio S. E. A. C. to radiate their programmes to all parts of the world.

The second event was the completion of the new premises of the present headquarters of the Radio Ceylon. The establishment of such a building was part of the recommendations made in 1941 by the special committee set up by Government to report on all aspects of the Broadcasting Service. The new building incorporates many of the modern devices used in studio construction, and many are of opinion that it is one of the finest in the East.

Thirdly, as a logical sequence to the rapid development of broadcasting in Ceylon, a separate department was established to carry out the function of the Broadcasting Service. Judging from the popularity of this service both in this country and abroad it may be said confidently that Radio Ceylon has a bright future.

VI. Public Works Department

The Public Works Department is mainly responsible for :—

(*a*) The maintenance of Public Works comprising roads, inland navigation, bridges, buildings, and other miscellaneous services, and
(*b*) Construction of new works.

The total expenditure of the department on various works inclusive of maintenance, &c., during the financial year 1948–49 amounted to Rs. 60,929,852.

MAINTENANCE OF ROADS

A total mileage of 6,535 miles of road was maintained during the year 1949 at a cost of Rs. 10,165,661. The aim of the road policy outlined after the end of the war to restore the conditions of roads to their pre-war standard has been attained in a considerable measure and at the same time a large amount of work has been done on the conversion of gravelled and natural surfaced roads to metalled and bitumen surfaced roads. Because of the large amount of leeway which had to be made up and because of limitation of funds the road making and road repairing methods used in these operations were those which have been familiar to P. W. D. engineers and their subordinates for many years and which have given satisfaction in the past. Though familiar methods have been employed a constant endeavour has been made to improve techniques in the application of these methods and this has met with a considerable degree of success. A start has also been made on the introduction of new methods of road making such as machine mixed asphaltic concrete. The results of the first application of these new methods on the 5th mile of the Colombo-Puttalam road and on the 6th mile of the Colombo-Galle road give some grounds for thinking that though more expensive in first cost they are likely to prove economical over a period of years. There is little doubt that the surface produced by these methods will give greater satisfaction to road users of all classes than the surfaces obtainable by the older methods.

MAINTENANCE OF INLAND NAVIGATION

A total length of 146 miles of inland waterways was maintained by the department at a cost of Rs. 242,142. The waterways are the canal system which runs from the Kaluganga near Kalutara through Colombo and Negombo to Puttalam and the navigable channels in the Jaffna Lagoon.

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MAINTENANCE OF BRIDGES

A sum of Rs. 265,022 was spent on the maintenance of iron and timber bridges of which those above 50 feet in length on the roads maintained by the department number 490. A large number of bridges have been rebuilt and strengthened and a large volume of work of this kind is in progress in all parts of the country, but it is clear that this will have to be intensified during the next few years in order to cope with the increasing weight of modern traffic units.

MAINTENANCE OF BUILDINGS

A sum of Rs. 1,955,907 was spent on the maintenance of buildings in 1948–49. The policy of restoring the buildings which had been neglected during the period of the war, was persued as far as possible as funds permitted.

MISCELLANEOUS

The total expenditure in 1948–49 under this heading was Rs. 2,151,665. Some of the principal items of expenditure were as follows :—

	Rs.
(*a*) Purchase of tools and plant	480,623
(*b*) Transport charges	64,173
(*c*) Maintenance of waterworks	98,719
(*d*) Flood damages	1,201,380
(*e*) Coast Protection Works	68,745
(*f*) Maintenance of Aerodromes	112,044

NEW WORKS

A very large programme of works was dealt with during 1949 embracing new buildings of all kinds, improvements to buildings, water schemes, road construction and new bridge construction and improvements in implementation of the Government Six Year Plan, which is scheduled for completion in 1953. The part of this plan which has been entrusted to the Public Works Department is predominantly building work, which includes among other schemes very extensive projects for the re-housing of the Police Force, hospital construction, school buildings and housing of Government Officers of all classes. Good progress has been made after the initial period of planning and designing.

Some of the major works on which the Department was engaged during the year are given below:—

BUILDINGS

New Broadcasting Station, Colombo.
Second Maternity Hospital, Colombo.
Children's Hospital, Colombo.
Medical Research Institute, Colombo.
Housing Schemes for Government Officers, Colombo.
Extensions to Royal College, Colombo.
Police Quarters at Maradana and Bambalapitiya (Stages 1 and 2).
Office Accommodation for the Home Ministry and Auditor-General.
Training School for Youthful Offenders, Watupitiwela.
Infirmary, Ragama.
New Hospital, Kalutara.
Reconditioning R.N.A.S. Buildings for training colleges, Katukurunda.
State-owned Distillery, Seeduwa.
Reconstruction of Mahara Prisons.
Extensions to Training College at Mirigama.
Additions and improvements to Training College Building at Katukurunda.
Training College at Maharagama.
Basic Training College.
Central School, Veyangoda.
Buildings for the Ceylon University—Halls of residence, quarters for Lecturers, &c.
Central School at Talangamuwa.
Police Quarters, Gampaha.
Police Training School at Katukurunda.
Senior and Junior Clerks' Quarters at Ratnapura.
Girls' Farm School, Kundasale.
School of Co-operation, Polgolla.

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BUILDINGS (*continued*)

Improvements to Training Colleges at Polgolla and Uyanwatta.
Cattle Farms at Bopatalawa and Ambawela.
Central School, Nugawela.
New Police Station, Vavuniya.
Improvements to Jaffna Hospital (Kitchen, &c.).
New Court-house, Chavakachcheri.
Housing Scheme for Government Clerks, Trincomalee.
Buildings at Mahailluppalama Farm.
Extensions to Kurunegala Hospital.
Men's Training College, Batticaloa.
Women's Training College, Batticaloa.
Central School, Vantharamoolai.
New Training College, Addalaichchenai.
Central School, Kuliyapitiya.
Central School, Ibbagamuwa.

ROADS AND BRIDGES

Road from Mawanella *via* Hemetagama to Gampola.
Road from Kandaloya to Nagastenna.
Road from Nildandahinna to Udapussellawa.
Manampitiya-Polonnaruwa road.
Uraniya-Alutnuwara road.
Mannar-Marichchukadi road.
Widening Colombo-Galle road.
Poonagala-Meenagala road.
Paranthan-Pooneryn road.
Improvements to Mullaitivu-Puliyankulam road.
Pannai Causeway.
Passara-Nakkala road.
New Bridge over Kelani ganga (approaches).
Causeway Cum-bridge, Munnakkarai.
Deraniyagala Causeway, Deraniyagala-Miyanawita road.
New Bridge at Atumale Ferry, Wandurambe-Atumale-Yakkatuwa road.
Reconstructing Palatumodera Bridge, 92/1, Galle-Hambantota road.
Causeway at Vadduwakallu-Karachi-Mullaitivu road.
Bridge 50/1, Batticaloa-Panama road.
Bridge 28/4, Karativu-Samanturai road.
Bridge 61/3, Colombo-Puttalam road.
Pepiliyana-ela and Gallella Bridges, Manampitiya.

WATER SUPPLY SCHEMES

Anuradhapura Water Supply—(Emergency Scheme) completed.
Hambantota Water Supply—completed to the stage of installing the purification plant.
Tangalle Water Supply Scheme—Head works and pipe laying in progress.
Puttalam Water Supply Scheme—(Ward 1)—Pipe laying nearly completed, and water tower 50 per cent. completed.
Kotagoda Water Supply Scheme—Completed.
Karaiyur Housing Water Supply Scheme—Practically completed.

In addition to the above new schemes, augmentation and improvements to work was carried out at Diyatalawa, Mannar, Batticaloa, Matale, Kandy and Avissawella.

Investigation for purposes of design were completed at Passara, Sangilipalam, Vankale, Madawela, Deniyaya and Erukkalampiddy.

GOVERNMENT FACTORY

All the eight shops in the Government Factory were working to capacity during the year in turning out a very wide range of articles for many departments of Government and in carrying out a great variety of repair work.

14——J. N. B 4767 (2/51)

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CHAPTER XVI

COMMERCE

I. General

CEYLON is predominantly an agricultural country and her economy primarily depends on the receipts from the export of tea, rubber and coconut products to pay for her essential imports of food and finished goods from abroad.

The table below shows the course of Ceylon's foreign trade in merchandise during 1938 and the years 1946 to 1949 :—

TABLE 16.1. CEYLON'S FOREIGN TRADE, 1946–1949, COMPARED WITH THAT OF 1938

(*Rupees thousand*)

Year	*Imports*[1]	*Domestic Exports*[2]	*Re-exports*[2]	*Total Exports*[3]	*Visible Balance of Trade*
1938	235,529	263,525	20,215	284,823	+ 49,294
1946	695,568	716,197	44,147	764,684	+ 69,116
1947	962,578	835,399	51,280	889,181	— 73,397
1948	994,008	937,723	71,134	1,011,176	+ 17,168
1949	1,028,843	1,004,830	54,778	1,063,240	+ 34,397

TRADE STATISTICS

The primary sources of Trade Statistics in Ceylon are the Annual Administration Report of the Principal Collector of Customs and the Ceylon Customs Returns. The earliest available Administration Report dated 1875 contains brief summaries and notes on annual imports, exports, shipping and Customs revenue. From 1881 the Administration Reports contain a separate section of Annual Customs Returns giving a detailed classification of imports and exports by countries and articles.

Trade figures have been maintained by the Customs Department even prior to 1881 since the Ceylon Blue Book then published by the Registrar-General, contained from the year 1865 a section on Trade Statistics giving a detailed classification of figures pertaining to imports, exports and shipping, as furnished by the Principal Collector of Customs.

From 1901 the Customs Department published statistics of imports and exports in the form of monthly Customs Returns.

The value of trade in 1949 showed further expansion over the previous record figures of 1948. The value of both imports and exports reached the unprecedented level of over a billion rupees in 1949. In relation to 1938 the value of imports in 1949 was up by about four and a half times and the value of exports was up by about four times. Re-exports, however, declined in 1949 to Rs. 55 million below the peak figure of Rs. 71 million in 1948.

In the first half of 1949 the value of imports exceeded that of total exports by as much as Rs. 72½ million, but this trend was reversed in the third and fourth quarters of the year with respective export balances of Rs. 45 million and Rs. 62 million. As a result, the visible balance of trade for the whole year stood favourably for Ceylon at Rs. 34.4 million and was over twice that of 1948, but it was yet nearly Rs. 15 million below that of 1938. It is significant to note that the value of

1 Includes value of postal articles.
2 Includes value of ships stores.
3 Includes value of ships' stores and postal articles.

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imports and exports increased by 9.4 per cent. and 14.8 per cent. respectively between the third and fourth quarters of 1949 as against a decline of 3.1 per cent. in imports and an increase of 9.3 per cent. in exports in the corresponding periods of 1948. The increase in the value of trade between the third and fourth quarters of 1949 represents to some extent the increase in the money value of trade following devaluation of the rupee in September, 1949.

VALUE OF TOTAL ANNUAL IMPORTS AND EXPORTS

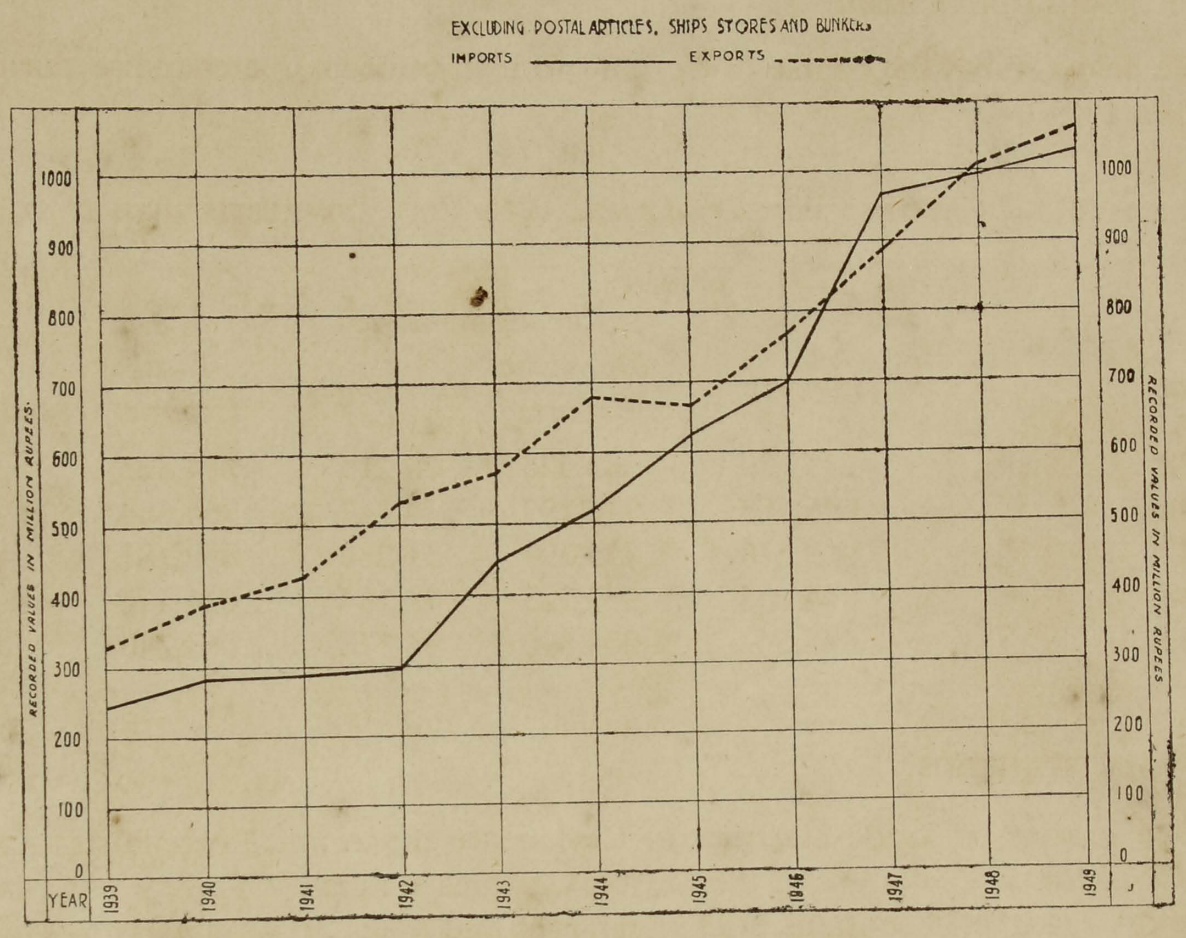

TABLE 16.2. VALUE OF TOTAL IMPORTS AND EXPORTS

Merchandise

	(*Million Rupees*)			(*Million Rupees*)	
	Imports	*Exports*		*Imports*	*Exports*
1938	236	285	1944	518	680
1939	242	328	1945	621	666
1940	283	387	1946	696	765
1941	287	424	1947	963	889
1942	296	531	1948	994	1,011
1943	447	570	1949	1,029	1,063

The index numbers set out in Table 16.3 measure the volume of trade and prices for the years 1938 to 1949 on the basis of 1934–38 figures.

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TABLE 16.3. VOLUME AND PRICE INDEX-NUMBERS OF TRADE (1934–1938=100)

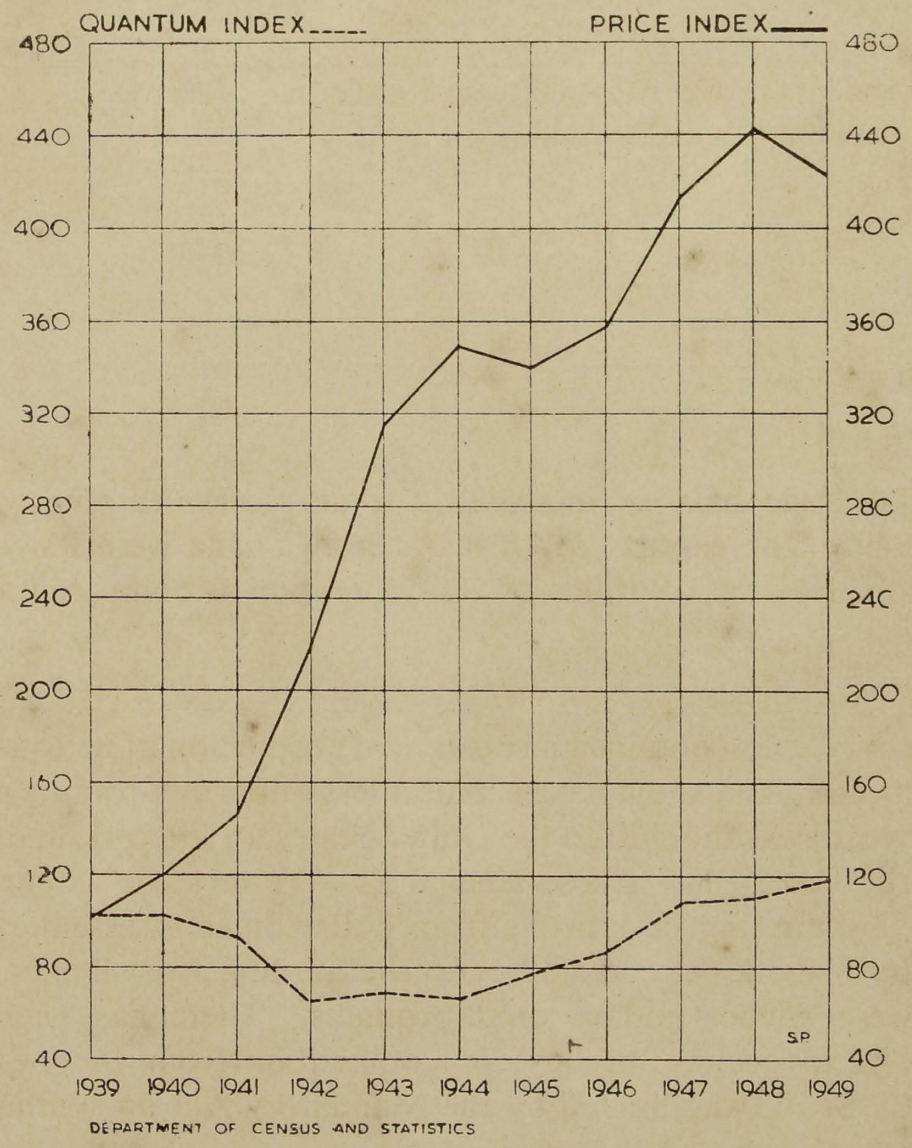
Year	Volume of Trade		Prices		Terms of Trade[1]
	Imports	*Exports*	*Imports*	*Exports*	
1938	98	103	102	99	103
1939	103	103	101	114	89
1940	103	113	120	120	100
1941	93	111	147	133	111
1942	65	127	220	156	141
1943	69	124	315	166	190
1944	67	124	349	190	184
1945	78	111	340	205	166
1946	87	127	358	226	158
1947	108	118	413	300	138
1948	110	129	443	305	145
1949	119	128	423	324	131

1 Import price index / Export price index

INDICES OF IMPORTS

QUANTUM AND PRICE

BASE: 1934-38 = 100



There has been a continuous increase in the volume of imports from 1946, the increase between 1948 and 1949 amounted to 8.2 per cent. Export volume, however, declined in 1949 by 0.8 per cent. below the peak figure of 1948. Import prices too have risen relatively more than export prices but between 1948 and 1949 the former declined by 4.5 per cent. whereas the latter increased by 6.2 per cent. The ' terms of trade ' was favourable in 1949 as compared with 1948.

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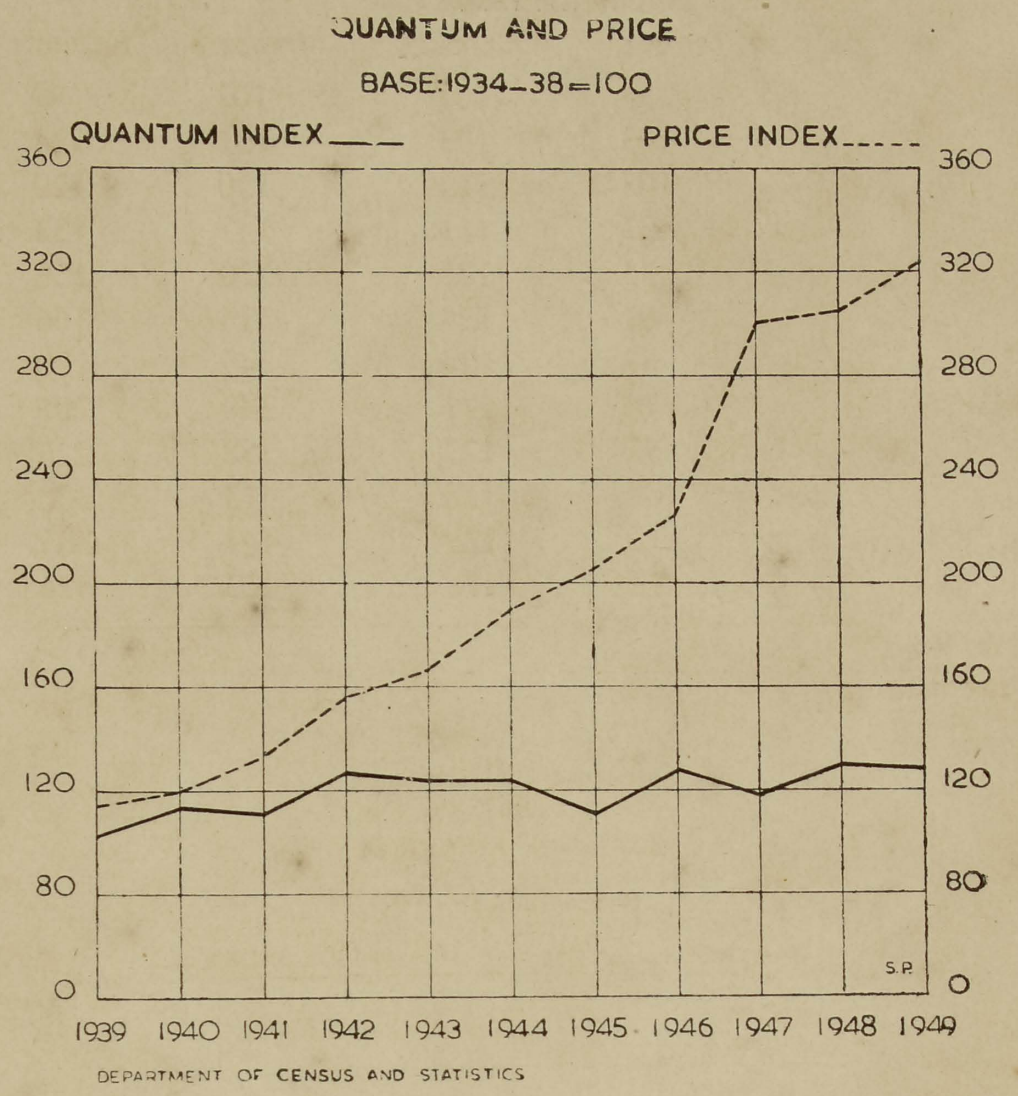
INDICES OF EXPORTS



Although the overall trade balance increased, the net dollar earnings of the countrty from foreign trade fell in 1949. The exports to U. S. A. and Canada were Rs. 158.5 million, and the imports Rs. 83.5 million, leaving a surplus of Rs. 75 million as compared with Rs. 121.6 million in 1948.

As in the pre-war years, Ceylon obtained a substantial proportion of its total imports from U. K., India, Burma and Australia. But India has become a less important trading partner. The notable feature in the post-war years was the shift to the United States for imports, and the fall in the proportion of exports taken by the U. K. These tendencies were to some extent reversed in 1949 as compared with 1948. By limiting its imports from dollar areas to essential commodities, it was possible for this country to be a net contributor to the Sterling Area Dollar Pool. The principal exports to U. S. A. were rubber and coconut products. There has been a tendency for tea exports to the U. S. A. to decline, because of competition from Indonesia. The quantity of rubber absorbed by U. S. A. was limited by the Mandatory Act on synthetic rubber prescribed by law.

The Balance of Payments for the year 1949 resulted in a net deficit of Rs. 30 million in current transactions compared to the small surplus of Rs. 24 million in 1948. The deficit was the outcome mainly of two factors—the high cost and large volume of imports and the lower prices paid for exports.

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EXPORT OF TEA RUBBER AND COPRA

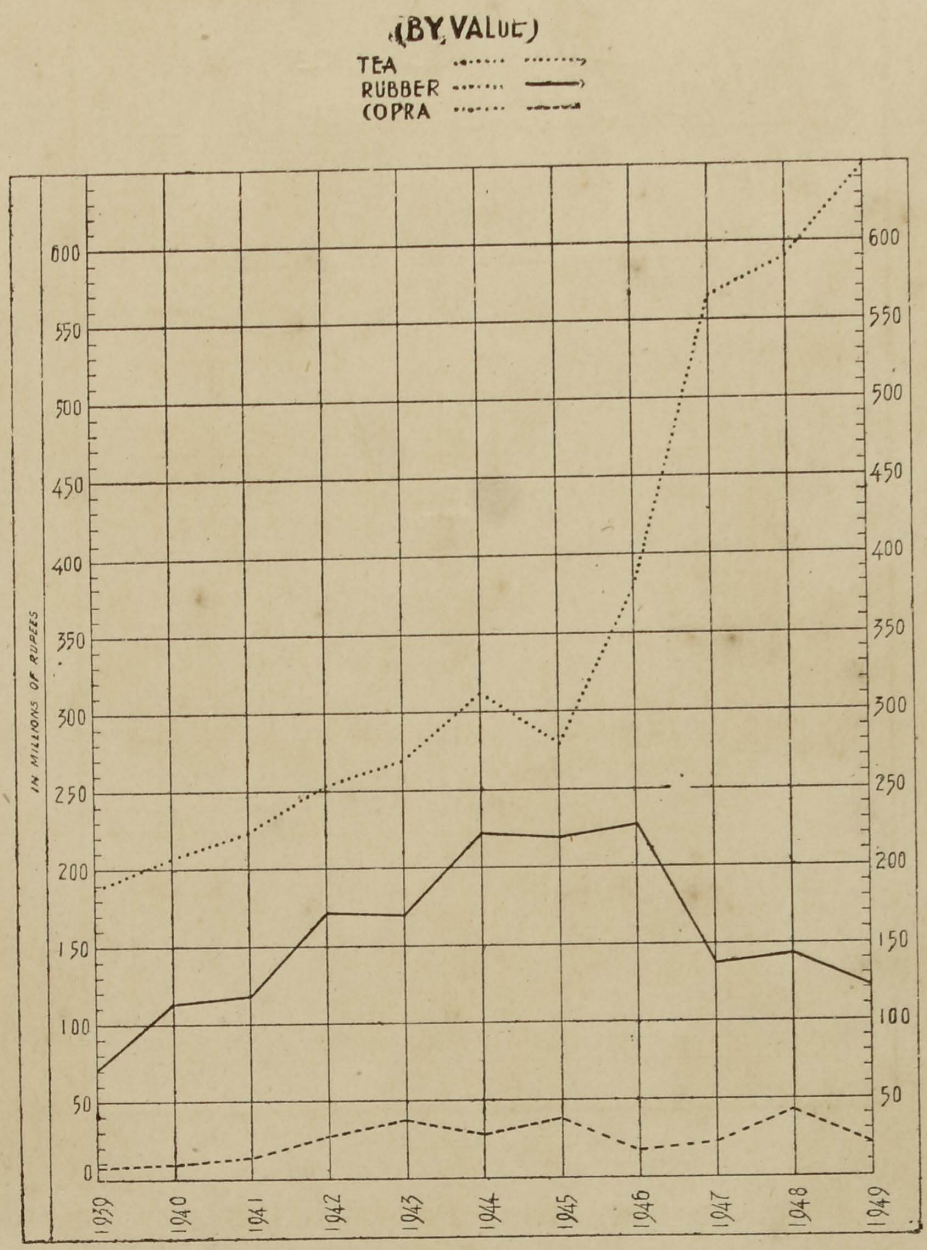

TABLE 16.4. EXPORTS OF TEA, RUBBER AND COPRA

	(*By Volume*)		
	Tea	*Rubber*	*Copra*
	(*In thousands of cwt.*)		
1939	2,036	1,205	1,061
1940	2,200	1,763	1,566
1941	2,112	1,807	2,138
1942	2,372	2,253	2,297
1943	2,356	1,963	2,953
1944	2,466	2,002	2,020
1945	2,071	1,918	2,274
1946	2,605	2,036	776
1947	2,565	1,627	595
1948	2,643	1,851	1,089
1949	2,657	1,759	431

As already stated Ceylon's prosperity depends mainly on the satisfactory prices obtaining for her export commodities in the world markets. Table 16.5 shows the relative changes in the absolute prices of the principal export commodities in Colombo in 1949 in relation to those in 1938 1947, and 1948.

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EXPORTS OF TEA, RUBBER AND COPRA

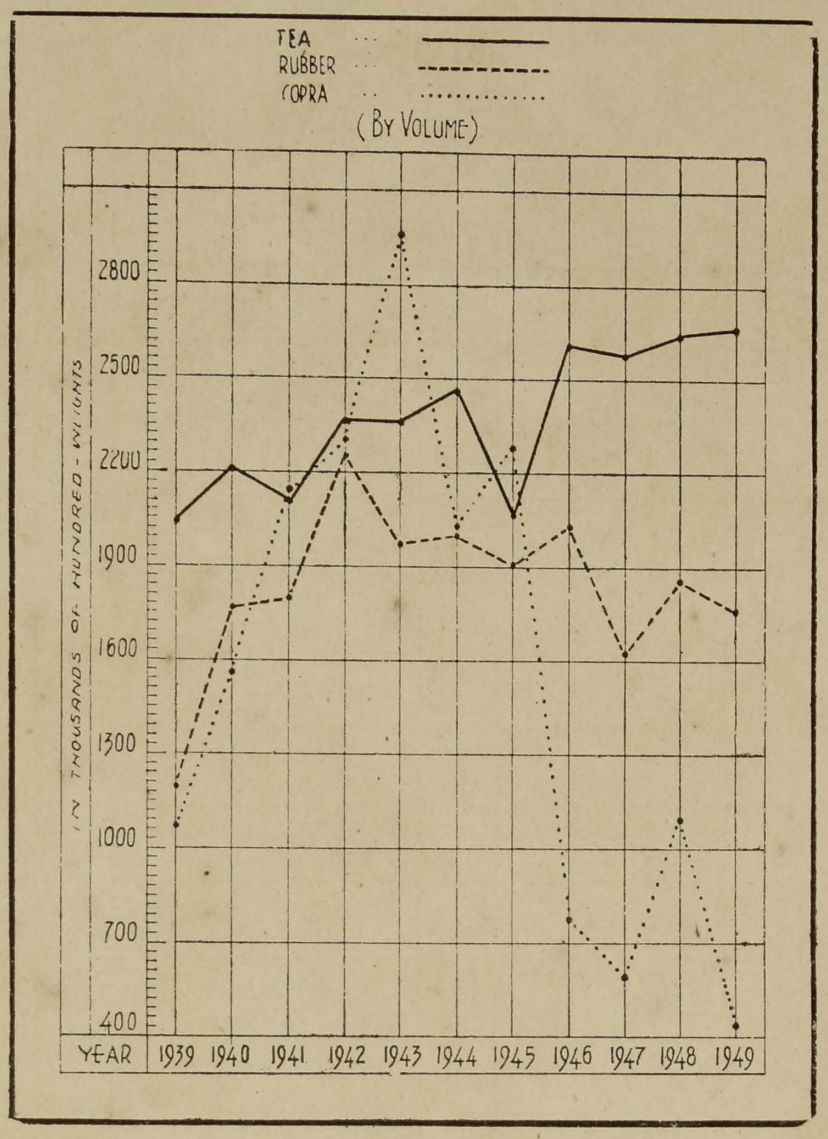

TABLE 16.5. RELATIVE CHANGES IN PRICES OF PRINCIPAL EXPORT COMMODITIES IN 1949 IN RELATION TO 1938, 1947 AND 1948 PRICES

Commodity	*Price changes between*		
	1949 *and* 1938 *Per cent.*	1949 *and* 1947 *Per cent.*	1949 *and* 1948 *Per cent.*
Tea	176	21	25
Rubber	63	— 11	— 10
Copra	441	23	11
Coconut oil	455	3	—
Desiccated Coconut	750	— 36	— 33
Fresh coconuts	438	16	5
Coir bristle fibre	403	28	6
Coir mattress fibre	289	37	30
Coir yarn	235	— 22	— 5
Cinnamon quills	183	— 32	— 16
Cinnamon chips	7	— 80	— 57
Plumbago	251	30	8
Cacao	473	22	— 26
Citronella oil	296	— 9	45

Commodity prices increased appreciably during the postwar years. Prices of tea, fresh coconuts, coir fibre and plumbago were also higher in 1949 than they were in the two preceding years. On the other hand, average prices of rubber, desiccated coconut, coir yarn and cinnamon in 1949 were less than those of either of the two preceding years.

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THE ANNUAL AVERAGE MARKET PRICES OF

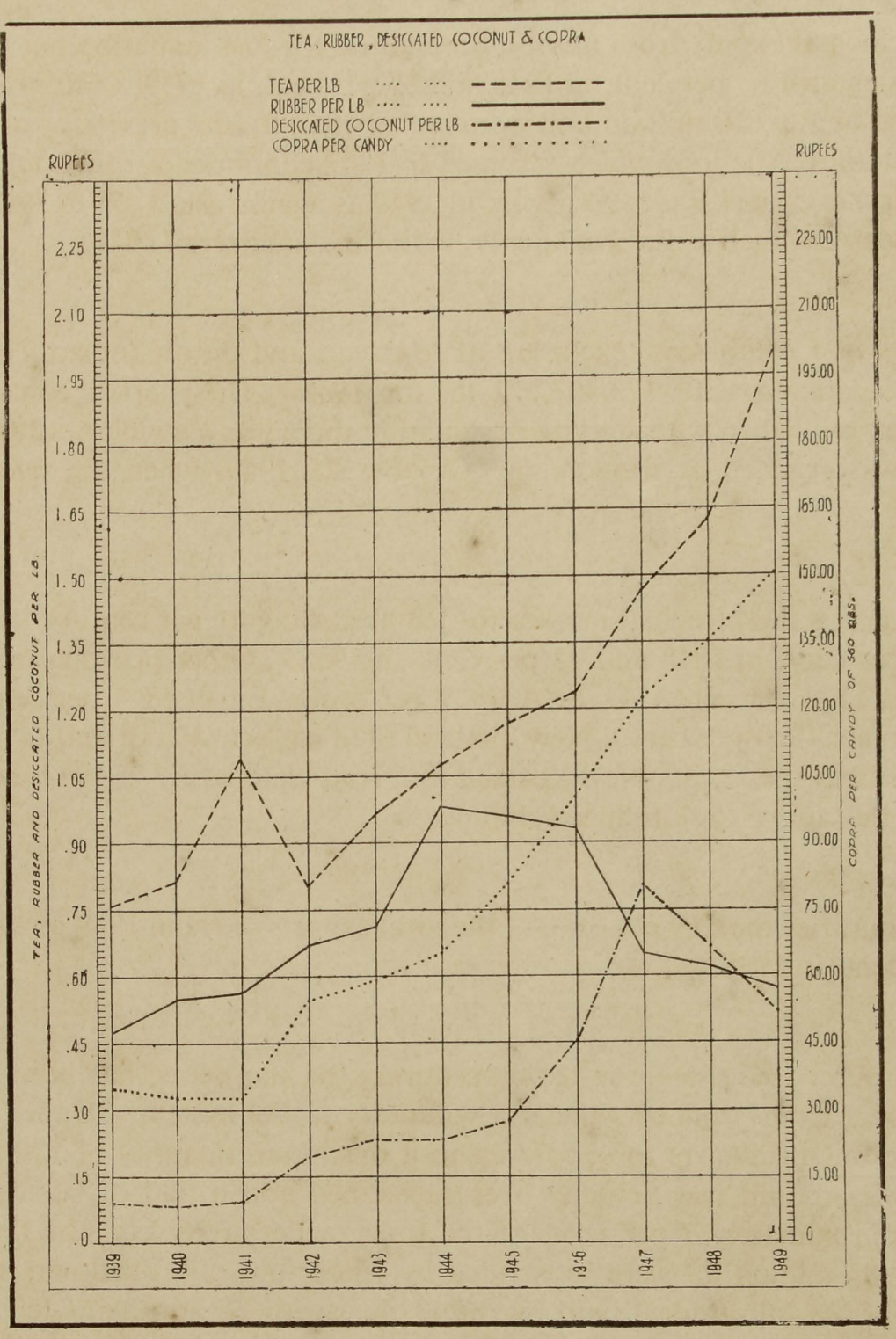

TABLE 16.6. ANNUAL AVERAGE MARKET PRICES OF TEA, RUBBER, DESICCATED COCONUT AND COPRA

	Tea (lb.)	*Rubber (lb.)*	*D. C. (lb.)*	*Copra (candy)*[1]
	Rs. c.	*Rs. c.*	*Rs. c.*	*Rs. c.*
1939	0 76	0 47	0 09	34 58
1940	0 81	0 55	0 08	32 79
1941	1 09	0 56	0 09	32 38
1942	0 80[2]	0 67	0 19	54 16
1943	0 96[2]	0 71	0 23	59 00
1944	1 07[2]	0 98	0 23	65 00
1945	1 16[2]	0 96	0 27	80 44
1946	1 23[2]	0 93	0 45	100 00
1947	1 60	0 65	0 80	122 00
1948	1 55	0 62	0 66	134 90
1949	1 93	0 57	0 51	150 00

1 5 cwt.
2 Tea Commissioner's contract price.

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II. Tea

Tea remained the principal export from Ceylon accounting for just under 65 per cent. of the value of exports in 1949 as against 63 per cent. in 1948 and 65 per cent. in 1938. Exports in 1949 totalled 298 million lb. valued at Rs. 650 million and were higher than in any previous year both in volume and value. The Colombo Auctions which resumed in 1947 continued throughout the year and the price of tea (all grades) averaged Rs. 1.96 per lb. in 1949 as against Rs. 1.55 in 1948 and 70 cents in 1938. The price rose to as much as Rs. 2.47 per lb. in the final quarter of 1949.

The total offerings of Ceylon teas (exclusive of Malayan and South Indian Teas) amounted to 153,001,388 lb. as compared with 173,407,272 lb. for 1948. The market continued to be firm gradually until September, when with sterling devaluation there was a sudden and marked increase in prices. The peak was reached at the sale on October 21, 1949, when the overall average was Rs. 3.03.

The U. K. as usual was the principal market for tea absorbing 41 per cent. of the total exports in 1949 as against 33 per cent. in 1948 and 71 per cent. in 1938. Other principal markets for tea in 1949 were Australia (11.4 per cent.), U. S. A. (8.9 per cent.), Egypt (8.4 per cent.), South Africa (5.2 per cent.), Canada (5.0 per cent.), New Zealand (4.8 per cent.) and Iraq (4.1 per cent.). Of these countries exports to the U. K., New Zealand and Iraq were larger in 1949 than in 1948 whilst the remaining countries above took reduced shipments.

Commonwealth countries took 69 per cent. of the total exports of tea in 1949 as against 64 per cent. in 1948 and 89 per cent. in 1938.

The U. K. which purchased the entire tea crop during the war years, has been permitted to buy her requirements direct from producers under a voluntary tender system. Under this arrangement Ceylon agreed to permit producers to supply up to a maximum quantity of 130 million lb. to the U. K. in 1949. This amount was actually over subscribed and it had to be scaled down to 130 million lb. or by approximately 7 per cent. of the total tenders received. In 1948, under similar arrangements only 98½ million lb. were subscribed by tender out of a maximum of 130 million lb. The contract price of tea (all grades) paid by the U. K. averaged approximately Rs. 1.60 per lb. in 1949 as against Rs. 1.63 in 1948 and Rs. 1.46 in 1947.

The contract price was on the same basis as for 1948, *i.e*, the price paid was the basic price fixed for each estate for the period 1936 to 1938 plus 14½ *d* per lb. for increased cost of production, &c., plus the factor for wages adjustment which was a variable rate dependent on the ' special allowance ' payable to a male worker in the tea growing and manufacturing trade. This ' special allowance ' is declared at the end of each month for the next succeeding month and any variation calling for an adjustment in the price applied to teas the advices of which are received by the Tea Commissioner on and after the first day of the month following in which the change in the ' special allowance ' becomes applicable.

Production and Export

The following table shows the monthly production and exports to U. K. of teas supplied on contract to the U. K. Ministry of Food for the period April 1, 1949, to March 31, 1950.

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TABLE 16.7. MONTHLY PRODUCTION OF TEA COMPARED WITH EXPORTS TO U. K.

	Month	*Production lb.*	*Exports to U. K. lb.*
1949	April	28,288,421	6,383,225
	May	37,163,089	13,578,853
	June	25,741,573	18,708,168
	July	19,428,931	13,576,603
	August	23,950,015	12,941,508
	September	25,202,736	9,791,607
	October	21,585,579	10,270,856
	November	29,137,270	8,776,228
	December	24,409,288	10,299,940
1950	January	16,288,099	9,362,986
	February	24,591,500	2,247,982
	March	35,903,132	1,516,713

DUTY AND CESSES

The total sum payable on the export of tea is Rs. 39.45 per 100 lb. made up as follows :—

Revenue Rs. 38.00 ; Medical Aid 15 cents ; Tea Research Institute Cess 25 cents ; Propaganda Re. 1.00 ; Restriction Scheme Cess 05 cents.

TEA PROPAGANDA CAMPAIGN, 1949

In Ceylon propaganda activities were continued as in the previous year with the object of maintaining and increasing the consumption of wholesome tea throughout the Island. Mobile caravans were used as the chief medium of propaganda, during the year ; besides covering the various centres within the respective areas ear-marked for the normal activities of these caravans, one caravan was stationed for the first time between Tissamaharama and Kataragama to contact the thousands of pilgrims *en route* to the Kataragama Temple. Another was sent to Inginiyagala in the Gal-oya Basin, where Ceylon's greatest irrigation project had commenced. In addition to caravan units, the Board supplied dry tea and sugar free to over 1,200 schools in different parts of the Island.

As in previous years, an inspector visited the Railway Refreshment Cars and Rooms and those in charge were expected to maintain a satisfactory standard of tea service to the travelling public. Resthouses in close proximity to railway stations were also visited with a similar purpose. Leaflets in the national languages as well as in English were distributed freely at various functions and festivals and attractive posters obtained from the U. K. Tea Bureau were framed and issued for display at popular resthouses.

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III. Rubber

EXPORTS

The following table indicates the monthly exports of rubber during 1949 :—

TABLE 16.8. MONTHLY EXPORTS OF RUBBER, 1949

Month	*Export (tons)*	*Month*	*Export (tons)*
January	9,990	July	5,012
February	9,719	August	6,415
March	8,601	September	7,722
April	5,252	October	7,175
May	5,326	November	8,112
June	6,058	December	8,564
		1949	87,946*

* Includes 827 tons of latex

87,946 tons of all grades of rubber were exported from Ceylon during 1949, the largest importers being the U. S. A. with 38,730 tons, the United Kingdom coming next with 16,380 tons, followed by Germany with 7,973 tons.

827 tons of liquid latex were exported to the U. K., U. S. A., Germany, Denmark, Canada, India, Australia, Belgium, Sweden and France.

PRICES

During the period January to August, 1949, the price of RSS. 1 fluctuated between 46 cents and 56 cents per lb. From March there was a gradual decline in the price until it reached 46 cents in June. It was so uneconomic that many estates went out of production while a few were selected to manufacture sole crepe and latex crepe owing to the attractive prices these grades commanded. In September the price rose to 67 cents partly owing to increased demand and partly to devaluation. This saved the rubber industry to a large extent and the estates that went out of production were able to renew their activities. From September to December, 1949, the prices fluctuated between 64 and 75¼ cents per lb. for R.S.S. 1. The price of scrap fluctuated between 25 and 44 cents during the year. The following table shows the monthly average price in 1949 per pound R.S.S. 1.

TABLE 16.9. MONTHLY AVERAGE PRICE PER POUND R.S.S. 1, 1949

Month	*Cents*	*Month*	*Cents*	*Month*	*Cents*
January	52.79	May	51.60	September	59.23
February	53.00	June	46.32	October	66.15
March	53.63	July	48.04	November	68.44
April	53.00	August	50.06	December	71.93

This averaged 56.18 cents per lb.

The market in the first half of the year was rather dull and featureless but improved in the second half of the year mainly owing to stockpiling purchases by the U. S. A. and Russian purchases of Malayan rubber. The value of rubber to the total value of Ceylon's exports too had declined steadily from 37 per cent. in 1945 to 15 per cent. in 1948 and 12 per cent. in 1949. The 1949 ratio was the lowest on record.

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The U. S. A. remained the principal market for Ceylon rubber but her takings dropped by 22½ million lb. below those of 1948 and U. S. A.'s share to total exports dropped to 44.3 per cent. from 53.8 per cent. in 1948. Other outstanding markets for Ceylon rubber in 1949 were the U. K. (19 per cent.), Germany (9 per cent.), Italy (6 per cent.), Canada (5 per cent.), France and Holland (2.6 per cent.) each, and Belgium (2 per cent.). Of these countries shipments to Italy, Germany, Holland, Canada and Belgium in 1949 were higher than those of 1948.

Commonwealth countries took 26 per cent. of the total exports of rubber in 1949 as against 27.1 per cent. in 1948 and 27.5 per cent. in 1938.

IV. Coconut Products

Coconut products entering the export trade (besides the nut itself) are—

(i) Products of the edible portion of the nut, viz., copra, coconut oil and poonac (coconut cake) ; desiccated coconut.
(ii) Fibre products : Mattress and bristle fibre ; coir yarn, rope and mats ; other coir manufactures.
(iii) Shell Products : Coconut shell charcoal.

The keen demand for coconut products continued throughout the year and exports of the principal coconut products except copra, surpassed all previous records in 1949. The combined value of coconut products exported aggregated over Rs. 190 1/3 million in 1949 as against Rs. 167 1/3 million in 1948 and Rs. 34¼ million in 1938. Coconut products accounted for 19 per cent. of the total value of Ceylon's exports in 1949 as against 18 per cent. in 1948 and 13 per cent. in 1938.

Copra

Exports of copra declined sharply to 431,000 cwt. in 1949 from over a million cwt. in 1948 and the decline in value amounted to over Rs. 20 million. The price of No. 1 quality copra stood at Rs. 150 per candy of 5 cwt. in 1949 as against Rs. 134.90 in 1948. Exports went mainly to Holland, India and Pakistan 17 per cent. each, France 12 per cent. and Switzerland 10 per cent. and Denmark and Italy 5 per cent. each. The sharp decline in exports in 1949 as compared with 1948 was reflected in practically all the markets except France and Holland which disclosed respective increases of 44,000 cwt. and 20,000 cwt.

COCONUT OIL

Exports of coconut oil, on the other hand, totalled 1.8 million cwt. valued at Rs. 121 million and were the largest on record. The average price at Rs. 1,021.75 per ton, was, however, slightly below the peak level obtaining in 1948.

Shipments in 1949 went mainly to the U. K. (45 per cent.), Germany (18 per cent.), Pakistan (13 per cent.), Holland (8 per cent.), Italy (6 per cent.) and India (4 per cent.). Exports of coconut oil to U. K., however, declined below 1948 by as much as 247,000 cwt. Smaller declines were 51,000 cwt. to India and 47,000 cwt. to the U. S. A. A notable feature was the steady increase in exports especially to Germany and Holland. Pakistan, France, Iraq and Italy also disclosed noticeable increases over those of 1948.

Part of the exportable surplus of copra and coconut oil went to the U. K. and Pakistan under an agreement which terminated in December, 1949. The balance was exported under a licensing system designed to secure the highest possible price from exports, and accordingly, the market prices obtaining for copra and coconut oil in 1949 were considerably higher than those under the agreement. The Colombo market price of coconut oil averaged about Rs. 1,500 per ton and of copra about Rs. 222 per candy of 5 cwt. as against the contract prices of Rs. 1,021.75 per ton and Rs. 150 per candy respectively.

DESICCATED COCONUT

Exports in 1949 at 312,000 cwt. were the highest since 1939 while the value realized at Rs. 25½ million was the highest on record. The price of desiccated coconut, however, declined steadily to 52 cents per lb. in 1949 from 66 cents in 1948 and 80 cents in 1947. Australia, Holland, and U. K.

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were the principal markets taking 24 per cent., 17 per cent. and 13 per cent. respectively of the total exports in 1949. Most outstanding feature was the increase of 49,000 cwt. in exports to Holland during 1949. Exports to U. S. A., however, declined sharply by 39,000 cwt. below those of 1948, presumably due to competition from the Philippines. Smaller declines below 1948 also occurred in respect of Eire 11,000 cwt., Egypt and S. Africa about 10,000 cwt. each and Belgium 4,000 cwt.

FRESH COCONUTS

Exports in 1949 at nearly 13 million nuts were the highest since 1945 and the value of the exports at Rs. 4.6 million was the highest on record owing to enhanced prices ruling in the year. The f.o.b. value of exports averaged Rs. 360 per 1,000 nuts as against Rs. 210 in 1948 and Rs. 190 in 1947.

U. K. took over 8½ million nuts or over two-thirds of the total exports in 1949 while India and Egypt accounted for about a fifth of the total exports. The 1949 exports to U. K. were the highest recorded since 1925 and this increase resulted from the removal of import restrictions in the U. K. on imports of fresh coconuts last year. Italy also took 614,000 nuts more in 1949 than in 1948. Reduced shipments below 1948, however, went to Egypt 3½ million nuts, India 1.6 million nuts and there were also smaller declines in exports to Belgium and Pakistan.

COIR FIBRE

The husk of the coconut is converted into fibre in mills, 1,000 coconut husks being estimated to produce 1¼ cwt. of mattress fibre and ½ cwt. of bristle fibre. It is also converted into a finer fibre by hand after retting (*i.e.*, soaking) from 3 to 6 months in saline water, this industry being mainly in the south and west of the Island. This fibre is issued for making mats, brushes and ropes. A new method of decortication of coir fibre has recently been tried out by some local fibre millers using a special plant. The fibre produced, which owing to its dry treatment appears to have slightly higher manurial value than the ordinary coir dust.

Fibre is usally exported in three forms, namely coir yarn, mattress fibre and bristle fibre. The local coir-yarn industry which had a serious set-back during the closing years of the war, is now steadily recovering although production still only amounts to about half that of the pre-war years. Germany is once again one of the chief importers. U. K. is now the largest buyer of mattress fibre taking about 50 per cent. of the total exports. The exports are now almost double what they were during the closing years of the war.

U. K., South Africa and Japan are the largest importers of Ceylon bristle fibre. Here the exports are again double what they were during the war years.

Exports in 1949 of coir mattress fibre at 645,000 cwt. and bristle fibre at 188,000 cwt. were the highest since before the war and the values realized Rs. 8½ million for mattress fibre and Rs. 4.6 million for bristle fibre were the highest on record. The price of mattress fibre No. 1 advanced to Rs. 9.89 per cwt. in 1949 from Rs. 6.87 in 1948 and likewise that of bristle fibre (3 tie) rose to Rs. 15.40 per cwt. in 1949 from Rs. 14.49 in 1948.

U. K., Australia, and South Africa were the principal markets for coir mattress fibre accounting for as much as 55 per cent., 18 per cent. and 12 per cent. respectively of the total exports in 1949. Increased exports went to these three destinations in 1949 as compared with 1948 and by far the largest was the increase of 93,000 cwt. to the U. K. Exports to U. S. A. on the contrary recorded a decline of over 17,000 cwt. below those of 1948.

The increase in exports of coir bristle fibre was mainly due to the resumption of increased takings by Japan and Germany which accounted for as much as 29 per cent. and 22 per cent. respectively of the total exports in 1949. In absolute figures exports to Japan and Germany in 1949 were 36,000 cwt. and 18,000 cwt. respectively more than those of 1948. Increased exports also went in 1949 to France 12,000 cwt., Holland 11,000 cwt. and Australia 3,000 cwt. Declines occurred mainly in exports to Belgium 6,000 cwt., Sweden and U. K. about 3,000 cwt. each.

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COIR YARN

Exports in 1949 at 57,000 cwt. were the largest since 1939 while their value at Rs. 2.1 million was the highest since 1927. The price of coir yarn however, dropped further to Rs. 30.11 per cwt. from Rs. 31.49 in 1948 and as much as Rs. 38.65 in 1947. A notable feature was the resumption of exports to Germany, taking nearly 27 per cent. of the total exports in 1949. South Africa took 16 per cent., U. K. 13½ per cent. and Norway 11 per cent. but the 1949 shipments to these three destinations were less than those of 1948. Germany and Denmark were mainly responsible for the increased exports in 1949 as compared with 1948.

COCONUT SHELL CHARCOAL

The commercia lcrude charcoal is made by burning coconut shells (a by-product of the copra-curing and desiccated industries) in pits with exclusion of air. The yield of crude charcoal is about 30 per cent. of the weight of the shells. Considerable quantities of coconut shell charcoal were exported from Ceylon between 1936 and 1940. There has been comparatively little exports since 1940, although there is a moderate local consumption as fuel for laundries and bakeries, and for gas engines.

Coconut shell charcoal after ' aviation ' is one of the best absorbents for gases and is also used industrially for bleaching. Good charcoal, prepared carefully, is uniformly black in colour and free from dirt due to husk. The broken edges show a shiny black surface and a characteristic sharp fracture ' conchoidal fracture '. When dropped on a stone floor, good pieces give a clear ring. Usually 20,000 whole shells make a ton of charcoal. The heaviest and thickest shells giving the best.

The by-products of the charcoal industry have been partly developed. Here the shells are fired in retorts heated from outside and the vapours given off are condensed. This way 40 per cent. of the vapours are recovered as crude 10 to 12 per cent. acetic acid and 5 pet cent. of tar. From the latter a certain amount of carbolic acid and creosote are prepared by fractional distillation.

V. Other Exports

PLUMBAGO

Shipments in 1949 at 245,000 cwt. were 35,000 cwt. or Rs. 353,000 below those of 1948. The f.o.b. value of shipments, however, averaged Rs. 26.07 per cwt. in 1949 and was the highest on record. Exports in 1949 went principally to the U. K. (47 per cent.), U. S. A. (20 per cent.), Japan (19 per cent.) and Australia (5 per cent.). Exports to U. S. A. in 1949 declined below 1948 by as much as 56,000 cwt. and to Russia by 18,000 cwt. and Australia by 7,000 cwt. These declines were offset to some extent by increased shipments to the U. K. 21,000 cwt., Japan 20,000 cwt. and Canada nearly 3,000 cwt.

ARECANUTS

Exports in 1949 totalled 75,000 cwt. valued at Rs. 3.3 million and were about a fourth below those of 1949 ; the value declined amounted to Rs. 1.1 million following a further decline in prices to Rs. 43.80 per cwt. f.o.b. from Rs. 43.94 in 1948 and Rs. 49.29 in 1947. The decline in exports was reflected in a reduction of 34,000 cwt. in shipments to India as a result of import restrictions on this commodity in India during the second half of the year.

CINNAMON

Exports of cinnamon quills at 58,000 cwt. valued at Rs. 4.8 million and cinnamon chips (10,000 cwt.) valued at Rs. 160,000 in 1949 were substantially higher than those of 1948. The increased exports were mainly the result of clearing accumulated stocks during the year at reduced prices. The price of cinnamon quills (Fine 0000) declined below 1948 by 13.3 per cent. to Rs. 1.17 per lb. and that of chips by as much as 57 per cent. to Rs. 37.57 per candy of 5 cwt.

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Mexico remained the principal market for cinnamon quills accounting for 44 per cent. of the total exports in 1949, and her takings were nearly double those of 1948. The increase in exports in 1949 was reflected also in increased shipments to Germany 5,000 cwt., Holland 1,500 cwt., U. K. 1,300 cwt., and Central America 1,200 cwt.

The increase in exports of cinnamon chips was more or less distributed among the principal markets for this commodity. The most outstanding being 2,300 cwt. to Denmark and 1,100 cwt. to Australia which absorbed 24 per cent. and 27 per cent. respectively of the total exports in 1949.

CACAO

Exports at 47,100 cwt. valued at Rs. 5 million were the largest since 1943, but the value of the 1949 exports declined by Rs. 1.9 million below the peak level of 1948 owing to a sharp drop of over 26 per cent. in price. The price of Estate No. 1 Cacao dropped to Rs. 110.29 per cwt. in 1949 from as much as Rs. 149.40 in 1948.

Philippine Islands as the principal buyer took nearly 5,000 cwt. more in 1949 than in 1948 or 21 per cent. of the total exports. Other principal markets were Holland. (16 per cent.), Japan (11 per cent.), Italy (8 per cent.), Turkey and Java each (7 per cent.) and U. S. A. (6 per cent.). Of these countries Holland, Japan and U. S. A. took increased quantities in 1949 as compared with 1948.

CITRONELLA OIL

Exports at 1.7 million lb. were the highest since 1942 and the value realized, Rs. 4.6 million, was the highest on record. The price of citronella oil recovered to Rs. 2.89 per lb. from Rs. 1.99 in 1948 but was yet appreciably below the peak levels of 1946 and 1947. Exports in 1949 went principally to the U. K. (34 per cent.), U. S. A. (13 per cent.), Holland (8 per cent.), South Africa and Germany each (7 per cent.) and Belgium (6 per cent.). Declines below 1948, however, occurred in shipments to India 176,000 lb., Egypt 101,000 lb., and U. S. A. 90,000 lb.

CINNAMON OIL

Exports of cinnmon leaf oil in 1949 at 1.5 million oz. were slightly below those of 1948 but the value realized declined by over Rs. 247,000 following a sharp drop in price from 42 cents per oz. f. o. b. in 1948 to 26 cents in 1949.

Exports of cinnamon bark oil, on the other hand, improved to 16,000 oz. valued at Rs. 91,000, but here again, there was a fall in price from Rs. 6.04 per oz. f.o.b. in 1948 to Rs. 5.84 in 1949.

Shipments of bark oil went mainly to U. K. (29 per cent.), Italy (27 per cent.), U. S. A. (24 per per cent.) and Holland (13 per cent.). Leaf oil was taken mainly by U. K. (44 per cent.), Malaya (27 per cent.), India (18 per cent.), and U. S. A. (6 per cent.), but exports to the last three destinations were less than those of 1948.

KAPOK

Exports declined to 13,000 cwt. valued at Rs. 1.7 million from the peak figure of 20,000 cwt. valued at over Rs 2.2 million in 1948. The f.o.b. value of the 1949 shipments, however, stood at Rs. 124.64 per cwt. as against Rs. 112.21 in 1948. The principal buyers in 1949 were the U. K. (45 per cent.), Holland (19 per cent.) and South Africa (14 per cent.).

VI. Imports

In 1949, the value of imports of food, drink and tobacco accounted for a little over half the value of Ceylon's total imports, manufactures constituted 39 per cent. and raw materials 11 per cent. as compared with 53 per cent., 36 per cent. and 11 per cent. respectively in 1948.

Rice accounted for 22 per cent. of the total value of everything imported to Ceylon in 1949 as compared with over 25 per cent. in 1948 and 23 per cent. in 1938. Imports of rice in 1949 totalled nearly 8 million cwt. valued at Rs. 226 million and were slightly below those of 1948. Similarly

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imports of wheat flour in 1949 amounting to 3.1 million cwt. were slightly below those of 1948, but imports were yet nearly ten times those of 1938. Value of wheat flour imported accounted for over 8 per cent. of the total imports into Ceylon in 1949 as against nearly 10 per cent. in 1948 and 0.8 per cent. in 1938. Imports of other grains especially pulses were higher in 1949 than in 1948.

Among the other principal foodstuffs, imports of milk foods, preserved milk, sugar, dried fish, maldive fish, chillies and onions in 1949 were higher than those of 1948. Declines in 1949 as compared with 1948 occurred mainly in the imports of butter, potatoes and other currystuffs. The accompanying table shows the imports of these principal foodstuffs to Ceylon during 1938 and the years 1946 to 1949.

Imports of beer, brandy, gin and whisky and cigarettes were higher in 1949 than in 1948. Between the same periods, imports of wines, beedies and other tobacco recorded declines. Imports of these alcoholic drinks and narcotics were, however, considerably less than those of pre-war 1938.

The increase in the value of manufactures imported in 1949 as compared with 1948 was reflected in practically all the principal items coming under this class with the exception of motor vehicles, pneumatic rubber tyres and tea chests.

Cotton yarns and manufactures accounted for 12 per cent. of the value of total imports into Ceylon in 1949, iron and steel manufactures 3.3 per cent., machinery 3.3 per cent., earthenware, glass and abrasives 2.5 per cent., oils, fats and resins 2.1 per cent. and vehicles. 1.4 per cent.

TABLE 16.10. IMPORTS OF SOME PRINCIPAL FOODSTUFFS

		Quantity					*Value (Rs.)*				
Commodity	*Unit*	*1938*	*1946*	*1947*	*1948*	*1949*	*1938*	*1946*	*1947*	*1948*	*1949*
					(*Thousands*)						
Barley	Cwt.	9	14	21	6	8	155	563	783	276	231
Beans	,,	43	18	108	3	—	284	447	2,325	89	—
Grams	,,	172	84	343	274	261	947	2,358	10,456	8,406	7,838
Pulses	,,	390	178	396	319	372	2,332	4,314	13,092	11,561	10,806
Rice	,,	10,449	5,074	5,163	8,188	7,936	54,340	64,787	134,987	236,115	226,356
Wheat	,,	60	330	5	1	9	301	3,315	47	13	195
Wheat flour	,,	314	4,251	5,862	3,373	3,139	1,884	46,721	146,164	97,212	82,460
Biscuits	lb.	498	1,310	1,207	747	402	409	1,053	2,249	1,618	898
Butter	,,	856	855	2,426	1,810	1,723	615	799	2,187	2,490	2,874
Coffee	,,	2,973	3,846	2,604	3,292	2,099	543	5,151	2,627	2,701	1,956
Confectionery	,,	895	471	1,493	757	477	552	458	1,851	1,205	825
Preserved milk	,,	4,472	11,329	13,352	9,489	11,338	1,172	5,495	7,438	6,939	7,702
Milk foods	,,	742	4,147	5,528	5,316	6,595	1,394	8,612	11,604	9,674	12,577
Dried chillies	Cwt.	178	163	234	220	232	2,646	12,205	14,354	14,920	29,097
Other currystuffs	,,	178	331	162	235	226	1,392	11,988	5,098	8,001	8,075
Fish, dried or salted	,,	401	496	503	492	544	9,948	17,373	18,768	22,434	30,314
Maldive fish	,,	87	62	64	63	92	4,009	3,609	3,812	3,836	5,835
Onions	,,	66	563	626	635	690	2,053	6,192	8,208	9,635	9,810
Potatoes	,,	270	164	420	461	450	1,276	3,523	11,589	8,195	5,483
Sugar	,,	1,489	1,834	1,957	2,086	2,518	8,312	37,920	41,194	47,362	52,726

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Table 16.11. Classification of External Trade

	VALUE AND COMPOSITION									
	IMPORTS				EXPORTS					
	Total[1]	*Food, drink and tobacco*	*Raw materials*	*Manufactures*	*Total Domestic*[2]	*Food, drink and tobacco*	*Raw materials*	*Manufactures*	*Re-exports*[3]	*Visible Balance of Exports and Imports*[4]
	Rs. Th.	*Rs. Th.*	*Rs. Th.*	*Rs. Th.*	*Rs. Th.*	*Rs. Th.*	*Rs. Th.*	*Rs. Th.*	*Rs. Th.*	*Rs. Th.*
1938	235,529	107,455	33,665	94,172	263,535	185,953	76,060	1,515	20,215	+ 48,643
1939	242,370	114,037	37,048	89,640	304,162	203,784	98,901	1,473	22,726	+ 85,620
1940	282,595	124,728	52,804	102,181	358,958	216,892	141,060	1,006	25,979	+ 105,729
1941	287,147	152,231	41,424	89,602	393,841	233,699	159,156	984	28,000	+ 151,862
1942	295,804	179,538	39,315	72,458	507,230	271,883	234,436	910	22,531	+ 234,588
1943	446,796	229,680	62,667	145,905	537,640	292,043	244,861	737	30,351	+ 122,928
1944	517,654	253,377	70,845	181,010	616,586	331,185	284,217	1,184	60,414	+ 162,269
1945	621,264	312,985	92,770	199,313	590,928	300,677	289,571	679	70,665	+ 44,474
1946	695,568	384,918	70,684	222,821	716,197	415,508	297,978	2,599	44,147	+ 69,059
1947	962,578	498,866	79,277	348,998	835,399	606,153	224,810	4,268	51,280	— 80,946
1948	994,008	519,244	106,608	358,720	937,723	639,610	294,338	3,689	71,134	+ 16,775
1949	1,028,843	518,273	110,011	399,869	1,004,830	703,943	296,004	4,873	54,778	+ 32,852

1 Includes value of postal articles, and animals not for food.
2 Includes value of postal articles and ships stores (Ceylon produce) and animals not for food.
3 Includes value of ships' stores (other than Ceylon produce), Coal and Oil bunkered.
4 Includes balance of trade in bullion & specie.

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TABLE 16.11. CLASSIFICATION OF EXTERNAL TRADE (*continued*)

	DIRECTION OF TRADE											
	Total[1]	*BRITISH COUNTRIES*			*U. S. A.*			*OTHERS*		
		Percentage of			*Percentage of*			*Percentage of*		
		Imports[2]	*Domestic Exports*[3]	*Visible Balance*	*Imports*[2]	*Domestic Exports*[3]	*Visible Balance*	*Imports*[2]	*Domestic Exports*[3]	*Visible Balance*
	Rs. Th.	%	%	*Rs. Th.*	%	%	*Rs. Th.*	%	%	*Rs. Th.*
1938	235,529	67.18	72.10	+ 31,274	2.17	12.64	+ 28,112	30.65	15.26	— 32,093
1939	242,370	65.01	68.08	+ 48,192	2.46	19.86	+ 54,320	31.94	12.06	— 40,779
1940	282,595	67.87	65.61	+ 41,297	3.34	25.92	+ 83,435	27.84	8.47	— 43,327
1941	287,147	78.50	59.14	+ 3,573	3.26	32.16	+ 116,931	16.93	8.70	— 14,413
1942	295,804	84.32	62.95	+ 65,288	2.41	21.48	+ 101,610	11.83	15.57	+ 43,753
1943	446,796	75.29	67.61	+ 18,512	5.50	16.60	+ 64,413	17.37	15.79	+ 7,093
1944	517,654	71.48	47.03	— 92,402	5.28	35.10	+ 188,478	20.93	17.87	+ 1,600
1945	621,264	60.46	50.93	— 91,635	12.16	36.37	+ 138,670	24.79	12.70	— 80,189
1946	695,568	65.76	79.94	+ 97,462	6.06	12.31	+ 45,707	25.77	7.75	— 123,933
1947	962,578	64.92	67.38	— 89,697	11.68	14.32	+ 6,633	19.82	18.29	— 38,177
1948	994,008	54.37	58.92	+ 2,974	7.59	17.65	+ 89,846	37.01	23.43	— 148,849
1949	1,028,843	53.91	59.79	+ 44,376	7.09	11.44	+ 41,600	38.95	28.77	— 112,474

1 Includes value of postal articles.
2 Excludes value of postal articles.
3 Excludes value of postal articles and ships' stores.

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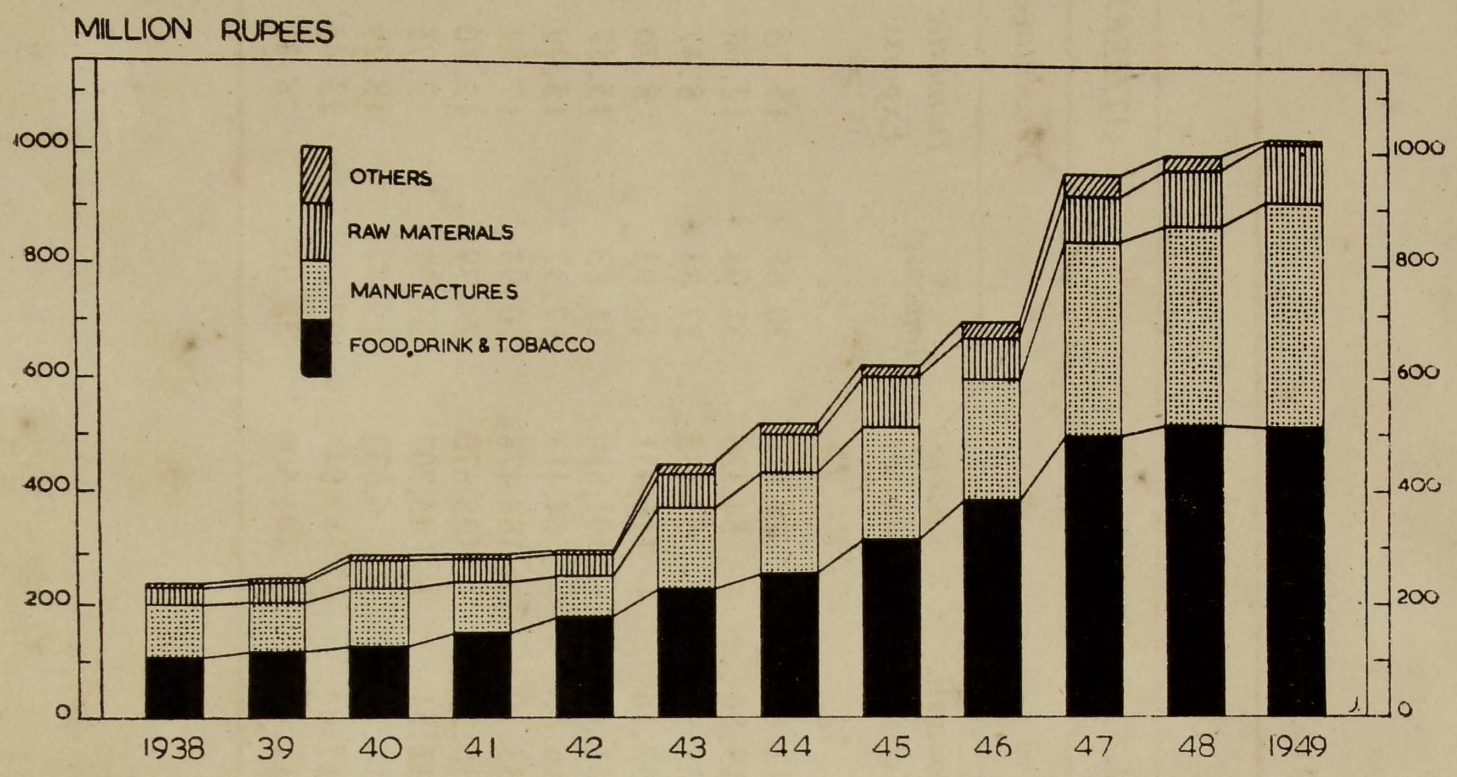
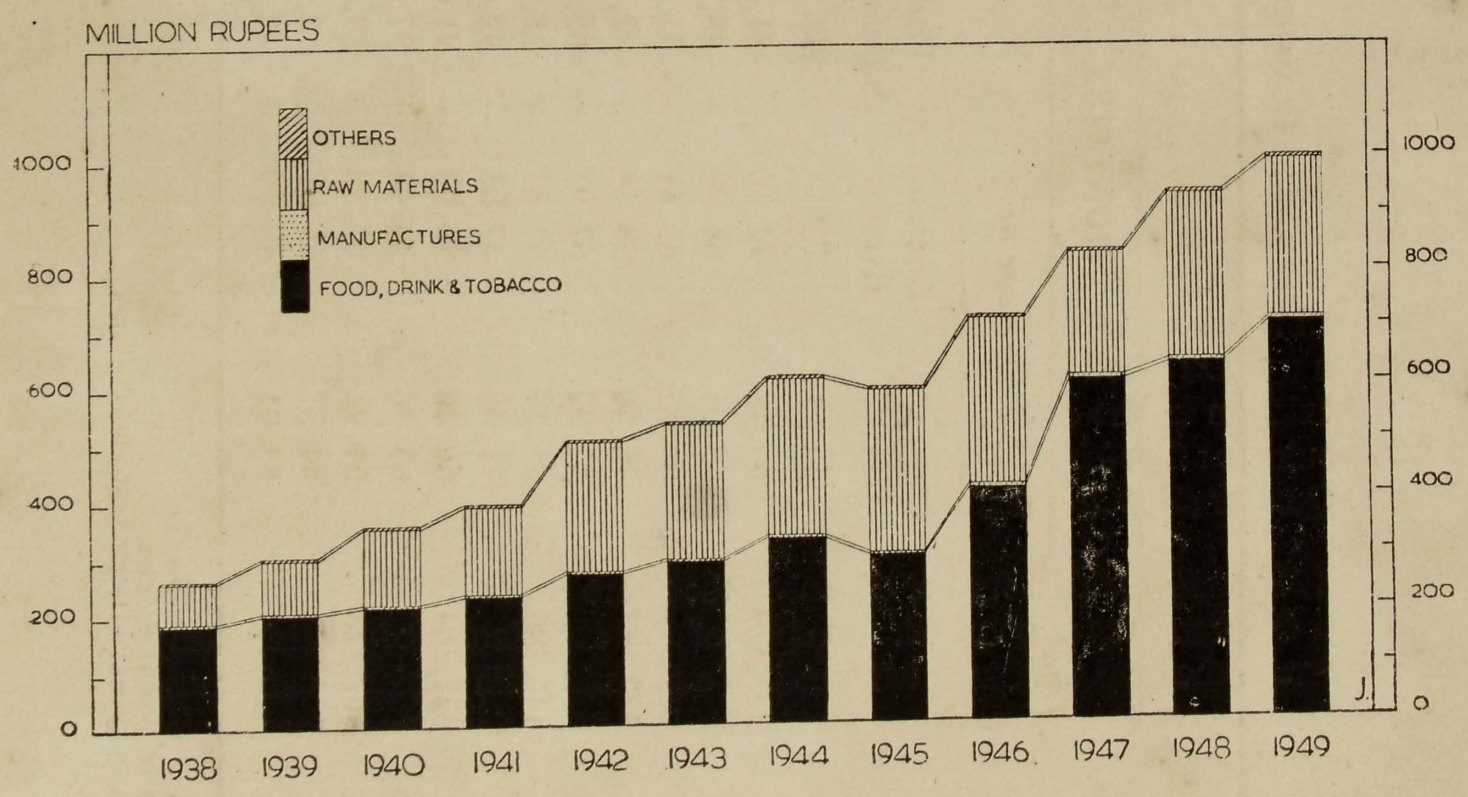
EXTERNAL TRADE—CLASSIFICATION OF IMPORTS



EXTERNAL TRADE—CLASSIFICATION OF EXPORTS



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VALUE OF EXPORTS TO AND IMPORTS FROM U. K.

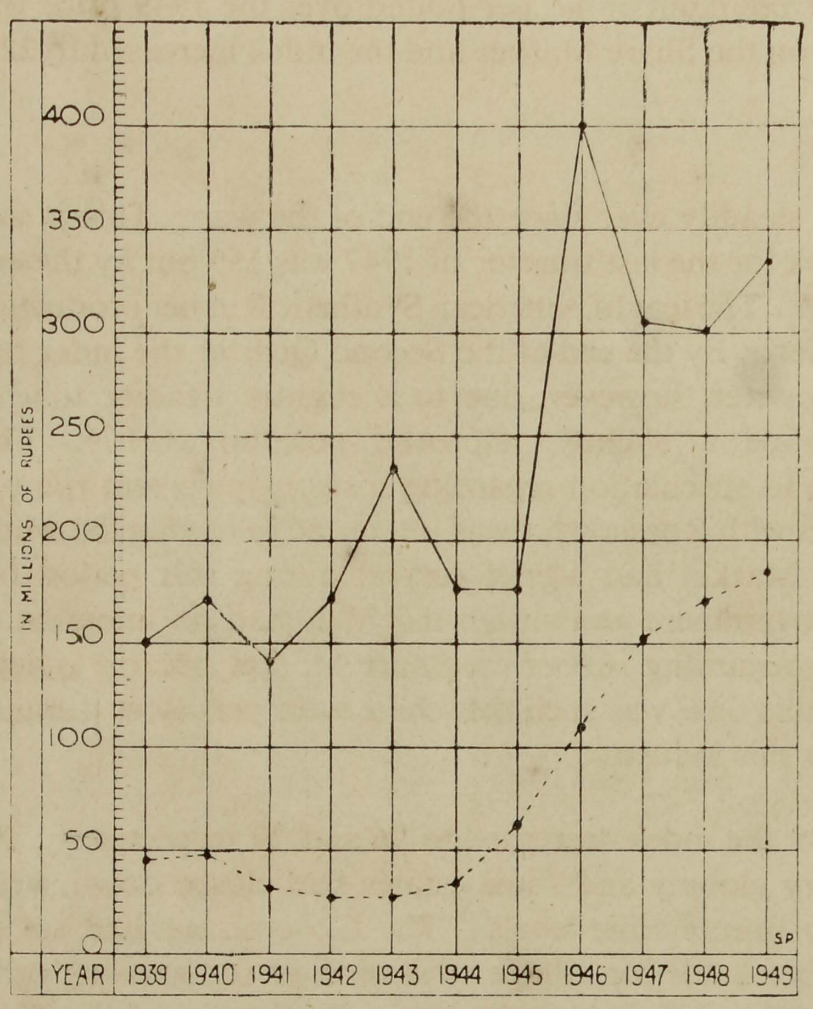

TABLE 16.12. VALUE OF EXPORTS TO AND IMPORTS FROM U. K.

(*Million Rupees*)

	Imports from U. K.	*Domestic Exports to U. K.*
1939	46	151
1940	49	172
1941	32	141
1942	28	172
1943	29	235
1944	39	177
1945	67	177
1946	115	401
1947	176	305
1948	174	301
1949	185	335

VII. Share Market Review—Tea, Rubber and Tea-Cum Rubber

TEA

The Quarterly Share Price Index at the end of the Fourth Quarter 1947 was 193. The First Quarter 1948 Index at 184 showed that Tea Company shares transacted during this period had obtained considerably lower prices than during the last quarter of 1947. The market was very quiet and investors' lack of interest could be traced, among other causes, to the fear of further taxation. During the second quarter the index falls still further and stood at 168, due among other reasons, to the considerable fluctuations in the price of tea during this quarter. The end of the third quarter registered an upward trend in the index, which was 171. The Fourth Quarter opened with a great deal of speculation in the minds of would-be investors on such matters as whether the London Auctions would be started in 1949, and the likelihood of a fresh contract. The index at the end of the Fourth Quarter showed a slight decrease at 170.

The year 1949 started with a further decline in the Share Index to 168. During the First Quarter the 1949 Tea Contract was announced. In spite of the expectation of a fairly steady price for tea during the rest of the year the Share Market was quiet and little business was transacted. During the Second Quarter too there were few share transactions and prices were generally lower. This was reflected again in the index, which stood at 157. The Third Quarter index rose to 163 and for the Share Market and other commodity markets in Ceylon this period proved to be an important milestone on the road to better prices in the future. This upward trend was initiated by the devaluation of the pound sterling followed by the Ceylon Rupee which was announced on September 19. During the Fourth Quarter the full effect of devaluation was felt and coupled with the unsettled state of the international political situation tea shares transacted during this period fetched better prices and this was reflected in the index which showed a sharp rise to 193.

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The steady tone of the Share Market was maintained in the First Quarter, 1950, the index being 207. Tea was selling at record high prices at the auctions but the Share Market had not reached fully to these high prices. During the beginning of the Second Quarter the price of tea had declined to a lower level but improved towards the end of the quarter.

The Tea Contract for 1950 which was fixed at premium of 4*d.* per pound over the 1949 price was announced in May. This had a steadying effect on the Share Market and the index increased to 222.

RUBBER

Unlike Tea the Rubber Share Market dropped steadily ever since the end of the war. This is well reflected in the Index of Share Prices. The index for the last quarter of 1947 was 159 but by the end of the First Quarter 1948 this had dropped to 133. The fear of American Synthetic Rubber production was ever present to depress the market still further. By the end of the Second Quarter the index had further dropped to 103. During the Third Quarter, however, due to a slightly steadier tone of the price of the commodity the index showed a slightly improved position at 105. This was maintained during the Fourth Quarter due to speculation regarding a strongly current rumour that the Ceylon Government was engaged in talks with Russia who was interested in buying the whole output of Ceylon Rubber. The Commodity Market had a brief revival during this period but this was very short-lived, for as soon as the Government announced that they had no intention of entering into a contract or other arrangement regarding rubber the Share Market became quieter again. The position of the rubber industry at this time was such that there were persistent rumours of a Government subsidy on rubber to keep up this industry.

During the First and Second Quarter of 1949 the index decreased to 96 and 79 respectively. By this time the future of the industry seemed very gloomy and some estates had closed down, while the price of the commodity fell still further to uneconomic levels. The Government had set up a scheme for the purchase of uneconomic rubber lands for village expansion or for growing other crops and the industry was exempted from the Wages Boards Ordinance. By the end of the Third Quarter however the Share Market had reached to what was to be (as observed in the case of the Tea Share Market too) a milestone on the road to better prices in the future—the devaluation of Sterling followed by the Rupee. The index rose to 96 again. This was followed by a further rise to 115 in the last quarter of the year.

The First quarter of 1950 saw the price of rubber advancing slowly but steadily. The Share Market however, was not so active due perhaps to the paucity of sellers who were very cautious. The transactions done were for substantially better values as reflected in the index which touched 134. By the end of the Second Quarter it was quite apparent to those interested in the rubber industry that ' Boom ' conditions had set in.

TABLE 16.13. QUARTERLY INDEX OF SHARE PRICES (RUPEE COMPANIES)

Base = January–June, 1939 = 100

Year	*Quarter*	*Tea*	*Rubber*	*Tea-cum-Rubber*
1940	1st	113	123	111
	2nd	107	112	105
	3rd	109	108	99
	4th	117	125	111
1941	1st	112	139	118
	2nd	105	122	116
	3rd	112	131	126
	4th	121	149	140

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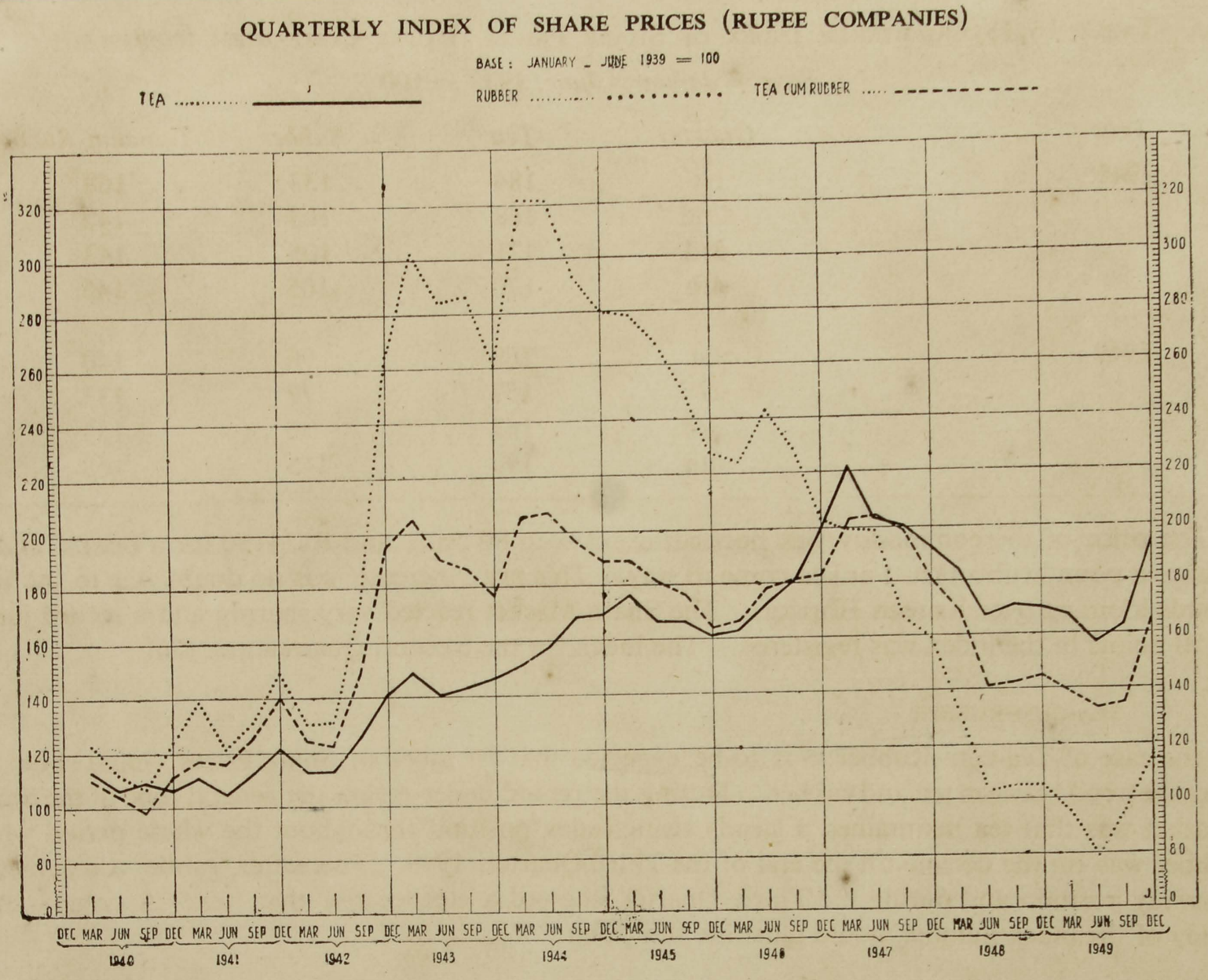

TABLE 16.13. QUARTERLY INDEX OF SHARE PRICES (RUPEE COMPANIES) *(continued)*

Base = January–June, 1939 = 100

Year	*Quarter*	*Tea*	*Rubber*	*Tea-cum-Rubber*
1942	1st	113	130	124
	2nd	113	131	122
	3rd	125	174	149
	4th	141	265	195
1943	1st	150	302	204
	2nd	141	285	190
	3rd	144	287	188
	4th	147	262	178
1944	1st	152	322	205
	2nd	158	322	208
	3rd	168	294	198
	4th	170	280	190
1945	1st	176	279	190
	2nd	167	268	182
	3rd	166	250	176
	4th	161	227	164
1946	1st	164	225	167
	2nd	173	242	179
	3rd	180	228	182
	4th	199	203	183
1947	1st	223	200	203
	2nd	204	199	204
	3rd	201	166	189
	4th	193	159	180

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TABLE 16.13 QUARTERLY INDEX OF SHARE PRICES (RUPEE COMPANIES) (*continued*)

Base = January–June, 1939 = 100

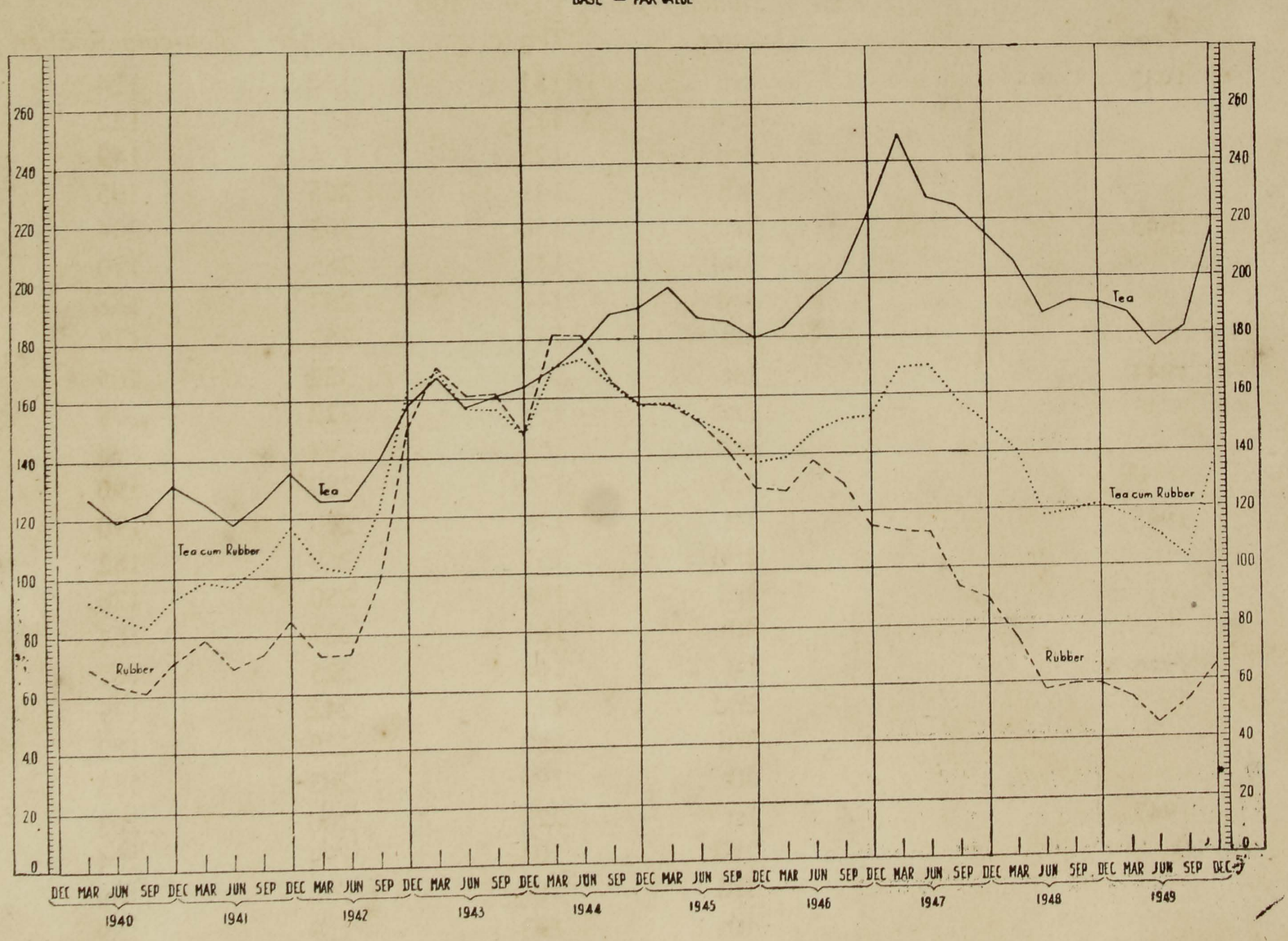
Year	*Quarter*	*Tea*	*Rubber*	*Tea-cum Rubber*
1948	1st	184	133	168
	2nd	168	103	142
	3rd	171	105	143
	4th	170	105	145
1949	1st	168	96	140
	2nd	157	79	133
	3rd	163	96	135
	4th	193	115	165

The price of the commodity was fluctuating between 80 cents and Rs. 1.50 for a pound and a 'rupee a pound rubber' had at last come to stay. This price increase was no doubt due to the war clouds looming over Korean Horizon. The Share Market reacted very sharply and a record jump of 50 points in the index was registered. The index for the Second Quarter was 186.

TEA-CUM-RUBBER

In the case of Tea-cum-Rubber it is to be expected that an index of Share Prices would show an average trend between tea and rubber. During the period under review the general tone of the Share Market was that tea maintained a steady rising index position throughout the whole period while rubber was on the decline till the end of the Third Quarter, 1949. Thereafter, rubber too achieved a steady position and during the Third Quarter showed a steeper rise than tea. A comparative study of the index number would illustrate this point.

QUARTERLY INDEX OF SHARE PRICES (RUPEE COMPANIES)



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The Government Tourist Bureau

The first Government Tourist Bureau was opened in 1937, but it ceased to function during the war years.

Under the new constitution, the Tourist Bureau was re-established in October, 1947, as a sub-Department of the Department of Commerce, the Director of Commerce being the Director of the Tourist Bureau as well. The Tourist Bureau is now a separate Department of Government with a full time Director. An Executive Secretary is Secretary to the Government Tourist Board and is also in charge of the executive functions of the Bureau, while a Publicity Assistant has been appointed to assist in the publicity work. The Bureau is assisted by a Tourist Board, which consists of Government officials and others associated with the Tourist Industry in Ceylon.

To all intents and purposes organised tourism in Ceylon is a new venture. A vast amount of spade work is, therefore, necessary, and a great deal of it has already been accomplished by the Bureau.

Up to now, the work of the Bureau has been directed mainly to the improvement of the tourist services in the Island, *e.g.*, supply of information for tourists, improvement of transport services and accommodation, and elimination of touting.

CEYLON TRAVEL CENTRE

Early in 1948 the Bureau started an Information Centre at the Colombo Passenger Jetty to enable tourists to obtain any information they required. This was a temporary arrangement. A fully equipped Travel centre which will provide various amenities for tourists is now completed. Information about the Island is now readily available in the form of pamphlets, folders and maps.

ACCOMMODATION SERVICES

Certain resthouses of tourist interest now run by the various Provincial Road Committees, are to be taken over by the Bureau. These resthouses will be renovated and fully equipped, in order to provide comfortable accommodation for tourists. The Bureau has already taken five resthouses in hand and is carrying out essential improvements to them.

On representations made by the Bureau, all resthouses and hotels of a certain standard have been given the concession of importing their requirements of linen, cutlery and crockery at a lower rate of import duty, thus facilitating the replacement of equipment and the maintenance of satisfactory standards in the hotel trade.

TRANSPORT SERVICES

In the matter of transport services, the Bureau has endeavoured to improve the taxi services by organising hiring car associations in the Colombo Fort area, and by insisting on fixed fares. The drivers of these associations have been required to wear prescribed uniforms and badges. In the absence of the necessary legislation, the Bureau has had to rely entirely on its ability to enlist the co-operation of the hiring car owners to effect these improvements. In the meantime, however, legislation regarding the compulsory use of taxi-meters in motor cabs plying in Colombo as well as measures relating to the conduct and discipline of drivers of motor cabs have been initiated.

THE TOUT NUISANCE

Representations made by the Bureau to the Police have resulted in a certain reduction of the tout nuisance in the city of Colombo. Despite the efforts of the Police and the Bureau, touting has not been completely eliminated owing to a variety of reasons. Amendments to existing legislation regarding touting are under consideration.

STATISTICS AND PUBLICITY

Apart from the improvements of the services enumerated above, the Bureau is engaged in collecting standard tourist statistics from records of Government Departments, tourists agencies, &c., regarding tourism in Ceylon. This statistical background is an essential pre-requisite to the formulation of policy regarding the development of the tourist industry in Ceylon.

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The Bureau has also undertaken to advertise Ceylon abroad. Up to now this has been done only in a small way, but preparations are in hand to launch on a large scale publicity campaign in the near future, which will include publicity through the media of films, photographs, books, pamphlets and advertisements in foreign newspapers and magazines. A modern guide book profusely illustrated and including a large number of colour photographs, is also being printed and would be out shortly.

VIII. The Co-operative Movement

The number of Co-operative Societies on April 30, 1950, was 6,767 and their distribution shows the varied and many-sided activities that the co-operative movement has undertaken in the last few decades. The following table shows the geographical distribution of the more important types of societies :—

Area (District)	*Credit*	*Con-sumers'*	*Thrift*	*A.P. & S.*	*Other M & P.*	*Other Types*	*Total April, 1950*
Western Province	389	899	56	21	42	78	1,485
Colombo	248	629	44	3	32	52	1,008
Kalutara	141	270	12	18	10	26	477
Northern Province	435	378	18	18	32	62	943
Jaffna	342	336	14	11	29	52	784
Mannar	70	24	2	3	3	3	105
Vavuniya	23	18	2	4	—	7	54
Central Province	337	515	57	53	10	44	1,016
Kandy	223	360	39	30	8	35	695
Matale	46	68	6	13	—	4	137
Nuwara Eliya	68	87	12	10	2	5	184
North-Central Province	59	100	3	26	—	20	208
Anuradhapura	43	84	2	23	—	17	169
Thamankaduwa	16	16	1	3	—	3	39
Southern Province	152	679	48	57	15	49	1,000
Galle	104	355	38	29	6	24	556
Matara	30	217	8	17	4	19	295
Hambantota	18	107	2	11	5	6	149
North-Western Province	289	321	8	49	51	43	761
Kurunegala	262	228	8	29	21	37	585
Chilaw	24	74	—	13	28	3	142
Puttalam	3	19	—	7	2	3	34
Sabaragamuwa Province	194	339	47	19	1	47	647
Ratnapura	64	124	10	9	—	26	233
Kegalla	130	215	37	10	1	21	414
Uva Province	112	112	17	15	1	44	301
Badulla	112	112	17	15	1	44	301
Eastern Province	129	180	7	19	30	41	406
Batticaloa	107	142	6	15	29	31	330
Trincomalee	22	38	1	4	1	10	76
Grand Total	2,096	3,523	261	277	182 [1]	428 [2]	6,767

A. P. & S.=Agricultural, Production and Sales ; M. &. P.=Marketing and Production.

1 Includes 39 Coconut Sale Societies, 46 Fishing Societies, 14 Dairy Societies, 34 Textile Societies, 7 Pottery, 5 Palmyrah Products Sale, 6 Coir Sale, 3 Tobacco Sale, 1 Cigar Factory, 5 Mat and Basket Weaving, 1 Bakery, 2 Rubber Sale, 1 Citronella Distillery and 18 other types.

2 Includes 20 Transport Societies, 6 Builders and Housing Societies, 2 Co-operative Hospitals, 17 Better Living and Farming Societies, 4 Labour Societies, 8 Provincial and Banking Unions, 1 Co-operative Federal Bank, 95 Wholesale Stores Unions, 9 Marketing and Production Unions, 79 Credit Unions, 9 Provincial Unions, 1 Land Mortgage Bank, 171 Recognised School Supply Societies and 8 other types.

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The table at the end of this section reveals the position of Co-operative Societies as at April 30th in 1949 and in 1950. Although all sections of co-operative activity share in the general progress, the last few years witnessed the greatest advance so far made in Producer Co-operation, particularly with regard to co-operative processing and marketing. A most encouraging feature has been the rapid rise of Co-operative Agricultural Production and Sales Societies of which there are 277 with a total membership of 58,614. The Government has made these societies the chief agency for the new Food Production Drive, granting loans either in kind or cash for agricultural operations and marketing purposes. The loans granted during the financial years 1947–1948, 1948–1949 and 1949–1950 amounted to Rs. 4,356,630, Rs. 5,618,389 and Rs. 4,267,738 respectively. The sales of these societies during the last two years were Rs. 5,831,080 and Rs. 10,613,622 respectively, the nett profits being Rs. 218,683 and Rs. 201,962, respectively.

Another important section of the Co-operative Producers' Movement is the Coconut Industry. Nowhere has the problem of prior indebtedness created greater havoc than among coconut producers, 70 per cent. of whom are small-holders, owning plantations of less than 10 acres in extent. The industry is being re-habilitated on co-operative lines and today there are 39 Co-operative Coconut Sales Societies (9 of them possessing their own Desiccated Coconut and Oil Mills) while the central organisation, the Ceylon Co-operative Coconut Producers' Union, which is a direct shipper of coconut products, handles the sales of its member societies' produce—copra, desiccated coconut, coconut oil. The total sales of the Coconut Sales Societies for the last two years were Rs. 8,021,141 and Rs. 11,076,957 respectively, the nett profits for the same period being Rs. 1,072,928 and Rs. 879,739 respectively. The Ceylon Co-operative Coconut Producer's Unions sales for the last two years were Rs. 4,553,135 and Rs. 985,740 respectively, the nett profits being Rs. 385,517 and Rs. 20,805 respectively.

The co-operative movement has brought to the villager a realisation of its advantages in another way. Although Credit Societies, the backbone of the movement up to 1942, continue to expand, the consumer movement has far outstripped the credit movement. The membership in the Consumers' Stores Societies is 81.3 per cent. of the total in primary societies. There are more than 4 million ration books served by these societies which is nearly 2/3rd of the Island's population. Last year 1,896 societies made a nett profit of Rs. 1,514,970 while 1,604 societies suffered a net loss of Rs. 935,539, the main reason for the latter being the persistence of uneconomic units which are very difficult to amalgamate owing to parochialism and local feeling.

The recent reorientation of the co-operative movement from the credit aspect to its productive and distributive functions does not belittle in any way the notable contribution made by the Credit and Thrift Societies, which for over a quarter of a century have been inculcating in their members in a practical form the principles of mutual trust and self-help, and thereby provided a sure foundation on which to build the more complex forms of co-operative organisation such as production, marketing and distribution. The total of loans granted by the Credit and Thrift Societies during the last two years were Rs. 6,208,032 and Rs. 6,437,482, respectively. The combined savings in Credit Societies (as deposits) together with the savings in Thrift Societies during the last two years were Rs. 3,474,306 and Rs. 4,434,608, respectively.

The Co-operative Federal Bank of Ceylon, the apex bank of the movement, which started business with an initial deposit of Rs. 2,000,000 has so far attracted by way of fixed and savings deposits from the societies and from the public a sum of Rs. 560,179. The Provincial Co-operative Banks (formerly known as Co-operative Central Banks) of which there is one in each Province, grant loans to the societies on cash credit basis. The total value of investments made by the Provincial Banks is Rs. 3,300,392 of which Rs. 3,179,003 are in Government loans.

Of other forms of co-operation, special mention should be made of the Tholpuram Moolai Co-operative Union hospital and the Jaffna Malayalam Tobacco Sales Society, both in the Northern Province. The former, from humble and unpretentious beginnings, has now developed into a fully equipped hospital complete with operating theatre and maternity ward. There are 1,114

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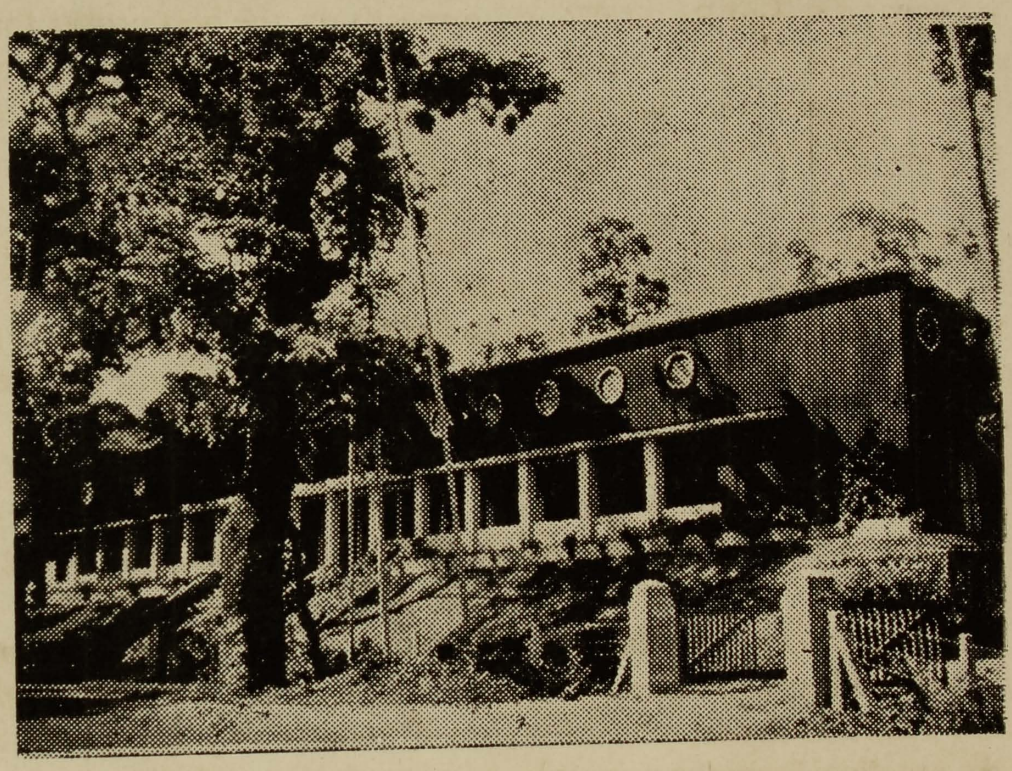
members and the share capital (paid up) is Rs. 12,356. 2,809 indoor and 30,149 outdoor cases were treated last year. 1,189 patients received free treatment. The nett profits earned during the year were Rs. 19,639. The amount of Reserve Fund is Rs. 310,659. The Jaffna Malayalam Tobacco Co-operative Sale Society is the largest and one of the earliest marketing ventures. The sales during the years 1948–49 and 1949–50 amounted to Rs. 1,447,335 and Rs. 1,121,295 respectively. Other spheres of activity include cottage industries, fishing, transport, housing, joint-farming, dairying, better living , labour, &c.

There are two parallel Co-operative Departments now, the Department of Co-operative Development and the Department of the Registrar of Co-operative Societies. The special problems of supply for the Consumers' Stores which grew phenomenally during the war emergency and the need for 'planned' development in the face of growing public enthusiasm led to the creation in 1945 of the Department of Co-operative Development with a Commissioner in charge to plan and guide the movement, taking special activities under his immediate care whenever such a course is found necessary, *e.g.*, the Co-operative Wholesale Establishment, which is the central supplying organisation to the Consumer Societies. The Department of the Registrar of Co-operative Societies has a number of statutory functions to perform and attends to the more normal duties of registration, supervision and audit of societies . It also conducts a school for the training of officers and unofficial co-operators.

This report will not be complete without special mention of two outstanding events of the year. First, the All-Ceylon Co-operative Congress held in Colombo on January 6th and 7th, 1950, the fifth of its kind and by far the largest. The number of delegates this year was over 5,000 as compared with the highest number 900 at any previous rally. The programme included, besides discussions and lectures on co-operative and cognate subjects, a magnificient co-operative exhibition of products from societies of all types from the nine Provinces.



An important landmark in the history, not only of the co-operative movement in Ceylon but also of the country's general economic development was the handing over of the Co-operative Wholesale Establishment to a non-Government administration—a Statutory Board consisting partly of officials and partly of unofficial representatives of the movement pending its final transfer to the societies themselves to be run as the Co-operative Wholesale Federation of Ceylon. (This will be distinct from the All-Ceylon Co-operative Federation which will complete the structure of self-Government for the entire movement and as a preliminary to its organisation, nine Provincial Unions have already been formed, each of them looking after the common interests of the movement as a whole). Inaugurated in 1943, the Co-operative Wholesale Establishment has during the last few years expanded its supply activities in all directions, establishing direct contact as far as possible with suppliers and producers abroad, until today it forms the apex of a consumer movement consisting of 3,523 societies supplying two-thirds of the country's population. By virtue of the position it has thus attained as the largest distributor of essential foodstuffs and textiles in the country, the Co-operative Wholesale Establishment has today become one of the most powerful factors in keeping down the cost of living in the country. The total sales of the Co-operative Wholesale Establishment for the financial years 1947–1948 and 1948–1949 were Rs. 54.1 million and Rs. 48.3 million, respectively.

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Statistics of Co-operative Societies as at April 30, 1949*

Type of Society	No. of Societies	Membership	1949 — Owned Capital: Paid up Share Capital Rs.	Reserves Rs.	Total Rs.	Borrowed Capital Rs.	Turnover Rs.	Net Profit Rs.
Primary Societies :								
1. Credit—Unlimited Liability	1,891	60,844	735,601	1,277,618	2,013,219	2,379,630	4,286,204†	127,442
2. Credit—Limited Liability	125	8,935	785,603	223,034	1,008,637	334,275	1,078,387†	39,156
3. Consumers'	3,740	963,614	5,405,271	5,192,828	10,598,099	3,087,550	162,376,098‡	586,373
4. Thrift	245	23,112	2,991,076	85,403	3,076,479	252,063	—	80,160
5. School Supply, recognised	82	10,490	6,933	2,985	9,918	30,796	50,002‡	3,816
6. Marketing and Production	309	47,779	540,990	979,713	1,520,703	5,598,375	16,664,306‡	1,279,667
7. Other type societies	45	7,675	121,152	220,942	342,094	303,872	—	—
Total	6,437	1,122,449	10,586,626	7,982,523	18,569,149	11,986,561	184,454,997	2,076,130
Secondary Societies :								
8. Central Banks and Banking Unions	9	3,438	292,182	323,970	616,152	7,983,334	84,586,044†	115,212
9. Wholesale Stores Unions	95	3,301	622,682	1,049,420	1,672,102	3,181,115	117,181,811‡	564,524
10. Marketing and Production Unions	8	113	53,247	239,086	292,333	212,617	5,047,543‡	400,906
11. Other Unions	87	4,532	23,741	13,582	37,323	—	—	5,408
Total	199	11,384	991,852	1,626,058	2,617,910	11,377,066	206,815,398	1,086,050
12. Co-operative Federal Bank	1	1,073	208,936	—	208,936	2,000,000	—	4,003

* The Co-operative year ends in April.
† Loans granted during the year ending April, 30th.
‡ Sales during the year ending April, 30th.

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STATISTICS OF CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES AS AT APRIL 30, 1950 (*continued*)

Type of Society	1950							
			Owned Capital					
	No. of Societies	*Membership*	*Paid up Share Capital*	*Reserves*	*Total*	*Borrowed Capital*	*Turnover*	*Net Profit*
			Rs.	*Rs.*	*Rs.*	*Rs.*	*Rs.*	*Rs.*
Primary Societies :								
1. Credit—Unlimited Liability	1,970	63,546	764,658	1,400,466	2,165,124	2,455,446	4,288,844*	124,693
2. Credit—Limited Liability	126	9,148	857,928	242,964	1,100,892	320,679	997,995*	41,168
3. Consumers'	3,523	907,384	5,078,025	5,484,627	10,562,652	2,591,374	145,529,491†	579,431
4. Thrift	261	31,336	3,841,131	90,744	3,931,875	365,421	—	112,023
5. School Supply, recognised	171	20,463	8,351	6,600	14,951	39,590	76,105†	6,193
6. Marketing and Production	459	73,680	788,693	1,472,040	2,260,733	8,921,123	24,459,933†	841,411
7. Other type societies	56	10,756	171,625	335,835	507,460	519,992	—	6,327
Total	6,566	1,116,313	11,510,411	9,033,276	20,543,687	15,213,625	175,352,368	1,711,246
Secondary Societies :								
8. Central Banks and Banking Unions	8	3,855	320,857	369,424	690,281	10,939,913	87,222,565*	120,647
9. Wholesale Stores Unions	95	3,210	661,362	1,232,097	1,893,459	3,151,677	112,466,203†	370,233
10. Marketing and Production Unions	9	122	62,607	414,185	476,792	969,664	1,756,550†	92,987
11. Other Unions	88	4,602	26,602	16,737	43,339	50	—	33,286
Total	200	11,789	1,071,428	2,032,443	3,103,871	15,061,304	201,445,318	617,153
12. Co-operative Federal Bank	1	1,073	228,210	—	228,210	2,560,179	2,365,110*	68,233

* Loans granted during the year ending April 30th.
† Sales during the year ending April 30th.

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CHAPTER XVII

EMPLOYMENT, LABOUR LEGISLATION AND THE SOCIAL SERVICES

MEASURES to maintain employment, the enacting of labour laws and the provision of Social Services in Ceylon are of comparatively recent origin. They are bound up with the withering away of the old policy of non-intervention and the increasing association of the Government in the economic and social life of the country. The State gradually assumes the role of protector, abolishes the quasi-feudal conditions of labour and, in a succession of legislative acts, compels employers to establish and maintain certain conditions relating to the well-being of the worker.

This chapter deals with (i) Employment and Unemployment ; (ii) Labour Organisation and Industrial Relations and Welfare ; (iii) Labour Legislation ; (iv) Ceylon and the I.L.O. ; and (v) The Social Services.

I. Employment and Unemployment

THE GAINFULLY EMPLOYED

Statistics on the economic activities of a people—the number and characteristics of the persons engaged in economic production, their occupations, and their distribution among the branches of economic activity—constitute for a country an inventory of its human resources and reveal its economic and demographic characteristics. They are of considerable value for the purposes of planning and the administering of governmental programmes.

The statistics given in Tables 17.1 and 17.2, relating to the gainfully employed are derived from the figures furnished at the population census of 1946. ' Gainful occupation ' was defined as an occupation by which the persons who pursued it earned money or money equivalent. Only the principal occupation, *i.e.*, the occupation which was regularly followed and brought in the largest income was treated as the gainful occupation of the person enumerated. An activity which was not regularly practised and which did not bring in a regular income was excluded from gainful occupation. Thus, housewives who did odd jobs and earned some money and contributed to the support of a family were not included within the category of gainfully employed. This definition of gainfully employed had a narrower range than that of ' earners ', information about whom were collected at the 1921 census. These earners included women and children who helped to augment the family income. In comparing statistics for 1946 with the figures recorded at previous censuses note should be taken of the change in the respective definitions. The gainfully employed as of the 1946 census as well as the earners of the previous censuses included those persons who were temporarily unemployed at the time of the census. The 1946 census figures also collected information in regard to employment status, defining an ' employer ' as one who employed helpers in transacting his own business and an ' employee ' as one who worked for a salary or wages and was subject to the direction and control of an employer and ' worker on own account ' as one who was gainfully employed but was neither an employer nor a wage earner.

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GAINFULLY OCCUPIED POPULATION, 1946 CENSUS

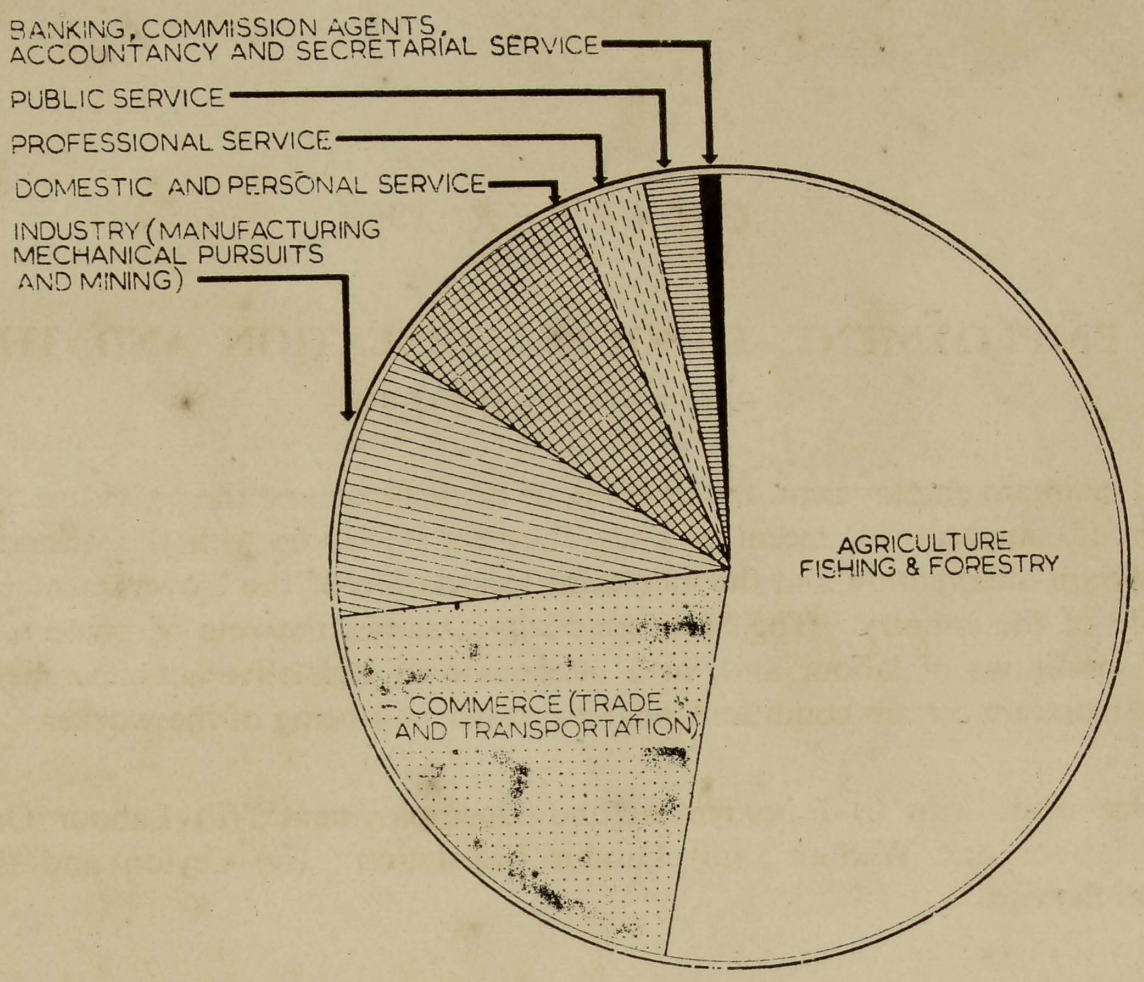

TABLE 17.1. GAINFULLY OCCUPIED POPULATION, CEYLON, 1946 BY BROAD OCCUPATIONAL GROUPS, SHOWING PERCENTAGE IN EACH GROUP OF ALL GAINFUL WORKERS

Occupational Groups	*Gainfully occupied*	
	Number	*Per Cent. of all Gainful Occupation*
Agriculture, fishing and forestry	1,381,612	52.9
Industry (manufacturing, mechanical pursuits and mining)	286,507	11.0
Total for physical production	1,668,119	63.9
Commerce (Trade and Transportation)	530,029	20.2
Banking, Commission Agencies, Accountancy and Secretarial Services	22,489	.9
Total for distribution	552,518	21.1
Professional Service	81,800	3.1
Public Service	66,802	2.6
Domestic and Personal Service	242,285	9.3
Total for Service occupations	390,887	15.0
Grand total	2,611,524	100.0

The total number of ' Gainfully Occupied ' persons in 1946 was 2,611,524, which is 38.9 per cent of the total population of the Island for that year.

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EMPLOYMENT EXCHANGES

The first Employment Exchange in Ceylon was established in 1938, by the Labour Department as one of the essential elements in the campaign to alleviate unemployment. In 1945, with the large-scale demobilisation of military personnel and the discharge of workers from emergency departments, the Government established a network of Employment Exchanges throughout the Island to facilitate the registration and orderly placement of workers in suitable employment. The Employment Exchange Service gives information to workers of possible openings and the qualifications and experience required, so that suitable persons may readily avail themselves of such opportunities.

The Employment Service consists of a Central Employment Exchange situated at Colombo, eleven Area Exchanges situated in most of the important districts, eight Branch Exchanges and eleven Registration Centres. There is also a separate Women's Exchange in Colombo.

One of the main functions of the Exchanges is to promote the mobility of labour by active propaganda work. However, mobility of labour remains low, as it normally is in an agricultural country where home and family ties emphasize the traditional factor of ' inertia '.

UNEMPLOYMENT

At the end of 1949 there were 69,732 persons on the registers of the Employment Exchanges classified under the following categories :—

Technical and Clerical	*Skilled*	*Semi-skilled*	*Un-skilled*
5,132	11,994	13,591	39,015

This was an increase of 3,076 over the figure for the previous year.

Though the figures of registration at the Exchanges do not give an accurate picture of the unemployment in the country, they can be utilised as a safe guide for gauging broadly the extent and trend of unemployment. Nevertheless, in October, 1949, a comprehensive census was conducted throughout the Island of unemployment in this country. The term ' unemployed ' was defined as referring to all persons seeking work on a given day, *i.e.*, the day of the census, October 24,1949, who were not employed at that time and who were willing to accept employment. The total number of unemployed throughout the Island registered at this census was 86,230.

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TABLE 17.2. OCCUPATIONAL ANALYSIS OF THE POPULATION, 1921 AND 1946 CENSUSES

Occupation	1921			1946		
	Total	*Males*	*Females*	*Total*	*Males*	*Females*
Total Population	4,498,605	2,381,812	2,116,793	6,657,339	3,532,218	3,125,121
Gainfully Employed	2,220,712	1,479,567	741,145	2,611,524	2,041,524	570,000
Occupied (not gainfully)	8,929	4,893	4,036	9,174	5,532	3,642
Others (Dependants, etc.)	2,268,964	897,352	1,371,612	4,036,641	1,485,162	2,551,479
Gainfully Employed :						
A. Agricultural and related occupations ..	1,356,893	904,824	452,069	1,343,438	994,139	349,299
B. Fishermen, hunters, trappers, &c. ..	28,597	28,213	384	38,174	38,169	5
C. Workers in mine and quarry occupations ..	3,368	2,878	490	9,086	7,691	1,395
D. Craftsmen and production process workers ..	255,746	111,863	143,883	259,799	200,871	58,928
E. Workers in transport and communications ..	78,518	72,608	5,910	93,968	91,548	2,420
F. Trade and Finance	151,411	116,510	34,901	205,065	183,504	21,561
G. Public administration and defence ..	14,624	14,353	271	66,802	64,920	1,882
H. Professions and liberal arts ..	46,046	39,474	6,572	76,474	57,663	18,811
I. Sports and Entertainments ..	2,265	2,219	46	3,744	3,587	157
J. Personal service	142,346	83,734	58,612	235,645	164,941	70,704
K. Miscellaneous	140,898	120,891	38,007	279,329	234,491	44,838
Total ..	2,220,712	1,479,567	741,145	2,611,524	2,041,524	570,000

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II. Labour Organisation, Industrial Relations and Welfare

TRADE UNIONS

The compulsory registration of trade unions in Ceylon is provided for by the Trade Unions Ordinance, No. 14 of 1935. Registration is performed by the Registrar of Trade Unions, who is also the Commissioner of Labour.

In 1947 there were eighty-one registered unions functioning. Membership of trade unions increased from 6,717 in 1937 to 169,031 in 1947. For the period 1935 to 1940 the average total of trade union membership per year was about 5,800 with only one union with a membership of over 1,000. This was the period in which conditions of economic depression made the development of trade unions difficult. In 1941, however, the total membership of unions rose from 7,703 in the previous year to over 147,000 as a result of labour on estates forming themselves into trade unions.

At the end of 1949 the total membership of Workers' Unions amounted to 129,327. This gives a density of 8.62 per cent. if the total number of organisable workers in the country is assumed to be 1,500,000. In the United Kingdom the density for 1948 was 39.54 per cent. and in Australia more than 50 per cent. The largest membership of unions is in the plantation industry which has 95,995 union members—which means that more than 77.1 per cent. of all trade unionists are in plantations. The largest membership is held by the Ceylon Indian Congress Labour Union, which at the end of 1949 had a membership of 75,771. This union caters almost wholly for plantation workers ; of the other unions in the plantations, the Ceylon Plantation Workers' Union had a membership of 4,400 at the same period.

Since the amendment of the law relating to trade unions in August, 1948, making provision for the registration of unions of public servants, various classes of public servants have formed trade unions. During the year 1949, twenty-eight such trade unions were registered.

TABLE 17.3. ANNUAL REGISTRATION OF TRADE UNIONS 1940–49

Year	*Number*	*Year*	*Number*
1940	25	1945	23
1941	28	1946	33
1942	20	1947	18
1943	29	1948	34
1944	24	1949	44

TABLE 17.4. MEMBERSHIP STRENGTH OF EMPLOYEE UNIONS, 1937–49

Year	*Membership*	*Year*	*Membership*
1937	6,717	1944	93,479
1938	6,066	1945	144,240
1939	5,931	1946	181,774
1940	7,703	1947	169,031
1941	147,076	1948	158,178
1942	90,552	1949	129,327
1943	104,690		

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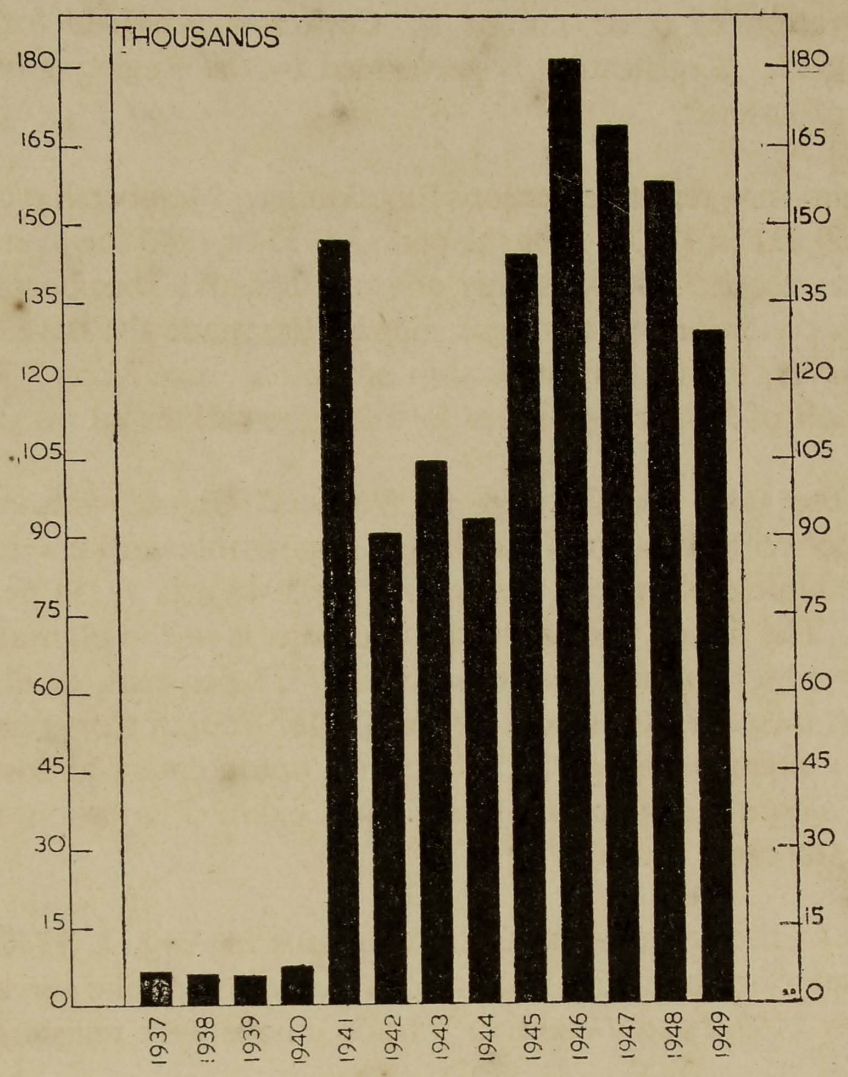
MEMBERSHIP STRENGTH OF TRADE UNIONS



CLASSIFICATION OF TRADE UNIONS

Number of trade unions at the end of 1948	—	106
Number of trade unions registered during 1949		44
Number of unions whose registration was cancelled during 1949		8
Total number of unions at the end of 1949		142

Federations	*No. of unions federated*	*Total Membership*
	1949	
Employers—		
(1) Employers' Federation of Ceylon	9	128
(2) Ceylon Estate Employers' Federation	—	551
Employees—		
(1) Ceylon Trade Union Federation	12	12,476
(2) All Ceylon Trade Union Congress	4	46
(3) Ceylon Federation of Labour	12	14,143

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The Workers' Unions may be classified into occupational groups as follows :—

	Number of Unions	*Membership*
	1949	
(1) Plantations and Agricultural	10	95,995
(2) Industrial	32	16,419
(3) Transportation	12	2,688
(4) Clerical	7	4,800
(5) Professional	8	3,969
(6) General	13	5,456
	Total	129,327

EMPLOYERS' ORGANISATIONS

In 1949 there were nine unions of employers in the different industries grouped under the Employers' Federation of Ceylon. The planting industry has organised itself into the Ceylon Estate Employers' Federation. The Employers' Federation of Ceylon was formed in 1929 by a group of employers, who recognised trade unionism as a part of the natural economic and political growth of the country. In this way, it was possible to represent to trade union leaders the views of employers in order to settle trade disputes. The scope of the Employers' Federation has since been widened so as to provide a basis of consultation with labour leaders, not only on employment conditions but also to examine wider questions of economic and social planning.

INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS

In 1949 there was a marked increase in the number of strikes, 94 being reported as against 53 in 1948. The total number of man-days lost as a result of these strikes in 1949 was 695,916 as against 52,431 in 1948. The number of strikes and the number of man-days lost each year during the period, 1943–49 are given in the following table :—

TABLE 17.5. NUMBER OF STRIKES AND NUMBER OF MAN-DAYS LOST, 1943–1949

Year	*No. of Strikes*	*No. of Man-days lost*
1943	53	9,593*a*
1944	92	29,985*b*
1945	81	157,673
1946	156	282,696
1947	105	743,831
1948	53	52,431
1949	94	695,916

(*a*) Figures for 52 strikes only.
(*b*) Figures for 91 strikes only.

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The causes of strikes both on plantations and in other industries in 1949 were :—

	Per cent.
Wage disputes other than those for wage increases	36.17
Dismissals	23.40
Working conditions and disputes	13.83
Sympathetic strikes	8.51
General demands	4.26
Wage increases	3.19
Right of Association	3.19
External matters	3.19
Assaults by employer or agent	3.19
Fractional disputes	1.07

Though in the years 1946 to 1948 dismissal was the chief cause of strikes, it will be seen that in 1949 wage disputes other than those for wage increases accounted for the largest number. This could be partly attributed to the situation which arose as a result of the removal of the Rubber Growing and Manufacturing Trade from the operation of Part II of the Wages Boards Ordinance when employers effected a reduction of wages to tide over the crisis in the rubber industry. Dismissal, working conditions and sympathetic action were the next major causes of strikes in the year.

INDUSTRIAL HYGIENE, SAFTEY AND WELFARE

A Division of Industrial Hygiene, Safety and Welfare has been organised within the Department of Labour. Its functions are :—

(i) A technical consultant service to Govenment Departments,
(ii) The detection, control and prevention of occupational health hazards,
(iii) An advisory service to industry on medical supervision and Labour Welfare amenities,
(iv) The control and prevention of industrial accidents and industrial illness.

An environmental hygiene survey of selected occupational groups is being carried out preliminary to the more detailed investigation of hazards in industry. Field sampling and investigation are conducted by specially trained officers of the Labour Department, while chemical investigation is carried out at the laboratory of the Government Analyst.

Clinical and radiological surveys of industrial groups are carried out in collaboration with the medical staff attached to the Chest Clinic, Colombo, and laboratory investgation of clinical material is referred to the Medical Research Institute, Colombo.

A special study of the respiratory system of underground workers in the Plumbago Industry was undertaken for the purpose of determining the period of work which plumbago miners could perform without undue fatigue.

A weekly industrial health clinic is held at the Government Press, where regular health examinations are carried out to detect early cases of lead intoxication, and necessary remedial measures adopted. A weekly dental clinic is also conducted and a qualified dental officer is in attendance. Milk is distributed free daily to all employees exposed to a lead hazard.

The Labour Welfare section was created in August, 1947. Its primary object was to provide a focus for the co-ordination of welfare work in industry, and to develop on a voluntary basis, activities to promote the well-being of work people. It is intended that the Labour Department should be in a position to advise employers of labour, both Government and private on the subject of Labour Welfare with a view to the promotion of contentment among workers and the establishment of cordial relations between employers and employees.

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III. Labour Legislation

The earliest measure of protection afforded to labour in Ceylon did not relate specifically to labour but formed one branch of the general law of contract. Its provisions were contained in the Contracts for Hire and Service Ordinance, passed in 1865. This laid down that contracts for hire and service for periods longer than one month should be clearly expressed in writing and attested before a Magistrate or a Justice of the Peace ; also, that the employer was responsible for the food, lodging and medical care during the period of incapacity of a servant who fell ill.

ESTATE LABOUR

The first section to benefit from the new legislation was Indian estate labour. For about this period, the reluctance of indigenous labour to accept work even for a money wage on the new coffee plantations compelled planters to turn their attention to South Indian labour. The principal problem which confronted them was not so much the determination of mutual rights and obligations of employers and workers but that of settling the conditions of recruitment, sanitation and health involved in the arduous journey of the Indian labourer from his home around Trichinopoly to Dhanuskodi, and thence to the estates of Ceylon.

A prominent factor in this matter was the considerable loss of life due to epidemics of cholera and small-pox which ravaged the provincial populations on the way and took heavy toll from the immigrants. In 1867, there were over 10,000 cases and 22,478 in 1877. To meet this situation it was decided to establish Quarantine Camps. These camps were opened in 1899, and as they have been most effective in the prevention of epidemics, the system has been maintained. Tataparai was the main camp until 1914, from which year the route taken by estate labourers was diverted to Mandapam. When the Tataparai Camp was opened it was found that numbers of labourers arrived there without money for food and so underwent hardship. Their presence in the village also brought the danger of cholera close to the camp. A scheme was then evolved by which a ' Kangany ' going to India was given a number of tokens, which served as vouchers for admittance of himself and his followers to the camp, for their feeding and despatch to the estate, the cost being recovered by Government from the estate. One of the worst features in this system of recruitment was the chronic indebtedness of the labourer as a result of the ' tundu ' system. The travelling expenses of the recruit from his home in South India until he reached Ceylon and secured employment on an estate, were advanced to him by the recruiting ' Kangany ' and this constituted a life-long debt of the labourer. The Indian labourer once recruited on these conditions had hardly any personal existence. He was practically a serf of the ' Kangany ' and followed his fluctuating fortunes from estate to estate as he migrated. This pernicious system was abolished in 1921 by the Tundu Prohibition Ordinance.

In July, 1923, there was formed the Department of Indian Immigrant Labour. In that year the Legislature had enacted the Indian Immigrant Labour Ordinance and the new department with a Controller at its head, was set up to carry out certain functions relating to Indian labour on estates. There were now substantial privileges which were not available to other categories of labour and which placed the Indian estate worker in a more favoured position than the rest of the labour population. By the introduction of the Donoughmore Constitution in July, 1931, additional subjects were assigned relating to industrial association, industrial disputes, wages and hours of work of labour, factory inspection, social insurance, poor relief and unemployment. The early nucleus of staff was also expanded into a general Labour Department. The protection originally afforded had thus been widened to include additional features and embrace, at the same time, more categories of workers within the scope of labour supervision.

The regulation of sanitary conditions on estates is governed principally by two Ordinances, viz., Diseases (Labourers) Ordinance and the Medical Wants Ordinance (Chapter 145–146 of the Legislative Enactments of Ceylon). The Diseases (Labourers) Ordinance applies to all agricultural estates of which 10 acres or more are cultivated. The Superintendent of such an estate has to notify the Director of Medical and Sanitary Services of the prevalance or imminence of cholera, plague, small-pox, chicken-pox, measles and dysentery. The onus is cast on the Superintendent

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to carry out the necessary directions regarding removal of labourers to hospital for treatment, and the destruction and reconstruction of lines which have been condemned. Regulations made under the Ordinance prescribe that accommodation provided for labourers should be in accordance with plans or designs approved by the Medical Department. The Ordinance also enables insanitary lines to be condemned for the erection of temporary ' lines ' (tenements for labourers) for a period of not more than four years. The employer is also required to keep the surroundings of the ' lines ' clear of weeds and to take necessary steps to conserve latrines, clean drains and provide adequate water supply and latrine accommodation. Specification for house accommodation includes floor space of not less than 120 square feet, height 8 feet, doors 6 feet by 2½ feet and windows of 8 square feet.

The Medical Wants Ordinance consolidates and amends the law relating to the medical wants of labourers in planting districts. After providing for the organisation on estates of medical services, the Ordinance imposes the duty on the superintendent of every estate to maintain ' lines ' of his estate and their vicinity in fair sanitary conditions, to relieve the sick, to send labourers to hospital when directed by the Medical Officer and to call for his services in case of serious illness or accident. He is also required to notify the Medical Officer of every birth and death on the estate and to supply every female labourer giving birth to a child with sufficient food and lodging for one month after birth and to ensure that she does not work for one month after confinement. Further it casts a duty on him to see that children under the age of one year receive proper care and nourishment.

Under this Ordinance the medical services of the Island are made available to the estates and hospital treatment is available to every labourer who requires it. Supplies are made by the Director of Medical and Sanitary Services of such drugs, as may be required for the medical wants of the labourers on an estate, up to a value not exceeding 50 cents per labourer per annum, and provision exists for further drugs to be supplied at cost price. Where provision has been made by the estate for the health of its labourers to the satisfaction of the Medical Wants Committee, a rebate is granted. The rules that govern the rebate prescribe, that estate hospitals, dispensaries and latrines constructed subsequent to the making of the rules should conform with the plans approved by the Medical Wants Committee.

Rules regarding hospitalisation ensure that a bed is provided for each patient and that the minimum superficial area for each bed is 60 square feet in ordinary wards with a cubic space of not less than 900 feet. Onus is also cast on the Superintendent to provide proper dwelling accommodation for the labour force.

MATERNITY BENEFITS

The earliest provisions relating to maternity benefits in his country were the benefits which plantation employers, except on coconut estates, were obliged to provide under the Medical Wants Ordinance. This Ordinance required Superintendents of Estates to provide resident female labourers, who gave birth to children on the estate, with sufficient food and lodging, free of cost, for a period of one month from the date of confinement.

In July, 1941, there came into operation the first Maternity Benefits Ordinance, No. 32 of 1939. This Ordinance, the administration of which was vested in the Labour Department, brought within its purview not only women workers on all types of estate but those employed in shops, mines and factories, which employ ten or more workers.

The main provision of the Ordinance was the payment of maternity benefits at the rate of 50 cents a day for a period of two weeks prior to the date of confinement and the four weeks following, to a woman worker who had completed with her employer nine months' continuous service on the date of her confinement, or the whole period of gestation. Contracting out is forbidden, and notice of dismissal without sufficient cause within three months before her confinement will not deprive a woman of her benefits.

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An estate employer, on whose estate there were resident women entitled to benefits under the Medical Wants Ordinance, could obtain a certificate from the Commissioner of Labour authorising the provision of alternative maternity benefits which consisted of—

(*a*) The provision of a Maternity Ward for use at the confinement ;
(*b*) The services of a midwife at the confinement ;
(*c*) Food for the period spent by the labourer in the Maternity Ward ; and
(*d*) The payment in cash of Rs. 2 per week for two weeks before and four weeks after confinement.

In August, 1946, an amending Ordinance to the Maternity Benefits Ordinance became law. The ' nine months' continuous employment ' rule was altered into a qualifying period of 150 days within the twelve months immediately preceding the date of confinement. This change-over solved many vexed problems, chief among which was the difficulty of drawing a line of demarcation between regular and casual employment and also the definition of a reasonable out-turn for work during the nine months. The other major change over was in the provisions relating to payment of maternity benefits. The original Ordinance in its provisions had fixed the amount payable, but the amendment while adopting the same periods in respect of which benefits are payable, has left the actual amount to be fixed from time to time by regulation. This change is far reaching, as it substitutes a facile method of enabling maternity benefits to keep pace with wage conditions for the normally arduous task of amending the principal legislation. Under the new provisions the scheme of alternative maternity benefits is still confined to estate employees. But while the acceptance of alternative maternity benefits is compulsory for the resident workers on estates, which enter the scheme, non-resident women workers are allowed the option of availing themselves of the scheme provided the option is exercised before confinement takes place.

The benefits prescribed under the Maternity Benefits Ordinance at present are the payment of Re. 1 per day for the period of fourteen days prior to confinement and four weeks immediately following, or, in the alternative, (with a certificate of authority from the Commissioner of Labour) provision of the following :—

(*a*) the use, for the confinement, for a period of not less than ten days, of a Maternity Ward or Lying-in room, approved by the Commissioner ;
(*b*) the services of a midwife at the confinement ;
(*c*) food for each worker during the time she remains in the Maternity Ward or Lying-in room.
(*d*) the payment in cash—

(1) of four rupees a week to each such worker for the period of two weeks immediately preceding her confinement, or, if she has worked during that period, four-sevenths of a rupee for each day in that period succeeding the last day on which she so worked ; and
(2) of four rupees a week to each such worker for the four weeks immediately following her confinement.

The Commissioner of Labour is responsible for the administration of this Ordinance and for this purpose he and his staff are vested with powers of entry, inspection and examination.

WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION

The payment of compensation to workmen meeting with accidents in the course of their work is provided for under the Workmen's Compensation Ordinance, No. 19 of 1934, which was brought into operation in 1935. The Ordinance was administered by the Commissioner of Labour as Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation up to February, 1948, but, with the establishment of the Department of Social Services, its administration has been vested in the Director of Social Services.

A workman, as defined in the Ordinance, is entitled to receive compensation from his employer if he sustains personal injury by accident arising out of and in the course of his employment. The Ordinance expressly extends the term accident to include occupational diseases which are specified in the Ordinance such as anthrax, lead poisoning and phosphorous poisoning. Anthrax excepted, a worker is required to be six months in continuous employment, before responsibility in respect

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of an occupational disease may be fixed on that employer. Compensation is not payable in respect of any other disease unless it can be established that it is directly attributable to a specific injury by accident sustained by the worker out of and in the course of his employment.

Compensation is payable to a worker who falls within any one of the categories or types of occupations set out in the schedule attached to the Ordinance, provided his monthly wages do not exceed Rs. 300. The Ordinance, however, specifically excludes persons in all branches of the fighting forces, personnel of the Police force and casual employees who are employed otherwise than for the purposes of the employer's trade or business. Among the more important occupations listed in the schedule are vehicular transport, manufacture of goods, mining, quarrying and excavating, port labour, blasting operations, outdoor work in Government Departments and tapping or coupling of palm trees.

An injury must result in disablement for a period exceeding seven days to impose liability on an employer. The employer cannot, however, be made liable to pay compensation in respect of accidents which do not result in death and which are caused by the worker being under the influence of drink or drugs, or as a result of wilful disobedience to an order expressly given or to a rule expressly framed for the purpose of securing this safety or by wilful removal or disregard by the worker of any safety device which he knew was provided for such purpose.

The amount payable is determined on the basis of the wages earned by the workman and in accordance with the schedule contained in the Ordinance. In the case of temporary disablement as a result of the injury, half monthly payments must be made during the period of the disablement and these vary from half month's wages to Rs. 30 per half month. Accidents resulting in death are compensated by a single payment ranging from Rs. 500 to Rs. 4,000 and in the case of a minor Rs. 200. When the injury results in total disablement of a permanent nature the amount of compensation varies from Rs. 700 to Rs. 5,600. In case where, although the disablement is permanent, the loss of earning capacity is only partial, the compensation is proportionate to the amount payable for total disablement.

In 1949, Schedule II to the Workmen's Compensation Ordinance was amended to include those ' employed in scavenging or conservancy or with any work connected with or incidental thereto ' and ' employed in any park or on any work connected with or incidental to the maintenance thereof '. The preparation of the draft bill to amend the Ordinance in accordance with the recommendations of the Social Services Commission is receiving attention.

According to returns furnished by employers, the claims paid by them to employees who met with accidents while at work during the years 1935–1949 were :—

	Rs.		*Rs.*
1935	17,261	1943	269,632
1936	119,378	1944	302,996
1937	154,464	1945	400,361
1938	174,481	1946	343,612
1939	172,178	1947	442,184
1940	220,445	1948	481,343
1941	262,234	1949	554,224
1942	202,589		

WAGES BOARDS

Minimum wage legislation in Ceylon originated with the Minimum Wage (Indian labour) Ordinance of 1927, the application of which was confined to Indian labour. In May, 1938, the Ministry of Labour, Industry and Commerce approved in principle the introduction of legislation for the setting up of Wages Board machinery to cover indigenous labour as well. The legislation finally appeared on the Statute Book in the shape of the Wages Boards Ordinance No. 27 of 1941 which, with two subsequent amendments, continues to be the principal minimum wage legislation in the

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Island to-day. Part I of the Ordinance deals with all employers and workers in all trades in a general way, while Part II provides for the application of the Ordinance to a particular trade involving the setting up of Wages Board machinery for the trade. Part III deals with the appointment and powers of offices under the Ordinance and with the offences and penalties defined by the Ordinance.

Under Part I, which is applicable to all trades, time limits are placed in regard to payment of wages and maximum deductions from wages, which can only be made with the consent of the worker, are limited to 50 per cent. of the wages due for any wage period. Part II of the Ordinance prescribed the procedure for applying it to a particular trade and establishing a Wages Board to fix wages, &c., in that trade. It also prescribes the powers, functions and duties of Wages Boards. These powers include the ability to fix minimum rates of wages and prescribe conditions under which a worker may be paid at less than prescribed rates, intervals at which wages shall be paid, hours of work, and weekly and annual holidays. A Wages Board may determine different rates of wages, hours of work or holidays or make such other provision for special circumstances obtaining in particular branches of the trade as it may consider expedient.

At present the following trades are covered by Part II of the Ordinance :—

Tea Growing and Manufacturing	Rubber Export
Rubber Growing and Manufacturing	Toddy, Arrack and Vinegar
Cocoa, Cardamom and Pepper Growing and Manufacturing	Cigar Manufacturing
	Motor Transport
Coconut growing and Manfacturing	Match Manufacturing
Engineering	Cinema
Printing	Dock, Harbour and Port Transport
Plumbago	Building
Tea Export	

A Wages Board for any trade is composed of persons representing employers in the trade, an equal number representing workers in the trade and nominated members who must have no connection or interest in the trade as employer or worker. If a Board so desires it may appoint District Wages Committees which will serve as advisory and reporting bodies on any subjects as may be referred to them by the Board.

The existence of Wages Boards has proved in Ceylon, as in other countries, that they can provide a common meeting ground for the discussion and solution of what appears, at first sight, to be irreconcilable interests. Their value in preventing industrial unrest can perhaps never be accurately gauged but their activities have resulted in an increase in the material welfare of the workers in the industries to which the Ordinance has been applied, as is disclosed year after year in the Administration Reports of the Commissioner of Labour. The functioning of these Boards in practice has finally laid to rest the early fears entertained that this method of wage fixation might prove unsuitable to this country, and their success is in a large measure due to the co-operation of all parties concerned in the working of the Ordinance.

While the determination of the terms and conditions applicable to a trade is the function of a Wages Board, the task of enforcing these decisions is cast upon the Department of Labour. With the gradual extension in the application of Part II the Inspectorate has expanded and to-day a trained body of Inspectors is fully engaged in seeing that the provisions of the Ordinance and the decisions of Wages Board are complied with. The Inspector, in the course of his duties, enforces the law and also makes it his duty to educate employers and workers respectively as to their rights and obligations under this Ordinance. Prosecutions are entered only on failure, after every endeavour is made to recover short payments or to correct the employer by departmental procedure. During 1949, 3,545 inspections were made, the wages of nearly 471,227 workers were checked and short payments amounting to Rs. 244,217 were recovered and paid to the workers concerned.

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FACTORIES, MINES AND SHOPS

The Factories Ordinance, No. 45 of 1942, makes provision for the safety and welfare of workers in factories. It provides for the compulsory registration of factories and deals, among other things, with the following :—

Health.—The matters dealt with under this part include cleanliness, overcrowding, maintenance of reasonable temperature in each work room, effective ventilation, lighting, drainage, sanitary conveniences and the enforcement of provisions relating to these matters.

Safety.—The provisions under this part prescribe adequate protection for all machinery and plant including prime movers, transmission machinery and all machines used in the manufacturing processes, generally. Special safety measures are provided in regard to steam boilers, steam receivers, steam containers, air receivers and gas holders. This part also deals with plant for the lifting of persons and material such as hoists-lifts, cranes, chains, ropes, &c. Provision is also made to ensure safe means of access to and from the places of employment in normal conditions and to safeguard against loss of life by fire and dangerous fumes.

Welfare.—This part deals with the following matters : Drinking water, washing facilities, accommodation for clothing, facilities for sitting, first aid, and welfare regulations.

Special Health, Safety and Welfare provisions of the Ordinance deal with dust or fumes, facilities for taking meals in dangerous trades, protection of eyes, shuttle threading by mouth suction, humid factories, underground rooms, laundries, prohibition of excessive weight lifting for certain workers, safeguards for certain processes. The provisions relating to the employment of women and young persons deal with general conditions including the hours of employment, overtime employment, annual holidays, regulation of employment in certain occupations and certificates of fitness.

The Factories Ordinance, No. 45 of 1942, amending Ordinance No. 22 of 1946 came into force in January, 1950.

The Mines and Machinery Ordinance (Chapter 163 of the Legislative Enactments of Ceylon) provides for the regulations and inspection of mines and machinery and for the safety of persons employed in them. It regulates the opening of mines, besides making provision for ventilation, safety devices, fencing, sanitation and reporting of accidents and investigation. Portions of the Ordinance are administered by Government Agents, the Inspector of Mines and the Director of Public Works. Regulations made under the Ordinance prescribe inspection of plumbago mines once in six months for the purpose of seeing that timbering, modes of ascent and descent and removal of water, use of explosives, protection of entrance, ropes, chains and provision of signals. Regulations further prohibit the employment in mines of persons under 15 years of age and persons under 18 or over 55 in blasting operations in tunnels and galleries.

The health provisions of this Ordinance which are administered by the Director of Medical and Sanitary Services require one latrine for every twelve persons. It also provided for the setting up such latrines and the abatement of nuisance and removal of night-soil.

The Shops Ordinance came into force on August 1, 1939, and the regulations under the Ordinance on October 1, 1939. A Closing Order was made on July 23, 1940, applicable to the shops within the administrative limits of the Municipal Councils of Colombo, Kandy and Galle and on August 31, 1945, another order was made applicable to the Urban Council areas in the Island.

The Shops Ordinance is a piece of social legislation meant to grant relief to the shop assistant, who was the victim of unlimited hours of business, particularly in the Municipal and Urban Council areas. Provision is made in the Ordinance *inter alia*, for limiting his hours of work per day and per week, for the payment of overtime wages, for granting weekly and annual holidays and sick leave, and, in the cases of all except certain classes of shops, for forbidding the transaction of business before and after certain hours.

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There are health provisions, too, in the Ordinance to secure to the shop assistant certain health amenities and comforts in his place of work. Owing to housing shortage and building difficulties, however, these provisions are left in abeyance ; but they will be enforced in the near future.

The Ordinance has, in the comparatively brief period of its application, succeeded in improving considerably the conditions of employment of shop assistants, but there is still much room for improvement. Some of the factors which have militated against speedier and more spectacular results are :—

(*a*) the time-worn habits of unplanned shopping, as a result of which a householder finds he has to buy some article when the shops are required to be closed for business ;
(*b*) the custom of shop owners and their employers living on the premises themselves, which state of affairs leads to the temptation for a customer to buy, and the shop-keeper to sell, outside business hours ;
(*c*) and in a general way, the absence of recreational habits on the one hand and sufficiently attractive recreational facilities on the other for the proper and beneficial use of leisure.

A new Ordinance, embodying certain improvements and including in its ambit mercantile and similar establishments, will be brought before Parliament shortly. With the co-operation of the public and the employers, the workers covered by the Ordinance should enjoy benefits on a wider scale and thus add to their own contentment and that of the community.

IV. Ceylon and the I.L.O.

Ceylon was admitted as a member of the International Labour Organisation at its 31st Session, held in San Francisco (June–July, 1948). Prior to 1947 she formed part of the non-Metropolitan territories administered by the United Kingdom. The latter undertook to apply to Ceylon certain Conventions ratified by the United Kingdom, and Ceylon thus became bound to observe such Conventions. Since Ceylon became a member state of the I. L. O., the following Conventions have been artified in her own right.

Convention (*No.* 6).—Concerning the night work of young persons employed in Industry. This Convention pohibits the employment of young persons under 18 years ot age during the night in any public or private industrial undertaking subject to certain exceptions ;

Convention (*No.* 7).—Concerning the minimum age for admission of children to employment at Sea. Children under the age of 14 years will not be employed on vessels.

Convention (*No.* 29).—Concerning forced or Compulsory Labour.

Convention (*No.* 41).—Concerning employment of Women during the night (revised 1934). Women without distinction of age will not be employed during the night in any public or private Industrial undertaking in terms of Article 3 of the Convention ;

Convention (*No.* 45).—Deals with the employment of women on underground work in mines of all kinds. In terms of Article 2 of the Convention, no female, whatever her age, will be employed on underground work in any mine ;

Convention (*No.* 80).—This Convention mainly deals with procedural matters. Ceylon has also notified the ratification of the following Conventions ;

Convention (*No.* 8).—Concerning unemployment indemnity in case of loss or foundering of the ship (1920) ;

Convention (*No.* 15).—Concerning the minimum age for the admission of young persons to employment as trimmers or stokers (1921) ; and

Convention (*No.* 16).—Concerning the compulsory medical examination of children and young persons employed at Sea (1921)

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V. The Social Services

The first systematic and centrally organised efforts to deal with social distress in Ceylon date only from about the third decade of the present century. Until then the only instruments of aid lay in public charity, private alms, government grants and free medical assistance. These seemed reasonably satisfactory so long as the Island was fundamentally rural and the economy relatively insensitive to the periodic fluctuations which occurred in the price-levels in foreign markets.

The early 1930's, however, were years of economic depression throughout the world. The demand for Ceylon's primary products, which forms the basis of her prosperity, suffered a severe contraction and there was created, here as elsewhere, the problem of mass unemployment. The prevailing distress pushed into prominence the question of poor-relief and the Wedderburn Report was published on the subject in 1934. This served as a guide to governmental policy in the decade that followed.

The malaria epidemic of 1935, coming after the drought of the previous year, gave another violent jolt to the unsteady course of life in many parts of the Island. Mortality rates rose to alarming levels, and the natural increase in population fell from 14.3 per 1,000 in 1934 to only 2.2 in 1935. Special measures of relief were taken from December, 1934, and in 1936 there was published as Sessional Paper V of 1936, the Newnham Report on the ' Relief of Distress due to Sickness and Food '. After commenting on the low standard of diet, it pointed out that the ' specially dangerous feature of the domestic economy of many of the people is the lack of any reserve at the back of this low standard of diet. They are brought very near to starvation point by any small disturbance of their normal equilibrum, such as the death of a man, sickness or unemployment, bad weather conditions, even a small fine in the court '. The diagnosis of that report was confirmed by the economic survey of certain villages conducted by the Department of Commerce and Industries.

In the years intervening the depression and the next World War the fundamentally unsound nature of the economy became more evident. The rigid pattern of undiversified agriculture geared to an export market made the country increasingly susceptible to economic bad weather. By 1936, though the total number of the unemployed had shrunk relatively, considerable distress still prevailed, as was revealed in the Report on Unemployment published as Sessional Paper VII of 1937. The problem was especially severe among the clerical sections, the demand for whose services steadily decreased while the output of educated youth annually expanded. Also in the villages in the wet zone, the pressure of population had become acute. Restriction schemes had clamped down the production of tea and rubber. Small estates closed down ; the larger ones retrenched their labour and so reduced this source of employment to the landless villager. Some persons formerly employed in this way turned to casual labour, in the villages or the cultivation of small gardens in the outskirts. Though not completely unemployed, their earnings slid down to a level insufficient, to afford them a decent living. Others migrated to the urban area in search of jobs, which were rarely found. In the dry zone, outside the Jaffna Peninsula, except in the irrigated areas, deficient rainfall affected crops and the villager eked out an arduous existence.

The inadequacy of the existing social services to meet the problem became evident. They had moreover, developed in piecemeal fashion, without any coherent plan, and had never been previously surveyed as a whole. In July, 1944, therefore, a Commission was appointed to inquire into and report upon :—

(1) the adequacy of the existing social assistance and allied services within the purview of the Executive Committee of Labour, Industry and Commerce, including the schemes provided by law for the payment of workmen's compensation and maternity benefits and the methods of improving, extending and co-ordinating those services ;

(2) the question of introducing social insurance schemes for providing all or any of the following, namely :—

(*a*) old-age pensions ;
(*b*) relief during sickness or prolonged disability ;
(*c*) relief in cases of unemployment ;
(*d*) pensions on retirement from work ; and
(*e*) pensions or other relief to widows and orphans.

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The investigations of the Commission together with its recommendations were embodied in a report, published as Sessional Paper VII of 1947. As a result of the acceptance of some of its recommendations there also occurred a change in the administration of the social services. The functions of the former Ministry of Labour, Industry and Commerce were re-allocated under the Soulbury Constitution, introduced in October, 1947, and there was formed a new Ministry of Labour and Social Services. During the early stages all the subjects and functions allocated to this Ministry were administered by the Department of Labour. But, consequent to the Report of the Social Services Commission, a separate Department of Social Services was created in February, 1948, and to this new Department were transferred the subjects of Poor Relief, Workmen's Compensation, Charitable Institutions, Relief of Distress and Social Insurance, previously administered by the Department of Labour.

Since its inception the new Department of Social Services has been engaged in improving and extending the existing social services and in recruiting and training the staff necessary for the work of the Department. It has also done preparatory work for the introduction of some of the new services recommended by the Social Services Commission as and when the Government decides to introduce them. An inter-departmental committee has, with the advice of the Head of the Social Insurance section of the I.L.O., prepared a report for the introduction of a scheme covering Health and Unemployment Insurance and a National Provident Fund. This report is receiving the consideration of the Government. Two officers of the Department were also sent to the U. K. to obtain a first hand knowledge of the working of the Social Assistance and Insurance Schemes in operation in that country.

THE POOR LAW

The most important piece of social legislation that was promulgated for rendering public assistance to the poor was the Poor Law Ordinance, No. 30 of 1939. Its place as a residuary service even in a fully developed body of Social Services was recognised by the Social Services Commission in their Report. But, considering the rudimentary character of the Social Services in Ceylon, its need here assumed even wider importance. Also being a highly personal service requiring a strong civic consciousness and an awareness of local conditions its administration is vested in the local authorities, the Municipalities, the Urban Councils and the Village Committees. But though the Ordinance contains provision for extending its operation to all urban and rural areas it has in fact not expanded beyond the Municipalities. A few of the Municipalities, finding the obligations imposed on them under the Poor Law Ordinance too irksome, have made requests that they be relieved of this duty or be given adequate financial assistance to cope with their obligations. The entire question of the Poor Law is, therefore, now being reconsidered by Government.

The following are the duties imposed by the Ordinance on the local authority concerned :—

(*a*) the provision of such relief as may be necessary for persons of either sex unable to support themselves owing to physical or mental infirmity or incapacity and are in need of relief ;

(*b*) the provision of such relief as may be necessary for the use of and to assist orphans or children, below a prescribed age, of poor parents who are not able to keep and maintain their children in obtaining educational facilities and industrial training and to erect and maintain school buildings and orphanages for this purpose ;

(*c*) the establishment and maintenance of institutions for the treatment of poor persons ;

(*d*) the payment of contributions in aid of any voluntary agencies which appear to render useful aid in the administration of the relief of the poor, of orphans and the children of poor persons within the administrative limits of the urban local authority and which appear to receive support from the public, provided such agencies agree to register all cases assisted within the Registrar to be appointed by the urban local authority and the grant of the power of inspection to their accounts and methods of administration of the urban local authority or its officers ;

(*e*) the appointment of officers to investigate applications for assistance and the administration of relief and the delegation to such officers the provision of relief in cases of sudden and urgent necessity ;

(*f*) the recovery from the recepient of relief or from prescribed relatives of such recepient who are possessed of sufficient means, the whole or part of the amount expended on his or her relief.

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In areas outside the Municipalities the full responsibility for administering relief is borne by the Central Government and the following schemes are administered by the Department of Social Services through the Revenue Officers who are assisted by District Advisory Committees and Local Committees—

(*a*) Public Assistance ;
(*b*) Relief of distress caused by floods ;
(*c*) Relief of widespread distress due to failure of crops, epidemics and other exceptional causes.

PUBLIC ASSISTANCE

Assistance in the form of monthly allowances is given in necessitous cases to the sick, the aged, the infirm, the physically and mentally defective, widows and destitute wives. The rules for the administration of public assistance to widows and destitute wives have recently been amended and the following are now eligible :—

(1) Widows with dependent children, if in order to attend to their children or on account of physical disability they are unable to work to support themselves and their children.
(2) Women if deserted by their husbands or deprived of their help owing to some incurable disease, imprisonment or other similar cause, provided that in order to attend to their children or on account of physical disability they are unable to work to support themselves and their children.

The 1946 scale of assistance, viz., Rs. 5 per mensem for an individual and Rs. 10 for a person with dependants continued to operate till April, 1948, when the scale was increased to maxima of Rs. 10 and Rs. 20 respectively. The checks on Public Assistance cases carried out by Social Services Officers have proved very useful in eliminating undeserving cases and preventing wasteful expenditure. During the year 1948–49 a sum of Rs. 5,848,746 was expended in relieving about 45,000 persons by the grant of monthly allowances, while the corresponding figures for the previous year were 42,777 persons and Rs. 3,218,691.

CASUAL RELIEF

Allowances are payable for the relief of acute distress resulting from accidents or ' Acts of God ' and affecting individuals in isolated cases or in small groups. The relief grant is subject to a maximum of Rs. 300 in each case, it is limited to the lowest amount necessary to afford relief and is paid only where it can be anticipated that destitution would result if Government assistance was not given. During the year 1948–1949 nearly 1,600 persons were relieved in this manner at a cost of about Rs. 142,000.

VOLUNTARY AGENCIES

The existence of voluntary charitable agencies to aid the poor is an index of a country's social conscience. Their importance is measured not only by the funds collected and distributed and the voluntary service undertaken, but also by the educative value which emphasizes the social obligation of the citizen and prompts the attention of the wealthier classes to the condition of their less fortunate fellows. In Ceylon this obligation, it was noted by the Social Services Commission, derives from an ancient tradition and is supported and maintained by the precepts of all the religions.

Though these voluntary agencies continue to perform a very necessary and useful service the paucity of funds generally makes their efforts inadequate in relation to the large field available to them. Government grants are therefore given to them in amounts usually proportionate to the support they receive from the public. During the year 1948–49 Rs. 106,540 of assistance was given to thirty-eight such voluntary agencies and institutions, as against twenty agencies which received Rs. 41,861 in the previous year.

HOMES FOR THE AGED

Government's policy in regard to Homes for the Aged hitherto has been to assist by means of grants existing Homes which are financed by private subscriptions and some by voluntary agencies. But, owing to the fact that voluntary agencies are unable to cope with the demand for institutional

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relief by the indigent aged persons, the Government has decided to establish State Homes for the Aged. Government would be willing to take over and run a Home, put up by private persons according to type plan and equipped in accordance with standard specifications, provided Government expenditure lies within the limit of the amount of money provided in the annual estimates. It is also intended to erect, equip and run a Home for the Aged entirely at State expense. Steps are being taken to implement the decision of Government to establish such a home for the care and maintenance of the aged and infirm.

THE DEAF AND BLIND

The principle that the after care of the deaf and blind persons is the responsibility of the State has been accepted. In the estimates for 1949–50 a sum of Rs. 402,400 was provided for the establishment of sheltered workshops for the deaf and blind. Two scholars were selected for training in welfare work among the deaf and blind and they are at present undergoing a course of training in the U. K. Plans and estimates are being prepared for the establishment of a sheltered workshop in Seeduwa.

GRANTS TO DISABLED EX-SERVICEMEN

Substantially disabled ex-servicemen whose disability was attributed to or aggravated to a material extent by war service were assisted to set up in business by the grant of money up to Rs. 500 maximum in each case. The ex-servicemen were required to enter into agreements to set up in business within one month and not to liquidate their business within six months without authority. Sixteen such grants were paid during the year 1948–49 amounting to Rs. 6,550.

RELIEF OF DISTRESS

A common cause of abnormal distress is the uncertainty of the rains. Several districts were affected by the unprecedental floods of August, 1947, and severe drought was experienced in a large number of districts. Also the general failure of the *Maha* Crop of 1947 led to widespread distress in several parts of the Island. The distress was aggravated by the lifting of the restrictions on the transport of paddy and rice and the non-arrival of the 1947–48 North-East Monsoon rain.

The scheme for relief of distress due to floods provides for—

(*a*) immediate relief in the form of food, clothing and shelter to those in distress owing to their houses becoming uninhabitable as a result of floods ;
(*b*) immediate relief to those in distress as a result of damage to crops by floods ;
(*c*) grants of money to those whose houses require repairs or rebuilding as a result of damage caused by floods.

Persons who are eligible for grants are those who are dependent solely or partially on daily-paid labour for their maintenance, villagers who cannot be expected to repair the damage caused by floods from their own resources, and minor salaried employees. Assistance is not normally given to persons in receipt of a monthly income of Rs. 100 or more to tenants or persons who exclusively depend for the subsistence on the rent of houses owned by them and damaged by floods.

Relief of widespread distress due to failure of crops, epidemics and other exceptional causes is also provided for by the following measures :—

(1) Provision of unskilled employment in relief works for the able bodied ;
(2) Distribution of free rations to persons who are unable to do any manual work owing to sudden attack of diseases ;
(3) Payment of temporary allowances to old, infirm and indigent persons ;
(4) Where the crops fail free seed is usually provided by the Department of Agriculture, and during an epidemic comforts and protective foods such as malted milk, barley, sago, tea, sugar and coriander are provided, when this is certified to be necessary by the medical officer.

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During the year 1949, crop failures were not extensive. The major portion of the expenditure under this heading was incurred in the latter part of 1948. Relief works were carried out in Vavuniya, Matale and Anuradhapura Districts only.

Floods occurred in Kalutara, Anuradhapura, Puttalam, Jaffna, Batticaloa, Ratnapura and Kegalle, but did not reach such proportions as to require assistance on an extensive scale.

In April severe rain storms were experienced in the Colombo area and as a result of this relief was granted on a large scale.

Scarcity of water was experienced in East Giruwa Pattu and Magam Pattu of the Hambantota District in October, 1949, and arrangements were made for the free supply of water to 2,250 persons for about two months.

Two fires causing serious damage to houses and personal property occurred in Trincomalee in March and April, 1949. The Urban Council granted immediate relief and the Department of Social Services gave cash grants to 89 families who were in distress to enable them to rebuild their houses.

The administration of public assistance and relief of widespread distress is done through the Revenue Officers. Allocation of funds necessary are made to them, from the vote provided in the estimates of the Department of Social Services, by whom is supplied the clerical staff to cope with the additional work involved. During 1949 there were thirty-two Social Services Officers who were working under the supervision of the Revenue Officers and have been helping in checking Public Assistance cases and investigating of distress.

The figures in the following table indicate the amounts expended on relief of widespread distress during the two financial years 1947–48 and 1948–49 :—

TABLE 17.6. AMOUNTS EXPENDED ON RELIEF OF DISTRESS

	1947–48 *Rs.*	1948–49 *Rs.*
Relief of distress caused by floods	1,885,576	428,708
Relief of distress caused by crop failure due to drought	11,150,156	7,177,776
Relief of distress due to other causes		19,570
Total	13,035,732	7,626,054

V. Wages and Cost of Living

During the last war, wages rose in Ceylon because of the increased demand of war services and industries, increased cost of living, labour's growing consciousness of its rights, and recognition by the State of its duties to labour.

As a precise measure of gauging this situation two indices were prepared, one by the Director of Census and Statistics on the basis of the Colombo Town Cost of living, and the other by the Commissioner of Labour on the basis of ' Estate Labour '. The index published by the latter is used in computing the allowances payable to workers on estates and the plumbago trade while the one published by the Director of Census and Statistics is used in computing the allowances payable to Government and mercantile employees.

17—J. N. B 4767 (2/51)

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The following table provides a comparative study of the two indices—Colombo Working class and Estate Labour :—

COST OF LIVING INDEX NUMBERS

	Colombo Working Class	*Estate Labour*
1940	112	106
1941	122	119
1942	164	154
1943	187	196
1944	200	211
1945	221	222
1946	229	228
1947	252	239

	1948		1949		1950	
	Colombo Working class	*Estate Labour*	*Colombo Working class*	*Estate Labour*	*Colombo Working class*	*Estate Labour*
January	251	241	263	269	271	273
February	260	253	261	266	271	277
March	260	260	257	272	266	275
April	263	260	255	266	266	275
May	262	260	254	262	266	269
June	261	255	255	261	271	271
July	263	259	256	262	272	272
August	261	261	256	259	274	277
September	261	264	256	261	283	278
October	259	263	259	261	279	273
November	259	263	262	264	277	274
December	264	268	264	266	273	268

Colombo Working Class Base—Average Price
November, 1938- April, 1939 = 100

Estate Labour Base—Average Price
July-September, 1939 = 100

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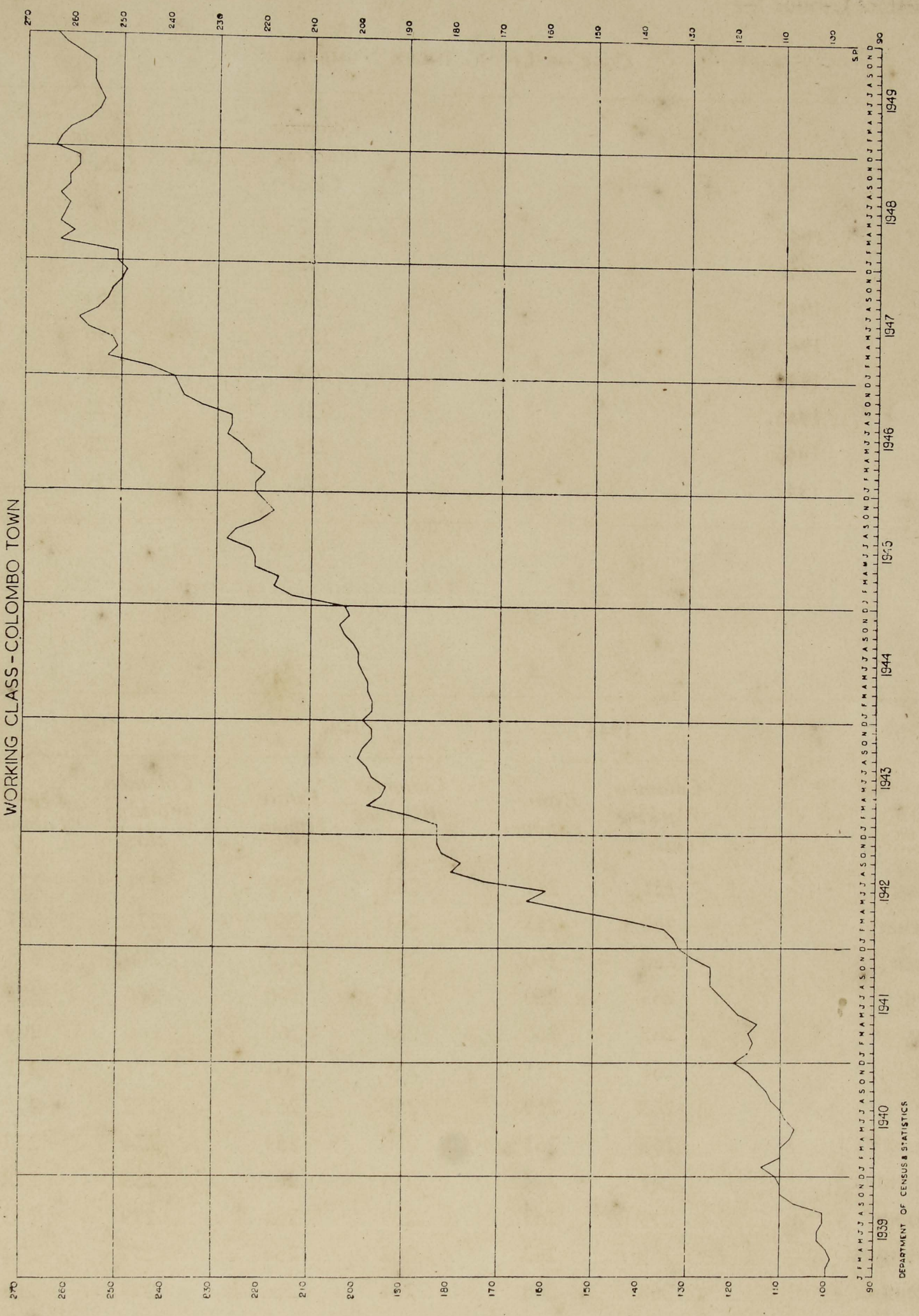
COST OF LIVING INDEX



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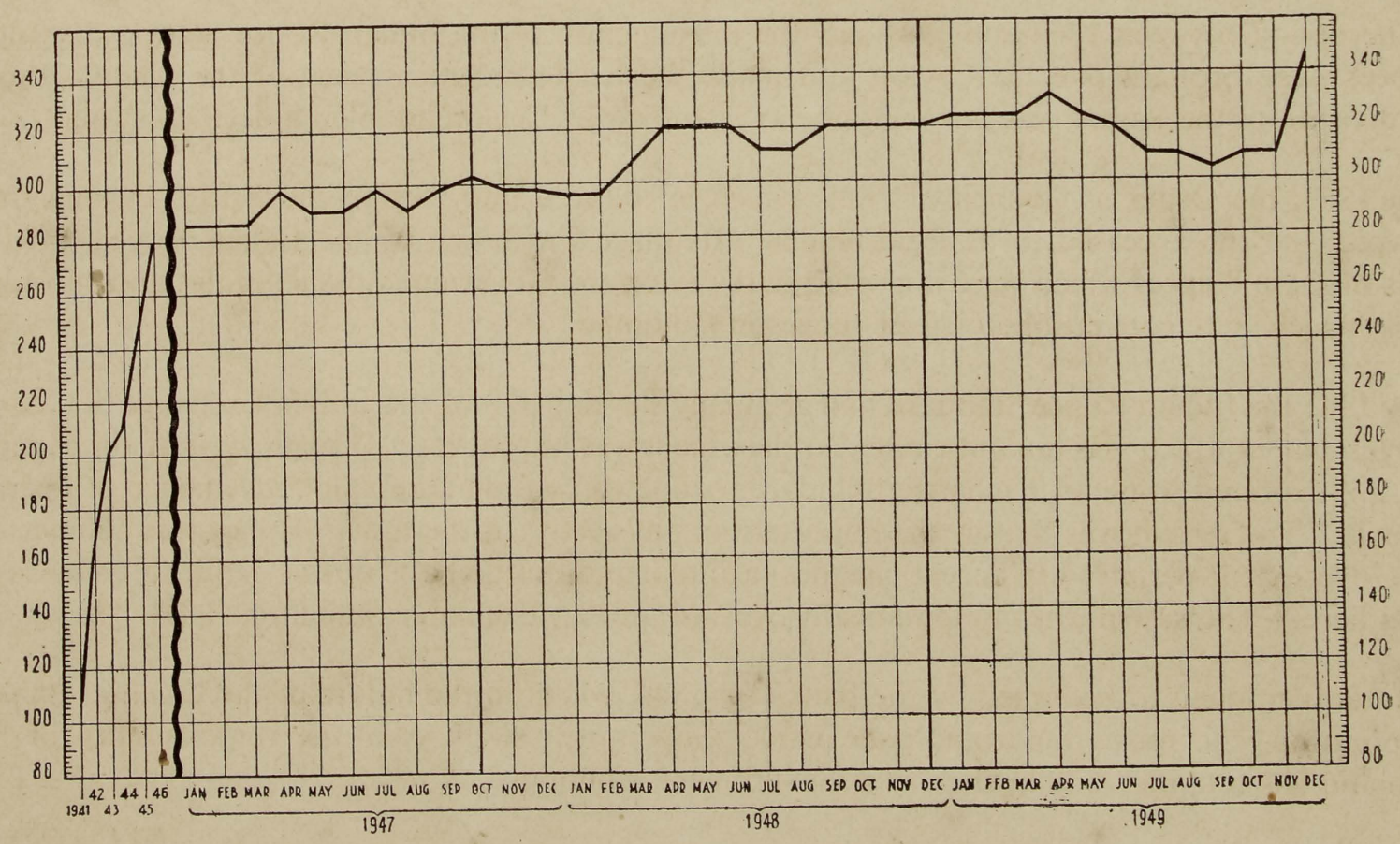
WAGE RATE INDEX OF WORKERS ON TEA AND RUBBER ESTATES

Base : June 1939 = 100

	1941	*1942*	*1943*	*1944*	*1945*	*1946*	*1947*	*1948*	*1949*
January	101	122	188	207	215	273	285	295	324
February	110	122	202	207	220	278	285	295	324
March	110	141	205	210	222	278	285	307	324
April	110	151	207	212	222	278	298	320	332
May	110	163	195	212	220	278	290	320	324
June	110	166	198	215	222	273	290	320	320
July	110	171	200	215	227	273	298	312	310
August	110	185	205	215	278	278	290	312	310
September	110	193	202	217	273	285	298	320	305
October	110	188	202	215	278	285	302	320	310
November	110	188	205	212	278	285	298	320	310
December	110	188	205	212	278	285	298	320	349

WAGE-RATE INDEX OF WORKERS ON TEA AND RUBBER ESTATES

Base : June 1939 = 100



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CHAPTER XVIII

CURRENCY, BANKING AND INSURANCE

I. The Monetary System

MONETARY HISTORY

In the evolution of currency systems the general trend the world over has been a gradual departure from an automatic currency system to a managed one. The tempo of this change has been quickened in recent times, and, with the establishment of a Central Bank, Ceylon too has moved from the stage of currency automatism to that of a managed currency. The history of this development is of particular interest in Ceylon, where the currency system has undergone so many changes in a relatively short time.

When Ceylon came under the occupation of the British in 1796, its currency consisted of copper coins and paper notes. Silver had been legal tender but had long since disappeared from circulation. The unit of account was the Rix-Dollar. Copper coins were in the form of ' fannams ' and 12 fannams exchanged for 1 Rix-Dollar. The British introduced the Madras Rupee (silver) and also issued paper currency.

In 1825 a significant step in currency development was taken when the British Government introduced the £ Sterling, in order to ensure currency uniformity throughout the Empire. Rix-Dollars were withdrawn, but the silver rupee continued to be in wide circulation, with its value fluctuating with the price of silver in the world market. Thus exchange stability, which was so essential owing to the Island's trade with India, was not possible between the rupee and the Sterling, which had become the new Ceylon currency after 1825. Another defect of this system was that every unit of British currency had to be paid for by an excess of exports over imports. Thus the only way to enlarge the volume of currency was by increasing the excess of exports over imports—a task which sometimes was far from easy.

The period between 1869 and 1941 saw the introduction of the Indian Rupee Standard. Indian Rupees were brought over to Ceylon and made the legal tender currency of the Island—though the division of the Rupee was not the same as in India, for Ceylon adopted a decimal system.

In 1869, the Order in Council of 1825, which introduced into Ceylon the British currency, was revoked and the £ ceased to be legal tender. Its place was taken by the Indian Rupee. On the basis of these Rupees which were imported into Ceylon the Government issued notes and subsidiary coins, which were convertible to silver rupees in Colombo.

By 1941 the Indian Rupee Standard had gradually developed into the Indian Exchange Standard—a development which was not anticipated at the time it was introduced. Though, *de jure*, the Standard was not expected to be an Exchange Standard, owing to considerations of convenience, it operated as such. The reason was that as the importation, physically, of the Indian Rupee was cumbersome the Government perferred to accept cheques in India, and on the basis of this credit to issue Ceylon notes here. The system thus automatically evolved into an Exchange Standard.

Notes continued to be issued by the banks till 1844, when on the failure of the Oriental Banking Corporation, the most important issue bank, Government took over the responsibility of note issue and has retained it since then as a Government monopoly.

A radical change was made in the basis of the Island's monetary system by the Currency Ordinance, No. 21 of 1941, which was brought into operation with effect from September 1, 1941. It demonetised the Indian Silver Rupee, and therefore the right to obtain Indian Silver Rupees in

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exchange for Ceylon currency notes was withdrawn. Instead, a new Ceylon rupee was created and linked to the Indian rupee at par. Currency notes were issued locally in exchange for a deposit of the equivalent amount to the credit of the Ceylon Currency Board with the Reserve Bank, Bombay, and conversely Ceylon currency was redeemed by the Ceylon Currency Board by means of payment in Bombay through the Reserve Bank of India. The Currency Board assumed full liability for all the notes in circulation. Thus the position was that Ceylon had *virtually* established a Sterling Standard, because the Ceylon rupee now exchanged at par with the Indian Rupee and the Indian Rupee was itself convertible to the £ Sterling.

More recently modifications have been introduced to this system. In 1946 India gave a gold par value to the Indian Rupee and so did away with the automatic link between her currency and the £ Sterling, while in 1947 she instituted exchange control operations over transactions with Sterling area countries. In June, 1948, Ceylon too, started imposing exchange control with the Sterling area, and when, in the devaluation crisis of September, 1949, Ceylon sought to achieve a greater degree of monetary autonomy by redefining the gold par value of her rupee the last step was taken in completely severing the Ceylon Rupee from the Indian Rupee, as well as from the £ Sterling. The Currency Ordinance, No. 21 of 1941, was therefore amended by the Ordinance No. 40 of 1949 to provide for a Ceylon Rupee, having a par value equal to 2.88 grains of fine gold, as the unit of currency. The Board administering the Ordinance is obliged to exchange Ceylon currency for Indian currency and *vice versa* on that basis. The exchange of Ceylon currency for sterling and *vice versa* on the same basis is also permissible, subject to the prior approval of the Board. This exchange is effected through the Reserve Bank of India, Bombay, and the Crown Agents for the Colonies, London, who are the Ceylon Currency Board's Agents in India and the United Kingdom respectively.

CURRENCY NOTES AND COINS

The following currency notes and coins are legal tender in Ceylon :—

Rs. 1,000 ; Rs. 100 ; Rs. 50 ; Rs. 10 ; Rs. 5 ; Rs. 2 ; Re. 1.

All these notes are legal tender for payment of any amount.

Rs. 1,000 notes are for inter-bank and Currency Board transactions only.

Subsidiary Notes : 50 cents ; 25 cents

These are legal tender for the payment of sums up to Rs. 5.

Subsidiary Coins : 50 cents ; 25 cents ; 10 cents ;

These are legal tender for the payment of sums up to Rs. 5.

5 cents ; 2 cents ; 1 cent ; ½ cent.

These are legal tender for the payment of sums up to Re. 1.

The estimated amount of subsidiary currency in circulation on December 31, 1949, was as follows :—

		Rs.	
Subsidiary Notes	(50c., 25c.)	2,404,413	
Subsidiary Coins	50 cents	3,997,000	
	25 cents	3,495,000	
	10 cents	2,647,000	
Nickel Coins	5 cents	1,897,900	
	2 cents	445,300	
		Rs.	*c.*
Copper Coins	1 cent	932,013	25
	½ cent	86,507	00

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The quantity of coins in circulation cannot be stated with any degree of accuracy. The amount of notes in circulation on December 31, 1949, was as follows :—

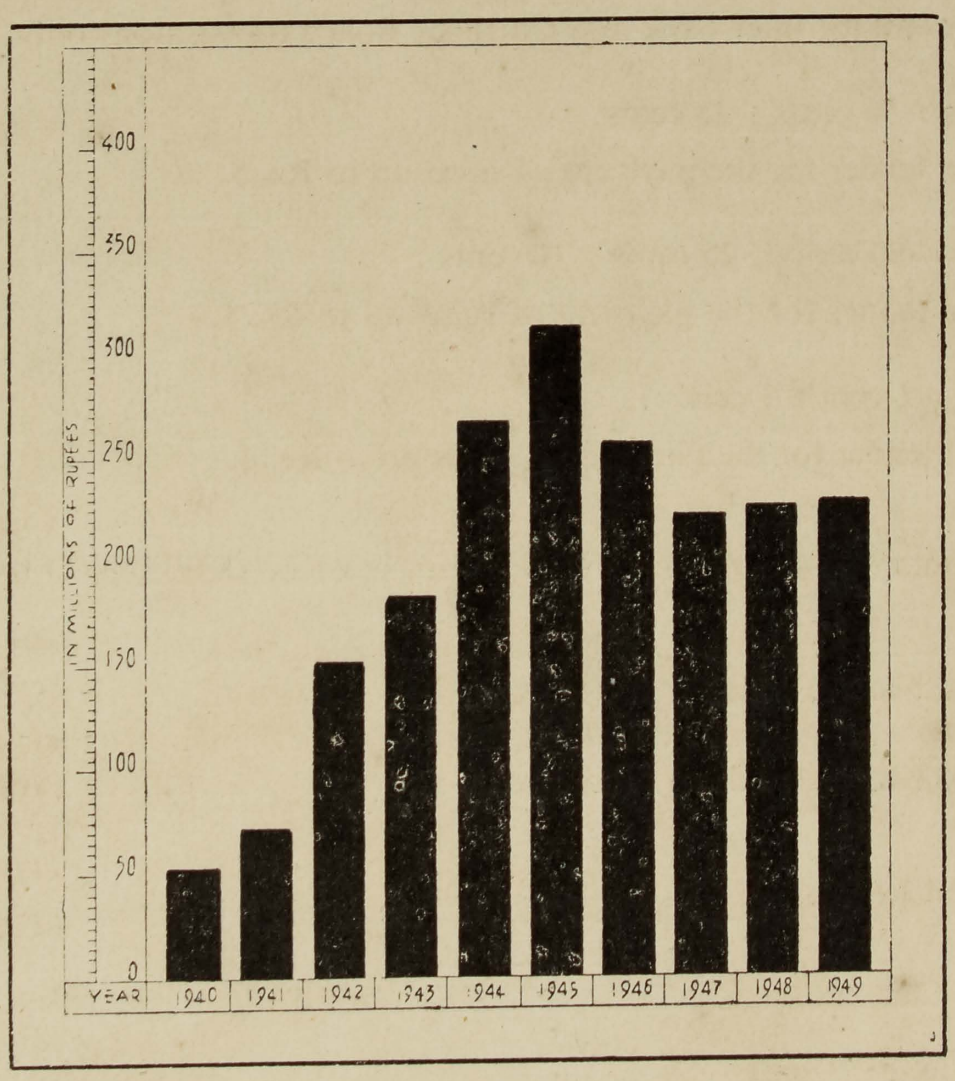
	Rs.
Gross	460,166,119
Net	455,917,534
Active	229,202,643

TABLE 18.1. NOTES IN CIRCULATION, ACTIVE AND GROSS, 1940–49

Year	(*Million Rupees*)		*Year*	(*Million Rupees*)	
	Active	*Gross*		*Active*	*Gross*
1940	53	65	1945	315	433
1941	71	86	1946	258	375
1942	151	171	1947	223	396
1943	184	204	1948	227	411
1944	268	294	1949	229	460

NOTE CIRCULATION

(ACTIVE)



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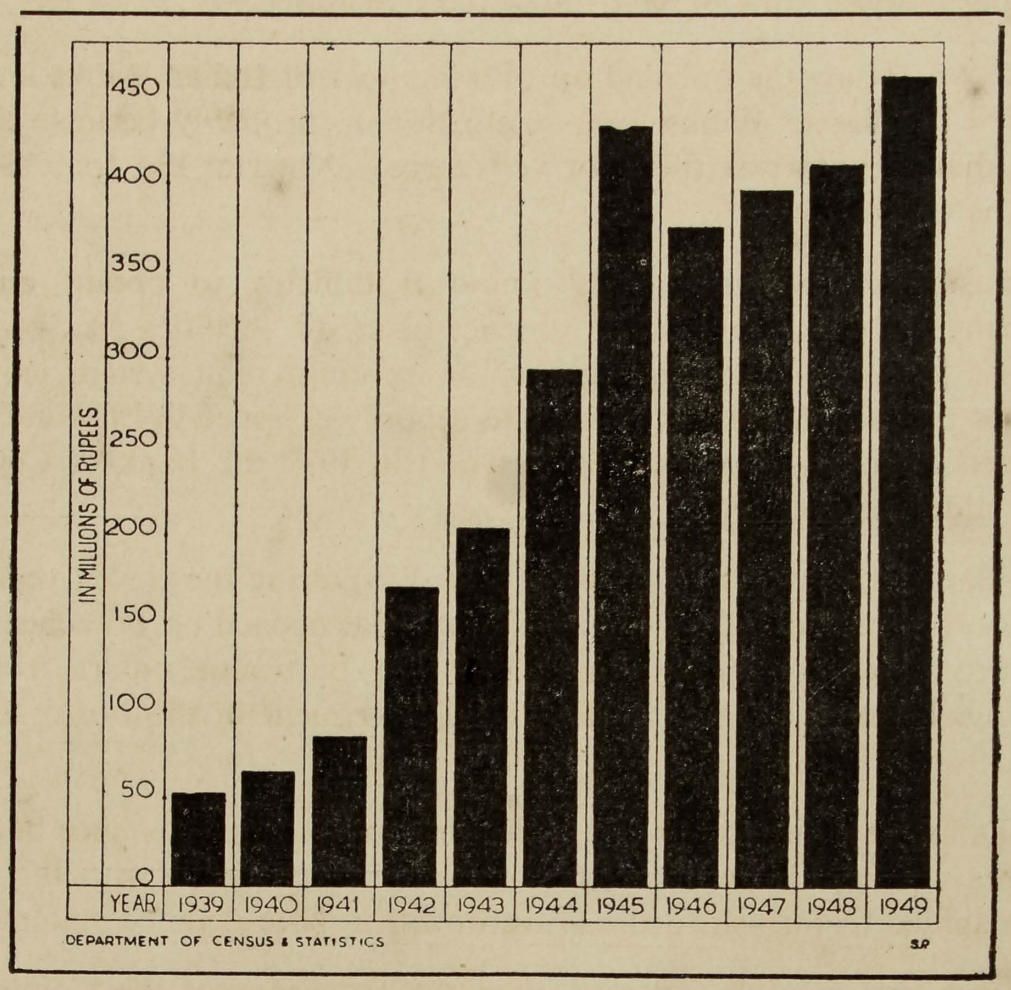
NOTE CIRCULATION

(GROSS)



II. Commercial Banks and Other Credit Institutions

GROWTH OF COMMERCIAL BANKS

Joint Stock banking in Ceylon commenced much later than in India, and even fifty years after the British occupation banking was unknown in the Island. Credit facilities were rare, and even when available, the rate of interest was abnormally high. The result was that traders and agriculturists had to rely solely on their own resources.

In 1841 the first Bank of Ceylon opened with a nominal capital of £125,000, but was destined to be short-lived and perished in the financial crisis of a few years later. This was also the period when the coffee boom was at its peak and capital was rushing into the industry from all sides. In the general optimism that prevailed costs were underestimated and expected profits exaggerated, with the result that the crisis was bound to follow. The burden was aggravated not only by the financial crisis of 1845 in Britain but also by the coffee blight which destroyed the plantations in Ceylon. The Oriental Bank, however, which had opened in 1843, weathered the crisis, by virtue of its wider experience of management, and when the first Bank of Ceylon failed it took the latter over in its entirety. The depression lasted nearly three years and when the recovery began many new banks came on the scene.

In 1854 the Chartered Mercantile Bank of India, London and China opened a branch in Colombo ; so did the Bank of Madras in 1867, and in 1881 the National Bank of India. But the year 1884, saw the crash of the Oriental Bank. This was, indeed, one of the biggest disasters in the history of European banking in the East, and only the prompt guarantee of the Bank's notes by the Government in Ceylon saved the business community from complete paralysis.

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Eight years later the Chartered Bank of India, London, China and Australia and the Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation opened branches in Ceylon ; while the following year saw the voluntary winding up of the Chartered Mercantile Bank of India, London and China, only to be reconstructed under the simpler name of Mercantile Bank of India.

The close of World War I saw the opening up of a number of Indian Banks and also of several Exchange Banks. The Exchange Banks were solely British, probably because the Island's trade with countries other than Britain was then not very large. None of the Joint Stock banks were of course owned by the Ceylonese.

The indigenous business community stilly found it difficult to obtain credit. When the depression set in during the early thirties the absence of credit facilities was brought into sharp focus. Ultimately the growing discontent against the existing credit system led to the appointment of the Pochkanawala Banking Commission. Its report was issued in 1934 and it recommended, *inter-alia*, a State-aided national bank for Ceylon ; and in 1939 the Bank of Ceylon commenced operations as a State-aided national bank.

The growth of the Bank of Ceylon has been very rapid. During the eleven years of its existence its business activities had increased to such an extent that it has opened up branches in Galle, Kandy, Badulla, Jaffna, Trincomalee, Panadure, Kurunegala and Batticaloa, apart from its branch in Pettah, and the Savings Department and the Foreign Department in the Fort. In 1949 it opened a branch in London.

From 1939 all banks in the Island registered under the Companies Ordinance began to file annual statements of accounts with the Registrar of Companies in accordance with the same Ordinance. In 1943, these banks agreed to furnish to the Government a more detailed statement quarterly.

Of the banks (foreign and local) registered under the provisions of the Companies Ordinance, No. 51 of 1938, in the year 1949, the following continued to do business during the year under review :—

Chartered Bank of India, Australia and China.
Eastern Bank, Limited.
Grindlays Bank, Limited.
Habib Bank, Limited.
*Hatton Bank, Limited (Incorporated under the provisions of the Joint Stock Companies Ordinance).
Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation.
Imperial Bank of India, Limited.
Indian Bank, Limited.
Indian Overseas Bank, Limited.
Mercantile Bank of India, Limited.
National Bank of India, Limited.
Oriental Bank of Malaya, Limited.

The Bank of Ceylon incorporated by the Bank of Ceylon Ordinance is the only statutory bank which does commercial banking business as defined in this Ordinance. Other statutory banks on a limited scale are the Ceylon Savings Bank, the Post Office Savings Bank, the State Mortgage Bank and the Agricultural and Industrial Credit Corporation. A certain amount of specialised banking activity is conducted by Co-operative banks, while the Co-operative Federal Bank has been recognised as a banking institution under the provisions of section 126 of the Monetary Law Act No. 58.

BANKING STATISTICS

The total deposits including bankers' deposits have steadily increased from Rs. 216 million in December, 1940, to Rs. 801 million in December, 1949.

* Local Bank.

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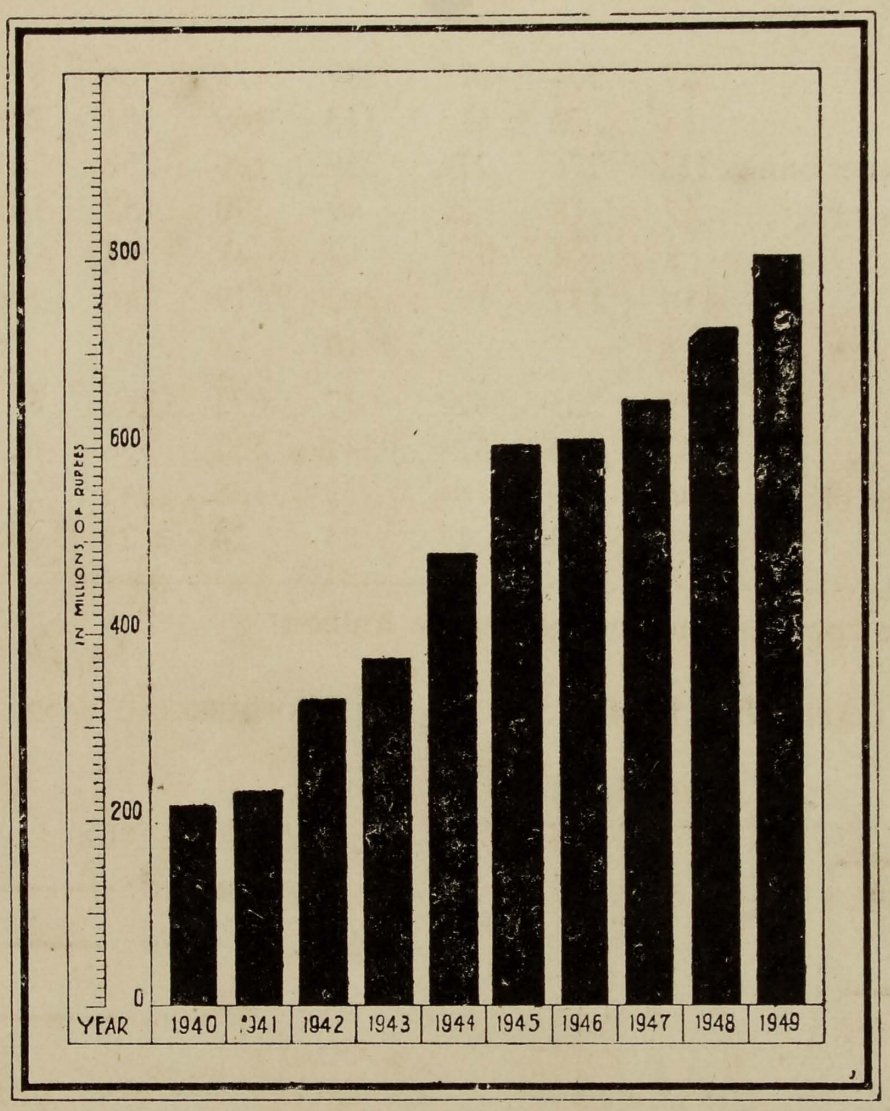
TABLE 18.2. COMMERCIAL BANK DEPOSITS, 1940–49

Year	(*Million Rupees*)	*Year*	(*Million Rupees*)
1940	216	1945	601
1941	231	1946	606
1942	330	1947	649
1943	373	1948	724
1944	487	1949	801

BANK DEPOSITS

(IN MILLIONS OF RUPEES)



The percentage of net overseas assets to total deposits for the years 1943 to 1949, has been as follows :—

1943	*1944*	*1945*	*1946*	*1947*	*1948*	*1949*
60.8	59.0	39.6	35.0	16.5	21.5	12.6

In 1943 the banks had Rs. 80 million in local investments. This figure has steadily increased and in 1949 stood at Rs. 204 million. The end of the war in 1945 saw an extraordinarily large increase in the cash in hand of banks. The figure went up from Rs. 18 million in 1943 to Rs. 228 million in 1949. Advances in Ceylon too went up from Rs. 17 million in 1943 to Rs. 90 million in 1947. In 1948 there was a slight decline in this figure when it went down to Rs. 82 million and in 1949 it increased again to 101 million.

Owing to lack of investments banking business has been mainly confined to the collection of deposits and finding investments for the bulk of such deposits outside the Island. With the issue of Ceylon Government Loans, a good part of this investment has been diverted to Ceylon.

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The following figures showing the average monthly bank clearings, in million rupees, give an indication of the volume of banking business for the period 1939 to 1949 :—

1939	*1940*	*1941*	*1942*	*1943*	*1944*	*1945*	*1946*	*1947*	*1948*	*1949*
98.7	134.7	151.4	183.9	227.2	279.9	331.5	306.1	349.3	390.7	418.1

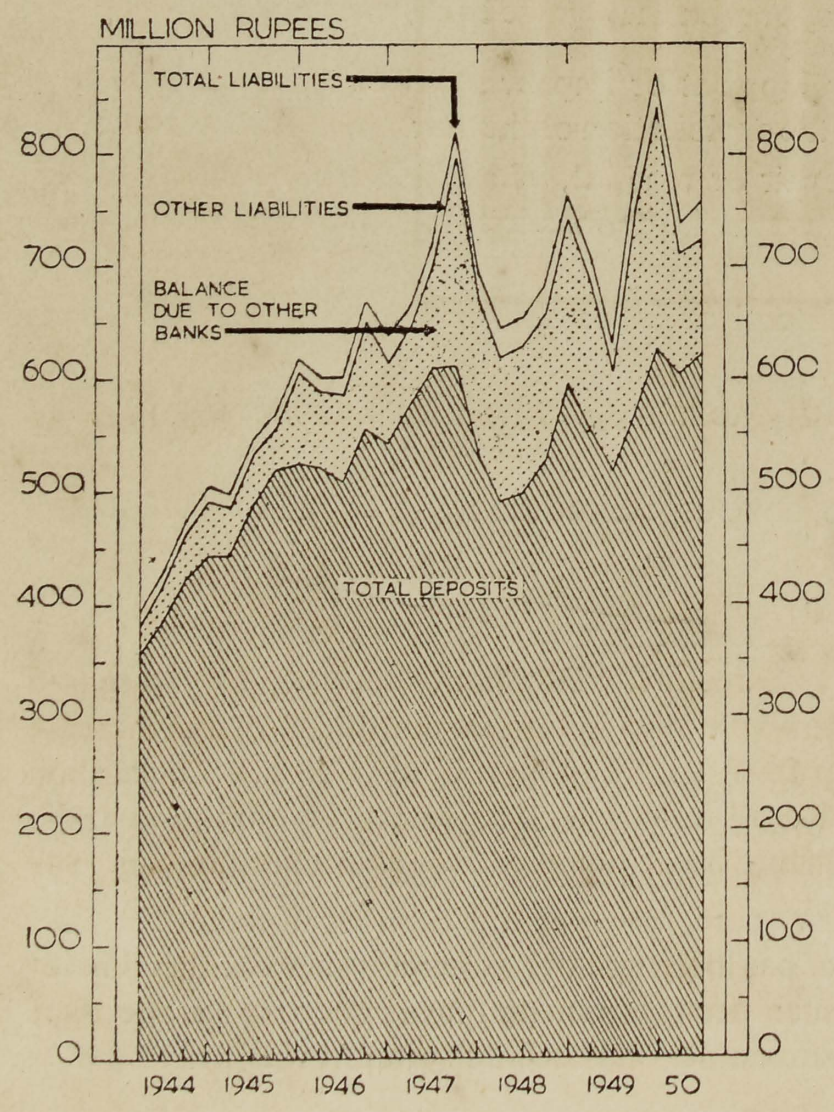
Some of the main items which constitute the Assets and Liabilities of local banks are given below :—

TABLE 18.3. COMMERCIAL BANK ASSETS AND LIABILITIES (RS. MILLION)

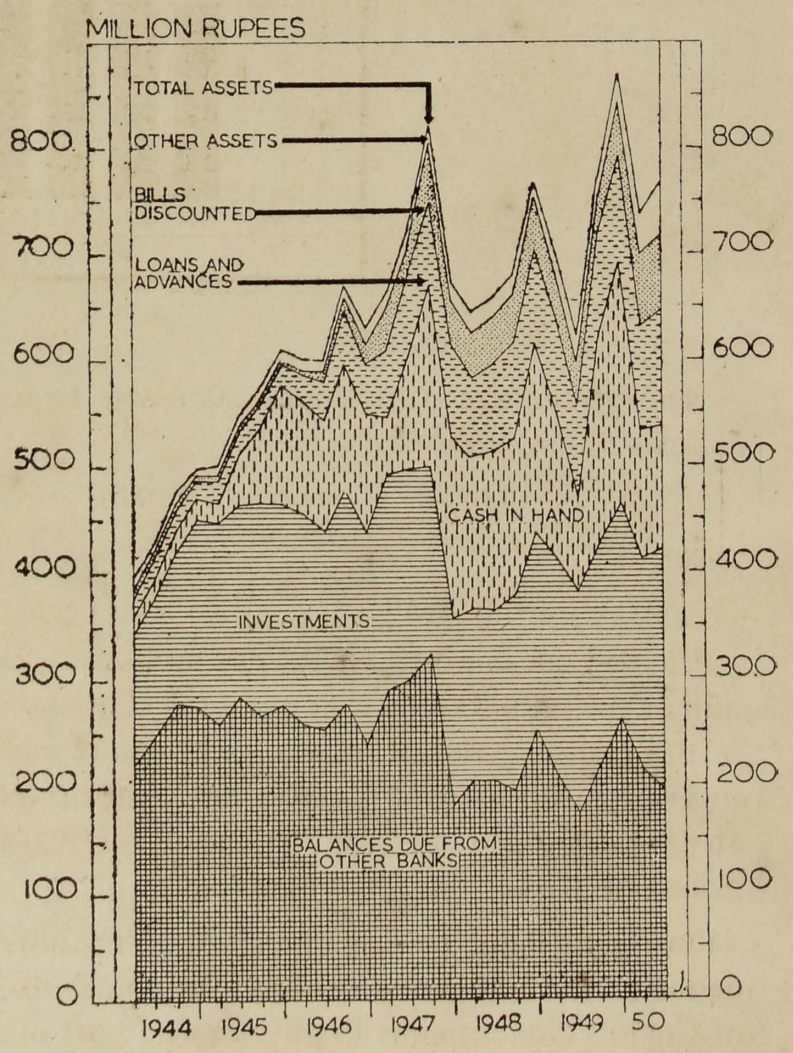
	1943	*1944*	*1945*	*1946*	*1947*	*1948*	*1949*	1950 *1st Quarter*	1950 *2nd Quarter*
Assets	389	504	617	637	675	764	875	741	775
Cash in hand	18	22	113	113	169	181	228	122	118
Balances due from other banks	223	276	276	239	180	252	261	214	197
Loans and advances	17	18	21	49	90	82	101	100	108
Bills discounted	8	4	6	19	41	47	53	70	73
Investments	116	177	191	202	179	186	206	196	227
Other assets	8	7	8	16	16	17	26	39	52
Liabilities	389	505	622	637	693	762	873	739	760
Total deposits	337	444	524	541	532	596	625	605	621
Balances due to other banks	40	49	84	72	138	145	217	105	104
Other liabilities	12	13	13	24	24	21	31	29	35

N. B.—The figures are approximated to the nearest million.

COMMERCIAL BANK LIABILITIES, 1944–1950



COMMERCIAL BANK ASSETS, 1944–1950



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THE CEYLON STATE MORTGAGE BANK

The Ceylon State Mortgage Bank was established in October, 1931, under Ordinance No. 16 of 1931 for the purpose of granting long-term loans for agricultural and other prescribed purposes on the primary mortgage of immovable property situated in Ceylon, including the granting of loans to enable people to purchase urban lands and erect buildings on them.

The Ordinance provides that the funds for the purpose should be obtained by the issue of debentures and that the total indebtedness on the principal of such debentures should not exceed Rs. 25,000,000, the debentures being guaranteed by Government and bearing interest at rates fixed by the Board at the time of the issue of debentures.

The Bank is not a charge on the Government since its money is borrowed from the public on debentures and loans are granted on suitable security. The Bank reserves for itself a marginal profit to cover its overhead expenses.

During the first five years of the Bank's existence 149 loans were granted in all amounting to Rs. 3,670,000 and in the second period, *i.e.*, from 1936 to 1941, 388 loans were paid out totalling Rs. 7,133,105. This shows a considerable increase in the volume of business transacted. The peak years of business were 1936 and 1937 when the amount of loans granted each year exceeded Rs. 2,000,000 while the subsequent years show a considerable falling off in this respect. In 1944, loans amounting to 15 lakhs were repaid and mainly owing to war prosperity and inflation, new loans granted by the Bank did not exceed 5½ lakhs. The loans granted in 1946 totalled Rs. 591,600. The falling off in the volume of business is further attributed to restrictions on trade and shipping occasioned by the war. The loans granted in 1947, 1948 and 1949 totalled Rs. 1,665,000, Rs. 2,281,500 and Rs. 2,339,750 respectively. There is now a definite upward trend in the bank's business. The Reserve Fund of the Bank now amounts to nearly a million rupees.

THE AGRICULTURAL AND INDUSTRIAL CREDIT CORPORATION

The Agricultural and Industrial Credit Corporation of Ceylon commenced business in December, 1943, having been established by Ordinance No. 19 of 1943 for the purpose of re-financing agricultural debt and financing new industrial enterprises by providing long-term credit facilities. The authorised business of the Corporation is fully set out in section 50 of the Ordinance. The purposes for which the Agricultural and Industrial Credit Corporation may grant loans are :—

(*a*) the purchase or lease, or the cultivation, development or improvement of any land used or to be used for any purpose of agriculture or for the exploitation of the mineral resources thereof ;

(*b*) the purchase or lease, or the construction, repair or renewal, of any building, factory, mill, mine, machinery or equipment used or to be used in connection with any agricultural or industrial undertaking ;

(*c*) the manufacture or preparation of any agricultural or industrial product or commodity for sale in the market ;

(*d*) any purpose incidental, accessory or ancillary to any purpose mentioned in any of the foregoing sub-paragraphs ;

(*e*) the liquidation of any debt already incurred for any purpose mentioned in any of the foregoing sub-paragraphs.

Loans are granted on the security of movable or immovable property situated in any part of the Island the title to which is acceptable to the Board of Directors. The minimum loan to be granted to any applicant by the corporation is Rs. 500.

During the first five years ending September 30, 1948, the corporation granted a total of 180 loans amounting to Rs. 10,934,925. The peak year was 1945, during which the total sum granted amounted to Rs. 3,935,500. Over Rs. 2,500,000 on the average, has been granted every year except in the first year of business, 1944, and in 1947. Since then, however, the number of loans and the sums granted have gradually increased to a total of 86 loans in 1949 amounting to Rs. 3,028,350. In 1949, of the total number of loans granted, thirty-one were those which ranged between Rs. 500 and below Rs. 5,000. In the same year the amount received as interest on loans granted was Rs. 469,010.

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III. The Central Bank of Ceylon

The transition from a colonial to a free national economy necessitated changes in the financial structure of the Island, and expert advice in this sphere was obtained through the good offices of the United States Government. Mr. John Exter of the U. S. Federal Reserve System came to Ceylon in December, 1948, and was commissioned to :

'(*a*) report on the organisation and the functions of a Reserve Bank for Ceylon with a view to ensuring within the limits of monetary action, full employment of the economic resources of the country and, if need be, the proportion of supplemental credit institutions in furtherance of this policy, and

(*b*) frame proposals for a draft constitution of the Reserve Bank of Ceylon.'

Mr. Exter's report and Draft Bill were presented to the Government in October, 1949, and was published as Sessional Paper No. XIV of 1949.

Prior to the establishment of the Central Bank, Ceylon's currency system was administered by a Board of Currency Commissioners, whose powers were limited to the automatic issue of Ceylon rupee notes and coins against an equivalent value of rupees lodged with the Reserve Bank of India ; conversely, such notes and coins were reduced when the Board was asked to pay out Indian rupees from its account with the Indian Reserve Bank.

For a growing economy this system has serious disadvantages. It could not influence the money supply in any way and tended to impart a ' consistently deflationary bias ' to the economy of the country. The money supply could be increased only by an active balance of payments on current accounts or by borrowing from abroad. It was an excessively rigid system and could not meet the needs of a growing population and an increasing trade.

MONETARY LAW ACT

The Central Bank of Ceylon opened on August 28, 1950. Its establishment was provided in the Monetary Law Act, No. 58 of 1949, which came into force on December 18, 1949. The Act placed the responsibilities for Central Bank policy and administration in a Monetary Board composed of three members.

The new Monetary Law Act defined the value of the Ceylon rupee in terms of gold, thus changing the whole basis of the relationship of the Ceylon rupee to other currencies of the world. But its greatest significance lies in the provision of section 5 of the Act, which goes to charge the Central Bank with the duty of regulating the supply, availability, cost and international exchange of money as to secure so far as possible by action authorised by this act the following objects, that is to say :—

(*a*) the stabilisation of domestic monetary values,

(*b*) the preservation of the par value of the Ceylon Rupee and the free use of the rupee for current international transactions,

(*c*) the promotion and maintenance of a high level of employment and real income in Ceylon, and

(*d*) the encouragement and promotion of the full development of the productive resources of Ceylon.

The Central Bank is, of course, a Government-aided bank, but the responsibility for its management and operation rests in the Monetary Board, which is a Government Agency. The Monetary Act also provided specifically for the establishment of two departments, the Department of Economic

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Research and the Department of Bank Supervision. The latter is charged with the supervision and periodical examination of all banking institutions in Ceylon, and the Monetary Board is vested with the power of suspending or restricting the business of any banking institution. It is essentially a Banker's Bank with broad powers to administer the monetary system and to regulate banking and credit.

PLACE OF THE BANK IN THE ECONOMY OF CEYLON

Dwelling on the significance of a Central Bank in an underdeveloped economy like Ceylon, Mr. Exter, in his report recommending the establishment of the Bank, observed :

'Experience of Central Banks in under-developed economies records that such Banks need different and even wider powers than there is in developed economies. Traditional instruments of central bank action, like setting the discount rate, and engaging in open-market operations are often ineffective or inappropriate even in highly developed countries like Britain and the United States. In a country like Ceylon, with its small capital market, such instruments may be utterly useless. Special problems are also created where the great majority of the credit institutions are foreign-owned.

In countries similar to Ceylon central banks have had to devise new instruments of action. In this way have been developed, such instruments as control of reserve requirements, interest rates, portfolio ceilings, capital-asset ratios, and letter of credit margins.

It is obvious that the resources of the Island cannot be freely developed unless credit is made more freely available. But a Central Bank cannot force a commerical bank to lend when it does not wish to lend. It is therefore advisable that in Ceylon the Central Bank should have authority to lend at certain times to credit institutions other than commercial banks and that it should have the authority to take measures to reduce some of the unusual risks of lending in Ceylon. For this reason it is recommended that the Central Bank has the authority to lend to mortgage lending institutions and also to the Co-operative Credit Movement, whose sound development in the past indicates that it is a movement promising means of making greater credit facilities to the small farmer. In order to reduce the risk of lending in Ceylon the Central Bank should have the authority to act as agent of the Government in such systems of loan insurance or loan guarantees as may be established in the future.

Like a number of other under-developed economies the Ceylon economy is ordinarily dependent for its prosperity upon its ability to sell a few primary commodities in foreign markets at satisfactory prices. It is therefore peculiarly dependent upon economic conditions abroad, and is especially sensitive to the world business cycle. It would be a mistake to anticipate that the Central Bank will be immediately able to insulate the Ceylon economy against short-run fluctuations in the receipts of the major export industries on which the level of consumption in Ceylon primarily depends. The most that the Bank is able to do is to help alleviate some of the more serious of such fluctuations. In the long run, however, the bank may be able to do a great deal towards strengthening the economy. By helping to direct the savings and credit resources of the nation as well as of foreign capital, into agricultural development and new industries, it can stimulate a diversification of the economy which will make it more resilient and adequate to change in economic conditions abroad.'

IV. Insurance

Insurance, like Banking, had till recent years been the monopoly of foreign companies. It was only when the Motor Ordinance of 1938 came into operation, making Third Party Insurance compulsory, that indigenous business interests took to insurance. Since then Ceylonese Insurance Companies have not only increased in number but also taken to underwriting every variety of risk. Many companies, however, commenced with motor insurance as their first concern.

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In 1911, with the enactment of the insurance Ordinance No. 11 of that year, an attempt was made to introduce legislation relating to Insurance companies. It was based largely on the Assurance Companies Act of 1909 of the United Kingdom. So numerous were the representations made against it that it was not brought into operation and has remained a dead letter to this day.

The enacting in India of the Indian Insurance Act in 1938, based mainly on the recommendations of the Clauson Committee, once again brought the question of insurance legislation to the forefront. A draft Ordinance based on the India Act with minor changes was published in 1938, but nothing came of it as the war and constitutional changes intervened.

In 1948 a Commission was appointed with Mr. L. M. D. de Silva, K.C., as Chairman to report on Company Law, Banking, Insurance and Accountants and Auditors. Its first Interim Report ' making recommendations as to the measures that should be adopted for the registration and more effective control of insurance activities in Ceylon ' was published in February, 1950 with a ' Draft Insurance Bill ' for that purpose.

The report recommends the establishment of a Department of Insurance with a Superintendent as its head vested with wide powers to regulate and supervise insurance companies. The draft Bill contains, *inter-alia*, provisions to cover :—

(1) *The Registration of insurance companies.*—Only registered companies being allowed to carry on the insurance business of any class, the Superintendent having power to cancel registration under specified circumstances.

(2) *The making of deposits.*—Every insurance company being required to make a deposit with the Deputy Secretary to the Treasury, in respect of each class of insurance business covered by the company, the maximum deposit however being Rs. 200,000.

(3) *Accounts and Balance Sheet.*—Every insurance company being required to prepare annually a Balance Sheet, a Profit and Loss Account, a Profit and Loss appropriation account and a Revenue account, these statements being duly audited by an approved auditor.

(4) *Actuarial Report and Abstract.*—In respect of Life Insurance business an actuarial investigation once in every five years is insisted upon.

(5) *Submission of Returns.*—Every company is required to furnish copies of all audited accounts and actuarial reports to the Superintendent, who is vested with wide powers in respect of them. There is provision, however, for an appeal to the District Court, the decision of which shall be final.

(6) *Inspection and investigation.*—The Superintendent is vested with powers to order an investigation when he has reason to believe that the interests of policy holders are in danger, or that the company is unable to meet its obligations or is at fault in complying with any of the provisions of the Insurance Act, or where an offence under the Act has been or is likely to be committed.

The draft Bill also contains special provisions to cover Life Business and Life Policies, and also provisions regarding amalgamation, transfer and winding up of insurance business.

The De Silva Commission considered the question of the desirability of compelling insurance companies to invest in Ceylon the premia collected in Ceylon, but left to Parliament (under section 53 of the Bill) to control the investment of Insurance Premia by resolution if and when it thought fit. Generally, however, it thought it ' clearly desirable in the interests of Policy holders to permit as wide a range as possible of sound investment '. Nor did the Commission think it within their terms of reference to consider the question of whether or not the State should undertake insurance business either as a monopoly or side by side with private enterprise.

The draft Bill which incidentally provides for the Repeal of Insurance Ordinance, No. 11 of 1911, is expected to come up before Parliament during 1951.

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CHAPTER XIX

PUBLIC FINANCE AND TAXATION

Revenue and Expenditure

THE revenue and expenditure of the Island for the last ten financial years ended September 30, 1949 were as follows :—

Year	*Revenue*		*Expenditure*		*Loan Expenditure*	
	Rs.	*c.*	*Rs.*	*c.*	*Rs.*	*c.*
1939–40	123,130,498	93	122,356,249	03	6,476,524	87
1940–41	132,427,034	81	127,345,109	14	5,442,590	08
1941–42	156,545,572	55	153,289,233	01	23,691,360	80
1942–43	200,006,747	39	185,006,506	65	26,142,941	92
1943–44	249,336,887	37	210,680,627	41	27,687,616	21
1944–45	303,902,778	33	254,397,313	31	31,609,048	63
1945–46	383,263,326	94	312,855,337	15	36,016,308	80
1946–47	461,173,262	58	405,387,433	51	32,072,616	21
1947–48	540,605,161	44	621,952,721	09*a*	70,318,462	83
1948–49	576,063,089	73	547,863,936	14*b*	122,492,197	77

'Revenue' as shown in this statement excludes credits of an extraordinary nature, such as recovery from Loan Funds of sums advanced in previous years and surplus in Sinking Fund.

'Expenditure' as shown in this statement excludes debits of an extraordinary nature, such as sums advanced from Revenue and chargeable to Loan Funds in subsequent years.

'Loan Expenditure' includes not only expenditure from Loan Funds but also advances from Revenue for loan works pending raising of loans.

Taxation and yield.—The main heads of taxation and yield in respect of the financial years 1947–48 and 1948–49 are as follows :—

	1947–48		*1948–49*	
	Rs.	*c.*	*Rs.*	*c.*
Customs	314,055,863	43	329,291,164	51
Port, Harbour, Wharf, &c.	10,085,770	02	13,847,860	55
Excise and Salt	46,771,048	87	46,206,845	74
Income Tax, &c.	104,189,475	11	121,431,753	28
Licences, Internal Revenue, &c.	4,005,073	52	4,769,675	15
Fees of Court or Office, &c.	4,354,794	78	4,539,889	36
Medical Services	3,366,977	81	3,223,730	74
Reimbursements	7,458,938	66	9,143,775	73
Port and Telecommunication Services	16,340,587	94	17,621,585	94
Interest, Annuities, &c.	5,590,120	94	6,129,784	40
Miscellaneous receipts	19,754,560	14	15,666,568	22
Land Revenue	2,022,701	84	1,958,235	22
Land Sales	223,640	63	311,906	89
War Loan Interest	2,385,607	75	1,920,334	00

a Includes Rs. 174,417,318.11 as food subsides.
b Includes Rs. 55,126,163.98 as food subsides.

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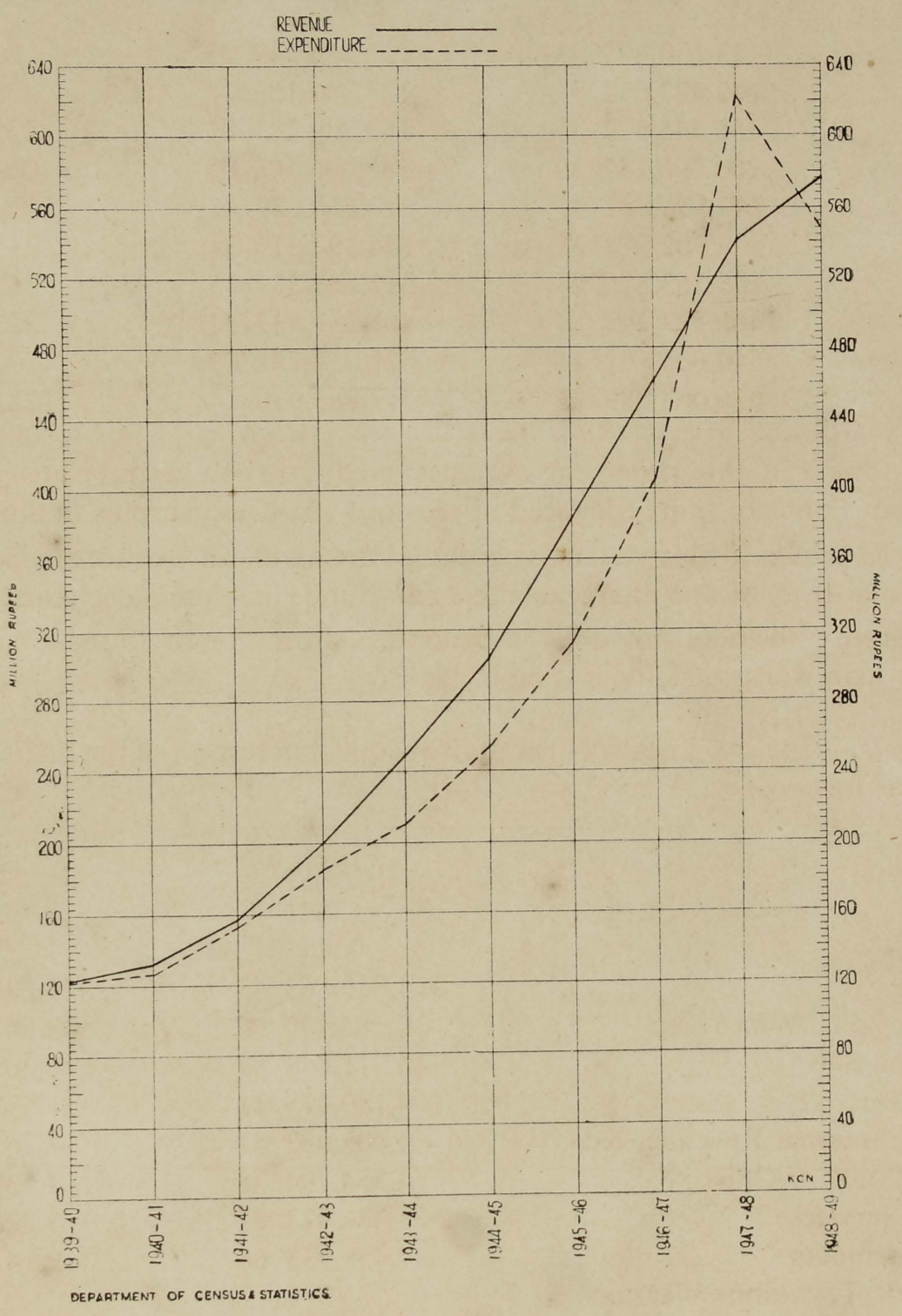
REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE



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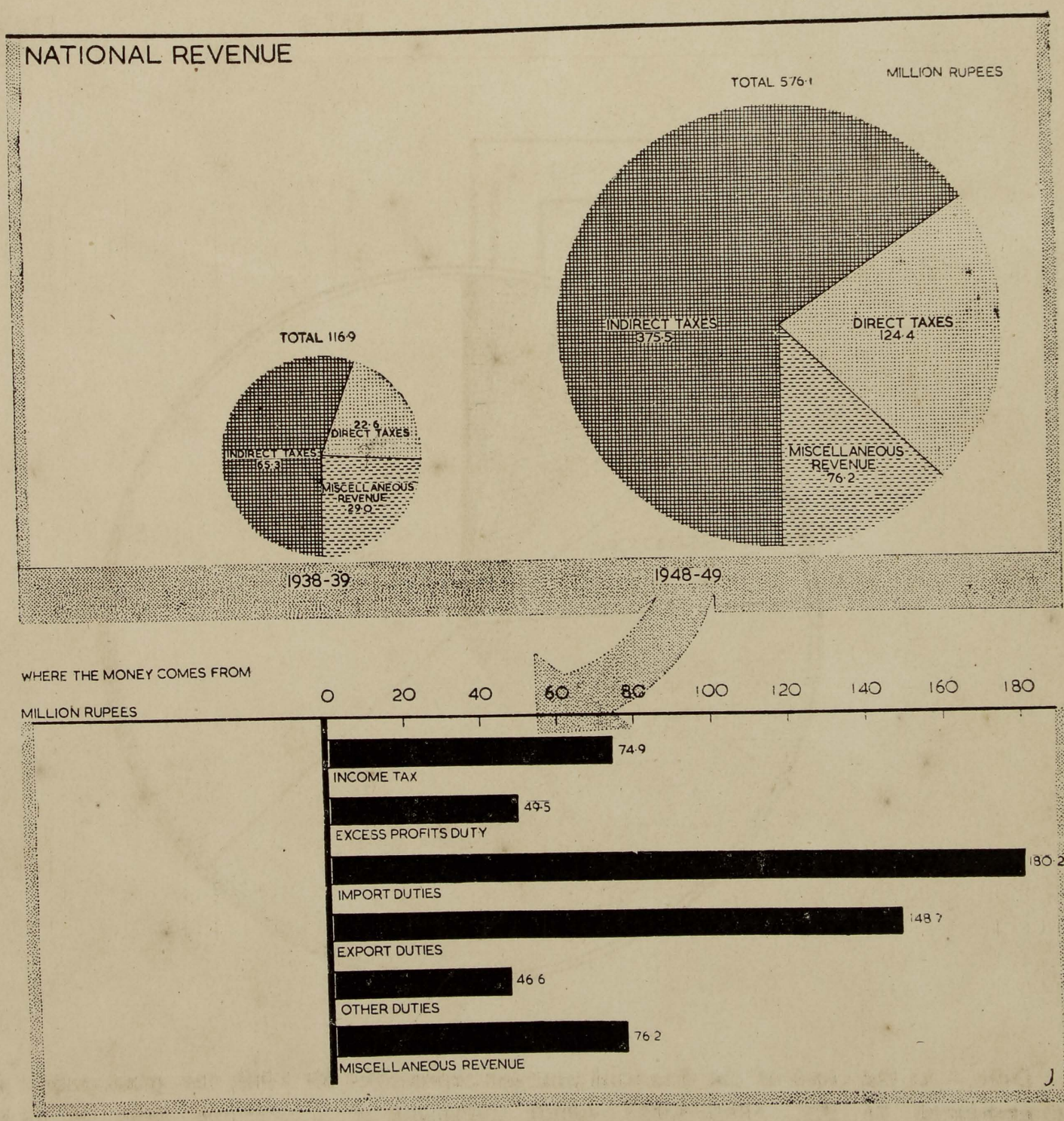
The following is an analysis of the national revenue under the broad heads, *e.g.*, Direct Taxes Indirect Taxes and Miscellaneous Revenue.

NATIONAL REVENUE

(*Million Rupees*)

	1938–39		*1948–49*	
Direct Taxes	*22.6*	*19.3%*	*124.4*	*21.6%*
Income Tax	17.3	14.8%	74.9	13.0%
Excess Profits Duty	5.3	4.5%	49.5	8.6%
Indirect Taxes	*65.3*	*55.9%*	*375.5*	*65.2%*
Import Duties	51.9	44.4%	180.2	31.3%
Export Duties	3.3	2.8%	148.7	25.8%
Other Duties	10.1	8.7%	46.6	8.1%
Miscellaneous Revenue	*29.0*	*24.8%*	*76.2*	*13.2%*
Total Revenue	116.9		576.1	



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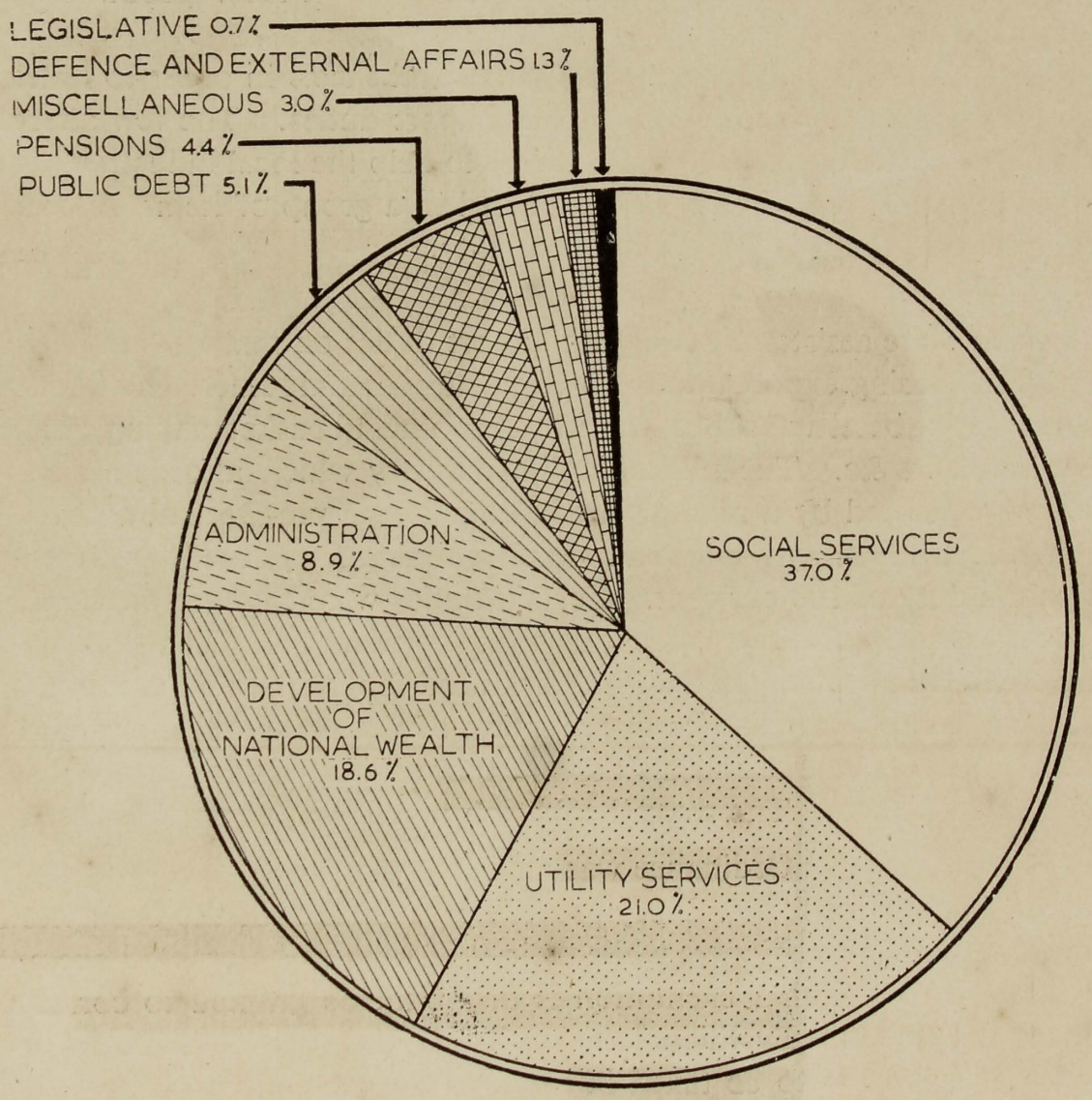
The following table gives an estimate of the distribution of Government expenditure for the financial year 1949–50 :—

DISTRIBUTION OF GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURE (ESTIMATE)

	1949–50	
	From current Revenue	*From Loan Funds*
	(Million Rupees)	
(1) Development of National Wealth	60.9	74.6
(2) Social Services	245.2	25.4
(3) Utility Services	94.2	59.5
(4) Administration	54.8	9.9
(5) Defence and External Affairs	6.0	3.6
(6) Legislation	5.2	—
(7) Pensions and W. & O. P. Office	32.3	—
(8) Public Debt	37.4	—
(9) Miscellaneous	21.9	—
	557.9	173.0



Public Debt.—At the close of the financial year on September 30, 1949, the gross public debt of Ceylon amounted to Rs. 549,074,033 which consisted of a sterling debt of £9,408,775 (Rs. 125,450,333) and a local rupee debt of Rs. 423,623,700.

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Excise Duty.—The amount realised from Excise Revenue during the financial year 1948–49 was Rs. 41,230,177. Compared with the revenue of 1947–48, this shows a decrease of Rs. 812,970. The duty charged on arrack during the financial years 1947–48 and 1948–49 was as follows :—

		1947–48	*1948–49*
		Rs.	*Rs. c.*
(1) Refined Arrack (2) Arrack purchased for the manufacture of milk Punch	Per proof gallon	34 53	34 93
(3) Country made foreign spirits	do.	36 87	39 27
(4) Liquor containing more than 4 per cent. by volume alcohol (other than toddy or any liquor made from any cereal)	do.	14 70	14 70
(5) Arrack purchased for the manufacture of medicated country spirits (6) Medicated country spirits in which duty paid arrack is not used	do.	24 17	24 45

Import and Export Duties.—The principal changes in taxation during 1948–1949 were as follows:—

(i) Export duties on coconut products such as copra, coconut oil fresh coconuts and desiccated coconuts were reduced. This decision was taken to assist local producers to compete with foreign producers.

(ii) An export duty was imposed on mild steel plates and sheets in order to restrict their export.

(iii) No fundamental alteration was made in our import duties. The few alterations that were made during the year were effected (*a*) in order to help the local industries, and (*b*) to change a number of different items which were included in a group of items described ' goods not elsewhere specified ' according to their essentiality.

The local industries were assisted by lowering import duties on materials required for industrial development or by increasing export duties on competing commodities. The following industries were assisted in this way : betel and rubber industry, broom and basket making, biscuit manufacture, handloom textile industry, &c. The photographic industry which affords a means of livelihood to about 25,000 was benefited by a reduction of duties to the pre-December level. By amending the schedule of import duties relief was given to many goods that are used by students, which would otherwise have paid a duty of 100 per cent. Certain duties were changed from *ad valorem* basis of taxation to a ' rated ' basis in order to prevent dishonest traders being benefited by declaring lower values. Among the items affected was avarum bark used for dyeing and tanning. Assistance was also given to the tea and rubber industries by reduction of duties on machinery and allied requirements. Aluminium buckets and chemicals used in those industries are some of the goods which were affected by this reduction. The overall effect on revenue by these alterations was negligible.

Income Tax.—The Income Tax Ordinance was amended by Income Tax (Amendment) Act No. 1 of 1949 in February, 1949, whereby statutory provision was made for the exemption of Diplomatic Representation and High Commissioners while their staff were to be granted exemption only when the Minister is satisfied that similar exemption is or would be granted to corresponding officials of the Government of Ceylon. By this same Act it was also provided that employees abroad of the Government of Ceylon are to be taxed in Ceylon, the previous position being that in some cases no taxes were payable either to the Ceylon Government or to a foreign Government.

The Income Tax Ordinance was again amended in October, 1949, by Income Tax (Amendment) Act, No. 44 of 1949, whereby as a part of the policy of Government to reduce tax in the low income group, to give relief to agricultural and industrial concerns and to encourage the building of small houses the following principal amendments were effected.

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(1) The lowest rate of tax, namely 1½ per cent., was reduced to 1 per cent.

(2) Agricultural and industrial undertakings were given as from year of assessment 1949–50 and for four further years—

(*a*) 33⅓ per cent. of cost of buildings constructed in the relative period for the occupation of labourers, conductors, tea-makers and other minor staff ;

(*b*) 10 per cent. of the cost of other buildings constructed in the relative period ;

(*c*) 15 per cent. of the cost of plant, machinery and fixtures purchased in the relative periods.

(3) A rebate or set-off tax was granted in respect of rent income where the rent income was from houses constructed after April 1, 1948, the rentable amount of which was Rs. 50 per mensem or below. This relief extended to the whole of the tax on such rent where the taxpayer's rate of tax had not reached above 37½ per cent.

The net revenue from Income Tax for the financial year 1948–49 was Rs. 76,669,230, which includes (*a*) Contribution by Department of Electrical Undertakings in lieu of Income Tax of stamp duty Rs. 34,785, (*b*) Contributions in lieu of Income Tax by Government Departments other than the Railway and Electrical Departments in respect of profits from Government trading, commercial and industrial activities, Rs. 1,714,676.

Excess Profits Duty.—Excess Profits Duty was introduced into Ceylon for the first time in October, 1941, and it applied to business. In 1942 it was extended to agriculture and plumbago mining. The Ceylon Ordinance generally follows the United Kingdom Finance (No. 2) Act, 1915, by which Excess Profits Duty was introduced in U. K. but as regards agriculture and plumbago mining special treatment was accorded in view of special conditions in Ceylon.

The net revenue from Excess Profits Duty for the financial year 1948-49 was Rs. 15,412,476.

Profits Tax.—A new tax designated ' Profits Tax ' came into force on the passing of the Profits Tax Act, No. 5 of 1948, on January 29, 1948. This tax extends to all businesses, and business is defined as including :—

(i) any trade or gainful undertaking of any nature or description whatsoever ;

(ii) in the case of a registered company of which the functions consist wholly or mainly in the holding of immovable property or investments, the holding of such property, or investments ; and

(iii) the practice or pursuit or conduct of any profession, vocation, art, craft or skilled occupation of any description, with a view to earning remuneration, fee or pecuniary reward.

In arriving at total profits for Profits Tax purposes, the profits from all liable sources reduced by losses, if any, are aggregated. The rate of tax is 20 per cent. and is chargeable on the surplus of profits over an amount of Rs. 50,000 or over an amount of 6 per cent., of the capital employed in the business. Profits Tax paid is an allowable deduction in computing profits for purposes of Income Tax.

Estate Duty.—The Estate Duty Ordinance was amended by the Estate Duty (Amendment) Act, No. 3 of 1948, whereby gifts made not more than five years before date of death were brought into liability where the date of death was April 1, 1947, or subsequently.

The nett revenue from Estate Duty for the financial year 1948–49 was Rs. 2,636,751.

Exchange Control

Exchange Control was first introduced in Ceylon on September 19, 1939. It followed the line adopted by all countries in the sterling areas, the main purpose of which was to conserve non-sterling area currencies, held in a central reserve, for financing the requirements of member countries from outside the sterling area.

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Over this control was superimposed on June 1, 1948, an extended control which applied to all financial transactions between Ceylon and the outside world, whether countries in the sterling area or not. This step was necessitated by the emergence of Ceylon's own foreign exchange problems in the post-war world and the immediate occasion for the extension of Exchange Control was the Financial Agreement with the U. K. Government dated April 30, 1948, which limited Ceylon's drawings on her sterling assets.

The main objects of the control were, therefore, directed towards two main objectives—

(*a*) maintaining Ceylon's over-all balance of payments, with special reference to the extent to which the deficit is financed by currently available exchange resources including drawings on Ceylon's sterling assets as at April 30, 1948, which were permitted under the Financial Agreement with the U. K.,

(*b*) compliance with the general policy of the sterling area in regard to its financial dealings with countries outside the sterling area.

The Financial Agreement with the United Kingdom provided, *inter alia*, for the following :—

(1) Ceylon's sterling balances at April 30, 1948, were to be blocked.

(2) £3½ million were to be released for use by Ceylon to finance the deficit in her balance of payments.

(3) Additional £4 million were to be released as a working balance.

(4) A further £1 million release could be called for by Ceylon against any substantial unforeseen rise in prices of essential foodstuffs unbalanced by other sources of income.

(5) Ceylon would co-operate with the U. K. in conserving and strengthening the exchange resources of the sterling area. Ceylon did not intend her 1948 gross dollar expenditure to exceed Rs. 100 million.

(6) The agreement was to run to the end of 1948, thereafter further consultations were to be held.

(7) Net capital movements between Ceylon and the rest of the sterling area would necessitate periodical adjustments between Ceylon's blocked and free sterling, *e. g.*, net outward movement would result in a corresponding release from blocked funds.

In January, 1949, a fresh Sterling Assets Agreement was concluded for a period of six months between Ceylon and the Government of the United Kingdom. It provided that—

(i) the main provisions of the principal agreement of April 30, 1948, should continue in force until June 30, 1949 ;

(ii) that a further release of £1¾ million should be made from No. 2 Accounts to No. 1 Accounts.

A further agreement was initiated on August 5, 1949, at the Commonwealth Finance Minister's Conference held in London. Its main provisions were :—

(i) the principal agreement was to continue for a further period up to June 30, 1950, subject to an additional release of £7 million from No. 2 Accounts to No. 1 Accounts, and to the right to call for a further release of £1 million in the event of a substantial unforeseen rise in the price of essential foodstuffs unbalanced by other sources of income ;

(ii) the provisions of the principal agreement relating to the establishment and operation of No. 1 and No. 2 Accounts were to be replaced by provisions, to be agreed in detail, for the establishment of similar accounts of the Central Bank of Ceylon ;

(iii) Ceylon reserved the right to retain an independent reserve of gold or dollars out of her ' net surplus of dollars on current account ' to be held by the Central Bank of Ceylon when it is published ; but the Ceylon Government gave an assurance that the amount so retained during the currency of the agreement would not exceed $1 million. It was further stipulated that this agreement was ' without prejudice to the views of either Government as to the action to be taken in respect of any period after June 30, 1950 ' when it was agreed that the matter should be reviewed.

The most important provision in the new agreement was that relating to the retention of a gold or dollar reserve by Ceylon, and it thus constituted an important departure from the pattern of agreements previously concluded.

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The following is a brief description of the policy of control in respect of various types of payments :—

Imports.—Payments are permissible up to the value authorised on the import licence (if one is necessary) against invoices and Customs entries, or against an undertaking to produce these documents. Generally speaking, authorised dealers have authority to make these payments without prior reference to the control. Payments to intermediaries in countries outside the monetary area of the country of origin are permitted only on the authority of the control.

Travel.—Allocations of exchange for travel are made according to a system of basic rations for different monetary areas. For example, for countries close to Ceylon, namely, Iran, Iraq, Saudi Arabia, Pakistan, India, Burma and Malaya, an annual basic ration of Rs. 1,500 per adult and Rs. 750 per child is allowed. For other countries, *e.g.*, the U. K. and the Continent, a basic ration of £500 per adult and £250 per child is allowed over a period of four years commencing from June 1, 1948. No ration of exchange is allowed for holiday travel in the dollar area. Foreign nationals are allowed exchange equivalent to their full earned income (generally their leave pay) for holidays outside Ceylon. Allowances for business travel, official journeys and medical treatment are granted on a per diem basis according to the purpose and the monetary area to be visited.

Education.—Allowances are made for under-graduate and post-graduate education abroad. Allowances for education at a lower level are not generally permitted except for the children of foreign nationals temporarily resident in Ceylon.

Maintenance.—Reasonable allowances for the maintenance of families of foreign nationals temporarily resident in Ceylon are allowed on the basis of income.

Current commercial payments other than for imports are permitted.

Dividends, Declared Profits, Interest, &c., accruing to non-residents are permitted.

Payments of a capital nature are generally permitted if the beneficiaries are resident within the sterling area. Different treatment is given to payments to persons outside the sterling area and the restrictions vary according to the type of payment involved. Under an agreement between the Ceylon Government and the U. K. Government Ceylon's sterling assets are divided into No. 1 and No. 2 Accounts, the latter of which is blocked and may not be drawn on for current transactions. At periodic intervals the two Governments establish the net movement of capital between Ceylon and other countries in the sterling area and, if the movement is from Ceylon to other countries in the sterling area, a corresponding transfer is made from Ceylon's No. 2 Accounts to her No. 1 Accounts. A transfer in the opposite direction is made if the net capital movement is inward.

The control on the receipt side is one more of supervision than of control. Supervision is directed at two main objects :—

(*a*) to see that all earnings of foreign exchange are paid to the banks ; and
(*b*) to keep a record of all transfer of a capital nature which should pass through Ceylon's No. 2 Accounts.

Under the first object, the control on exports takes first place. The procedure makes it necessary for any export to take place only on a licence issued by the control or by a bank on behalf of the control, and the issue of licence is conditional on the exporter satisfying the control that arrangements have been made for the recovery of the full proceeds of the exports within six months and by an appropriate method. Apart from receipts accruing on exports, the law also makes it obligatory that any resident of Ceylon holding any ' specified ' currencies should surrender them to a bank in Ceylon. There is a long list of specified currencies, the chief of which are the U. S. dollar, Canadian dollar, Swiss francs and Belgian francs. Sterling and Indian rupees are not specified currencies.

The Ceylon Exchange Control is operated at present under Defence Regulations, but these are to be replaced shortly by an Act of Parliament.

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CHAPTER XX

NATIONAL SAVINGS AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT

I. National Savings Movement

THE activities of the National Savings Movement centre round three main objects. The first object of the movement is to promote thrift by inducing the public to invest their money in the Post Office Savings Bank, Ceylon Savings Bank and Ceylon Savings Certificates.

The second object is the formation of Savings Groups to facilitate regular monthly investments of a portion of one's salary or income in National Savings.

The third object is to help National Development of the Island by inducing the public to invest in Ceylon Government Loans.

Sri Lanka Savings Campaign, 1948–49.—The target of Rs. 108,000,000 set for the campaign was exceeded by as much as Rs. 23,110,723. The investments made during the campaign were as follows :—

	Rs.
Government Loans	57,822,400
Savings Certificates	4,967,853
Post Office Savings Bank	53,828,570
Ceylon Savings Bank	14,491,960
	131,110,723

The Government Loan target was Rs. 36,000,000 and the total realised amounted to Rs. 57,822,400. The Small Savings target which was fixed at Rs. 72,000,000 realised Rs. 73,288,323. The Sri Lanka Savings Campaign was a great success compared to the National Development Savings Campaign launched in the preceding financial year (1947–48) which realised only Rs. 100,020,811.

National Savings Campaign, 1949–50.—This campaign was launched on October 1, 1949, with a target of Rs. 120,000,000 consisting of Rs. 48,000,000 in Sri Lanka Government Loans and Rs. 72,00,000 in Small Savings. As in the previous campaign, the small target was split and distributed among the nineteen Revenue Districts. In addition to the monetary target, a group target of 1,000 new Savings Groups was set for twelve months of the campaign.

During the year 1949, as many as 1,250 Savings Groups were registered and 194 groups were cancelled. During the preceding year 800 groups were registered and cancellations amounted to 253 groups. The total number of groups in operation up to the end of 1949 was 7,742, and the approximate membership was 308,246. They are made up as follows :—

In Schools	5,702
In R. D. Societies	201
In Estates	500
In other institutions	1,339

Savings Stamps.—Savings Stamps were issued for the first time on the Independence Day, 1949. These stamps are available in denominations of 10 cents, 25 cents, 50 cents and Re. 1, thus bringing the National Savings within the reach of the poorest man. Savings Stamps are rapidly becoming popular, especially in schools and on estates. Saving Stamp Booklets and Savings Stamp Cards are issued free to the purchasers of Savings Stamps. Stamp Cards and pages of the Stamp Booklets filled are used as deposits in the Post Office Savings Bank and Ceylon Savings Bank and for the purchase of Savings Certificates.

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Sri Lanka Government Loan.—The Sri Lanka Government Loan was opened for subscription in February, 1949. The amount realised up to the end of December, 1949, was Rs. 65,607,300 and is made up as follows :—

	Rs.
2½ per cent. Sri Lanka Government Loan, 1959–64	18,445,300
3 per cent. Sri Lanka Government Loan, 1969–74	47,162,000

Particulars regarding Savings Certificates and deposits in the Savings Banks during the years 1948 and 1949 are as follows :—

Year	*Sale*	*Balance lying to the credit of depositors at end of year*
	(*Rs.*)	(*Rs.*)
1948	6,533,859	33,200,000
1949	5,013,254	32,049,000

POST OFFICE SAVINGS BANK

Year	*Number of depositors*	*Total amount deposited* (*Rs.*)	*Balance to the credit of depositors at end of year* (*Rs.*)
1948	1,242,211	55,392,432	127,552,821
1949	1,360,000	56,392,309	134,830,661

CEYLON SAVINGS BANK

Year	*Number of depositors*	*Total amount deposited* (*Rs.*)	*Balance to the credit of depositors at end of year* (*Rs.*)
1948	119,291	14,452,771	57,173,967
1949	122,510	14,049,182	55,249 943

Progress of National Savings from 1943 *to* 1949.—The following were the amounts lying to credit of depositors on December 31 of each year :—

	1943	*1944*	*1945*	*1946*	*1947*	*1948*	*1949*
	(*Million Rupees*)						
Post office Savings Bank	21.5	35.6	65.0	104.3	117.0	128.0	135.0
Ceylon Savings Bank	26.5	36.3	51.5	60.9	59.1	57.2	55.2
Savings Certificates	10.7	18.2	25.8	27.8	27.0	33.2	32.0
Total	58.7	90.1	142.3	193.0	203.1	218.4	222.2

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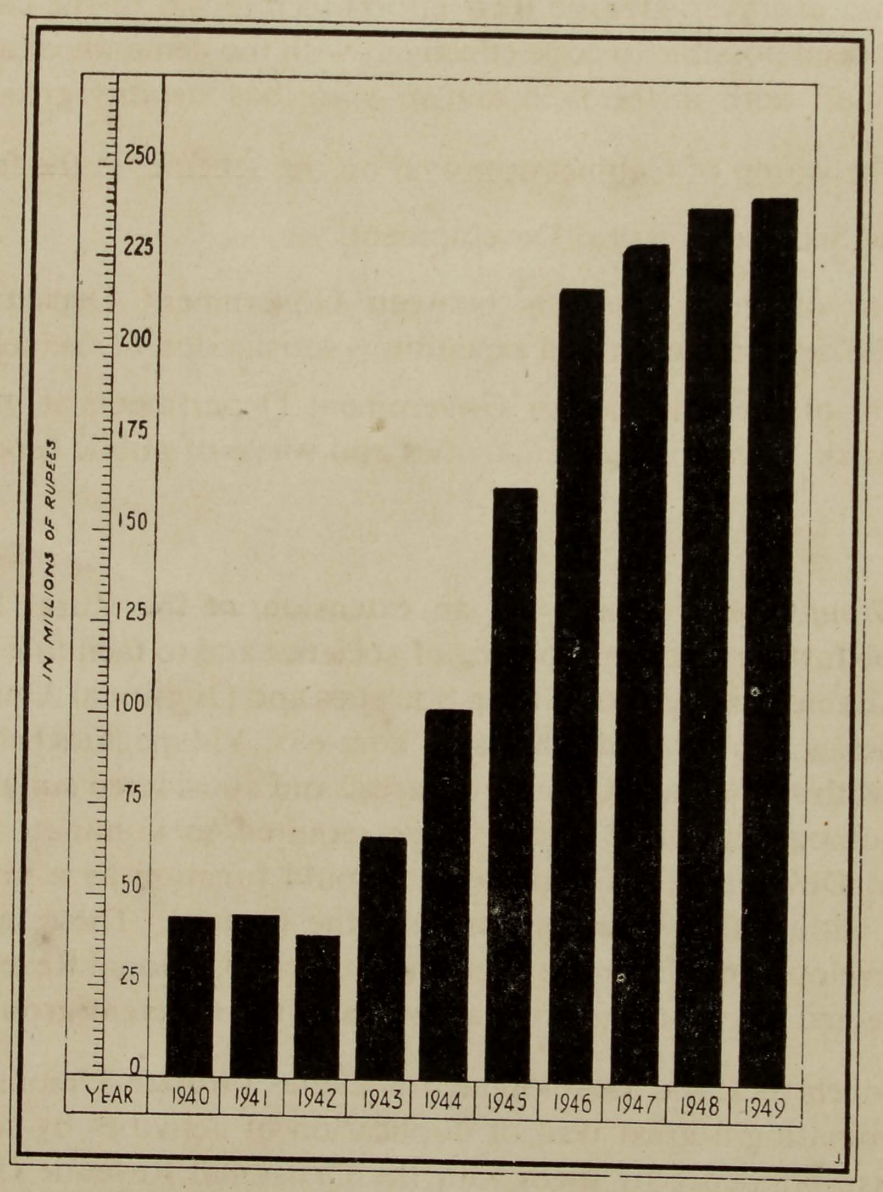
The total of Savings Deposits in Commercial Banks, the Post Office Savings Bank, the Ceylon Savings Bank and amounts realised by sale of Savings Certificates each year for the ten-year period, 1940–49, is given in the table below :—

SAVINGS DEPOSITS

(*Million Rupees*)

1940	44	1945	163
1941	45	1946	218
1942	40	1947	231
1943	67	1948	241
1944	102	1949	246

SAVINGS DEPOSITS



II. Rural Development

GENERAL PATTERN

The scheme as contemplated at the inauguration of the Department of Rural Development was one of setting up in rural areas throughout the Island, Rural Development Societies for both men and women, functioning within Village Headmen's units. Although the scheme in general remains unchanged, the year 1949 marked its extension into areas hotherto unprovided for and the consolidation of societies that had previously been formed. There has thus been an increase of societies—1,826 men's societies and 482 women's societies—which had been established previously, bringing the total of men's societies to 4,986 and women's societies to 819.

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In the field of women's welfare work, activities have been much more limited in scope than in men's welfare work. This has been due to the fact that already the Lanka Mahila Samiti, a voluntary organization of eighteen years' standing, is carrying out useful work among women in rural areas under a women's welfare scheme launched many years ago. The scheme worked by the Mahila Samiti being in accordance with the accepted principles of Rural Development, it was considered un-necessary to duplicate the work of the Lanka Mahila Samiti by setting up a parallel organization in the field of women's welfare work. Accordingly, Rural Development officers have worked in close association with the Mahila Samiti, attending their meetings at district centres and assisting the voluntary workers of the Samiti in the organization of new societies and imparting suitable instruction in matters of Rural Development, when invited to do so. In areas where the Lanka Mahila Samiti has not been able to set up women's societies, the Department of Rural Development has sponsored the organization of such societies, and assisted the people to direct their activities, the question of their later affiliation with the Lanka Mahila Samiti being left open for decision by the societies themselves.

In view of the growing enthusiasm and interest of the rural population throughout the country in Rural Development work, the officers of the department at all levels have had to face grave pressure on their time and energy. Despite their efforts to respond to the calls made on them, it cannot be said that it has been possible to cope effectively with the demands of all rural areas, and the necessity for additional staff both in the field and in office has steadily grown.

The end of 1949 saw the stamp of Cabinet approval on the scheme, in the following terms :—

' It was agreed that the Scheme of Rural Development, viz.—

(*a*) the establishment of closer contacts between Government Departments and the rural population for the determination and expeditious satisfaction of the needs of the people, and

(*b*) the co-ordination of the activities of Government Departments in rural areas to prevent duplication of work, overlapping of activities and waste of public funds.

be approved '.

Rural Development Groups and Unions.—As an extension of the Rural Development Scheme and in order to ensure the further efficient working of societies and to facilitate contact with them by the limited field staff available, a scheme of Group Societies and Divisional Unions was inaugurated. Under this scheme, societies falling within the same korale or Vidane Arachchi's or Udayar's Division or societies falling within a Village Committee area, and considered suitable for grouping from the point of view of homogeneity and spread, were required to nominate a few representatives each to a Central Rural Development Group which would function as a Group Society and co-ordinate the activities within the societies forming the Group. These groups in due course developed into Rural Development Unions formed within each Divisional Revenue Officer's Division. This body was then expected to co-ordinate the activities of the different groups.

This channel of approach to Rural Development Societies through Unions and Groups had the added advantage of eliminating a great deal of duplication of activities by societies and of saving a certain amount of correspondence by them with the Divisional Revenue Officer. It also helped to ensure a pattern of betterment for rural areas which maintained a harmony not only within the acres covered by each society, but as between one korale and another within each Divisional Revenue Officer's Division. The Divisional Unions in their turn found representation on the Divisional and District Committees. These Unions and Group Societies have helped further to utilise the talent of local workers themselves to sift the various questions relating to local needs that came before them from societies, passing up to higher levels only those that merited such reference, others being disposed of by them at their own level. In 1949 there were seventy-two Rural Development Unions made up of 319 Group Societies.

Divisional and District Committees.—The Scheme of Divisional and District Committees has remained intact and an attempt was made during 1949 to strengthen these committees and to get them working in full efficiency. The importance of these committees for the purpose of bringing

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together Government Departments and Local Bodies, with the object of achieving some measure of co-ordination in the development plans operated by departments and local authorities within each district and each division, was kept in the fore-front ; so also the other and equally important object of providing the link up between official organizations and the public through Rural Development Societies. The latter, organized through their groups and unions, sent representatives to the Divisional and District Committees and discussed round a common table with Government representatives at appropriate levels in their respective committees, the problems of rural betterment. In this manner not only have Divisional and District Committees helped to evolve a common understanding of village problems among Government Departments working to a common objective and a common purpose, eliminating overlapping among themselves, but they have also inspired a healthy confidence between Government officers and the people of rural areas. On the whole there has thus developed a new tone and a new approach to problems of administration both on the part of the people and the officers of the Government, individually and in relation to one another.

The Scheme of Divisional and District Committees emerged from an experimental phase into one of accepted policy, on a decision of the Cabinet made on December 15, 1949, that ' the system of Divisional Committees for each area in the charge of a Divisional Revenu Officer and of District Rural Development Committees under the Chairmanship of the Government Agent or Assistant Government Agent be approved '.

The Part played by the Rural Development Officers in the Field.—The organization of the field staff for the effective working of the scheme of Rural Development has in general remained the same as before. Sixty-nine Rural Development Officers continued to be attached to Divisional Revenue Officers' offices and six officers of Supervisor Grade together with thirteen Senior Rural Development Officers were attached to the nineteen District Kachcheries, working respectively under the supervision of the Divisional Revenue Officers, Government Agents and Assistant Government Agents. These officers continue to advise, assist and direct Rural Development Societies along approved lines, in addition to organizing the people into Rural Development Societies in areas hitherto unserved. Early in 1949 the entire Island was zoned into three areas—Nothern, Central and Southern with headquarters ar Anuradhapura, Colombo and Matara respectively. These were placed in the charge of the three Rural Development Assistants, for the purpose of establishing close and frequent consultation with Government Agents, Assistant Government Agents and Divisional Revenue Officers within each zone and in order to assist in the investigation and planning of special schemes of rural welfare within the policies laid down by Government. The services of these officers were also made freely available to Government Agents and Assistant Government Agents for the effective supervision of the field staff already assigned to them.

General Principles and Policies.—The scheme has continued to give first place to the principle of self-help in the achievement of results. It has therefore continued to place in the forefront, in the minds of Rural Development Societies, the necessity and importance of self-help as a cardinal principle of the movement, drawing at the same time on the schemes of assistance available from the various Government Departments and Local Bodies for work of village betterment in a systematic and organized manner and in close association and co-operation with the departments and local authorities concerned, so that the best benefits of State services can flow to the people expeditiously and without waste. In this manner Rural Development Societies have been trained to bring their needs before Government Departments through a systematic channel of Group Societies, Unions, Divisional Committees and District Committees for implementation at appropriate executive levels.

The work of organizing the rural population to enter into close association with Government in betterment schemes, requires also the setting up of village leaders trained in the principles of Rural Development through self-help. The creation of the right attitude of mind among Village Headmen who function at such close levels to the villager and in such normal fields of village administration as virtually cover his entire life is also an important requisite in this work. Training done in this connection include 13,304 Village Leaders and 2,228 Village Headmen.

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The growing demand from most areas for Rural Development officers to organize village betterment schemes is itself a symptom of the urgent need for village leaders. The emergence of suitable village leaders to man and undertake schemes of village development, working with villagers and living amongst them, would be of far more lasting benefit than the setting up of an army of Rural Development Officers paid and maintained by Government.

THE SCHEME AT WORK

It is not possible to cover in detail all the activities carried out under the aegis of Rural Development Societies. Reference can only be made in general terms under the heads of certain activities in which the societies were enaged.

Food Production.—The problem of Food Production was kept prominently in the forefront during 1949 and Rural Development Societies were directed to participate to the fullest measure in all schemes for increased food production organized throughout the country under the votes of the Land Commissioner's Department, and through its scheme of Co-operative Agricultural Production and Sales Societies. Rural Development Societies were also encouraged to enlist their members in the membership of the local Co-operative Agricultural Production and Sales Societies and thereafter to participate actively in the Food Drives planned and directed by the District Agricultural Committees. The record of successes in this field belongs to the Department of the Land Commissioner. Suffice it to say that the close co-operation of Rural Development Societies which oraganized the villager to carry out particular programmes of Food Production under departmental shemes, in their own areas, has contributed in some measure towards the outstanding successes achieved in this field of work.

Among the more notable efforts connected with the ' Grow More Food Campaign ' reference should be made to the activities of the Ambahena Society in Dewamedi Hatpattu of the North-Western Province. In this area approximately 2,500 acres were brought under cultivation in one season, the societies participating as Co-operative Groups. Approximately 500 acres of paddy were also brought under cultivation under a system of Co-operative Farming which illustrated the usefulness of such ventures for the reduction of costs of production. The Tittawelgolla Society in Wagapanaha korale within the division of Matale North in Matale District, records that under its aegis approximately 125 acres of kurakkan, 20 acres of vegetables, 50 acres of paddy and 40 acres of cotton were cultivated.

From different parts of the Island there have also been received reports of the enthusiasm that villagers have shown in improved methods of cultivation as a result of propaganda. Alutkuru Korale North in the Western Province records that about 300 acres of paddy out of an extent of 1,800 acres were transplanted. In Siyane korale about 700 acres of paddy are said to have been transplanted and the extent of Home Gardens increased by approximately a 1,000 acres. A competition in compost making organized by the Rural Development Societies under the direction of the Assistant Government Agent, Mannar, resulted in the production of over 3,500 cwt. of compost within one Divisional Revenue Officer's Division alone. Societies producing a minimum of five tons only were qualified to enter this competiton. Prizes to the value of over Rs. 2,700 were won by Rural Development Societies out of the funds made available by the Assistant Government Agent from appropriate votes. The Meda Pattu Welfare Society in Thamankaduwa Division of Anuradhapura District claims that as a result of the participation of Rural Development Societies in a scheme for soil conservation, abeout 3,000 acres of high land have been successfully drained and ridged. The Nattandiya Rural Development Union records that through its endeavours, poultry-keepers in the area were enabled to market over 1,000,000 eggs.

It is necessary to record that but for the enthusiastic organization of Co-operative Agricultural Production and Sales Societies through the officers of the Co-operative Department and the provision of necessary funds by the Department of the Land Commissioner, the enthusiasm of Rural Development Societies in the work of increased Food Production might well have proved of little benefit to the country.

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Industrial Schemes.—Nearly 200 industrial units have been set up in the Island through the endeavours of Rural Development Societies. The activities of societies in this connection receive the support of the Department of Cottage Industries, both in the matter of Teachers and Demonstrators for instruction at the Industrial Centres as also in the marketing of such articles that are turned out at these centres.

The problem of textile marketing which had given rise to difficulties owing to the non-saleability of local cloth was brought to the fore by Rural Development Unions and Societies in different parts of the country, more particularly in the Chilaw District. Propaganda Drives were organised through Rural Development Societies to popularize the sale of locally manufactured cloth. The decision that all Government requirements for Hospitals, Prisons, &c., of bed linen and towels should be obtained from local Textile Centres has eased the situation to a great extent. The Marawila Textile Union alone claims to have sold over Rs. 24,000 worth of Textiles to Government.

Mention should also be made of the problem of marketing mats produced at Induruwa and other parts of the country. On representations made by Rural Development Societies and the Lanka Mahila Samiti, Government intervened with the appropriate authorities and secured with the joint endeavours of all concerned, improved facilities for the marketing of mats through the Government Stores.

Quite apart from the immediate benefits of schemes of this nature for training the villager in suitable cottage crafts, it should be appreciated that these institutions laid the foundation for useful activities by villagers during leisure hours which otherwise run to waste and beget problems of social decay. The Government fully realises that the promotion of cottage crafts under a comprehensive scheme of rural industries carefully worked out and implemented is an essential feature in any scheme of rural rehabilitation.

Health Drives.—Societies have endeavoured to improve health and living conditions in rural areas in co-operation with the officers of the Health Department. They have also sponsored schemes for the promotion of playground and other recreational facilities, by working in close co-ordination with bodies such as Community Centres which are engaged in problems of village recreation, &c.

Rural Societies have also taken an interest in the establishment of Milk Feeding Centres under the scheme organized by the Department of Food Supplies. In some cases, societies have undertaken the supervision of the distribution of milk at these centres. In a few instances societies have organized Milk Marketing Schemes in order to make available fresh milk for children attending local Milk Feeding Centres. The question of extending such schemes to areas where it will be possible to popularize the rearing of milk cattle has been considered.

Construction of Roads.—One of the features of village development which has received the attention of almost every Rural Development Society in the Island is the problem of improved road communications. Societies have vied with one another to improve communications within their villages and in several instances, groups of societies have combined to construct important roads through several villages. In this work they have been sometimes assisted with technical advice by the Superintendents of Minor Roads and officers of similar status attached to Village Committees, in setting out traces, &c. Assistance has at times been available from relief funds to complete special works involving skilled labour, the earthwork being entirely a voluntary contribution from the people. In general, societies have confined themselves to widening existing Village Committee paths so as to permit their use for vehicles, the land required for such widening being in every instance donated free by the owners themselves, despite the fact that often such widening was through fully developed land. In the up-country areas such widening of roads has involved the blasting of rocks and the removal of huge boulders which have necessitated the use of blasing powder and sometimes even elephants. The expense of all this has been faced by the societies themselves. In this manner nearly 1,250 miles of road have been opened out throughout the Island.

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Conciliation Boards.—Towards the latter part of 1949 a scheme for setting up Conciliation Boards to function under the aegis of the societies was initiated for the purpose of settling village disputes which frequently resulted in grave crime among the illiterate in rural areas. The entire scheme is worked without expense to Government and is built on the confidence that is known to exist among villagers in the judgment of one another. It is a feature in the make-up of rural society, which is in keeping with the country's traditions, that there still exist in villages, people who are looked up to by their fellow villagers and whose judgment is held in high esteem. The scheme of Conciliation Boards seeks to draw on this rich reserve of human material for the purpose of keeping the villager out of wasteful litigation and grave crime caused by ignorance and the lack of a correct outlook on village problems.

This is a venture which promises great possibilities for bringing about better understanding and greater harmony among village folk who are now obliged to resort to wasteful litigation for the settlement of even their minor differences. In 1949, 1,891 Conciliation Boards were organised and as many as 6,566 cases were settled by them.

Rural Volunteer Patrols.—This is another scheme of village welfare which was organized early in 1949. Under this scheme, energetic and dependable members of Rural Development Societies are organized into volunteer patrols or squads which unertake the protection of their village against crime and corruption. Their powers are no more than their civil status entitles them to, but they are guided and assisted by the local Police who work in close co-operation with them in the prevention of crime in rural areas. The recognition of these volunteers by the Police Department has on the one hand added greatly to their prestige as social workers, while on the other, the willing association of the people with the Police in this manner has lightened the work of the Police and has created a new spirit of understanding and inter-dependence between the Police and the public. The number of patrol squads so organized was 1,392 with 16,822 rural volunteers.

Saving Schemes.—Rural Development Societies were encouraged to promote the habit of thrift in villages and organize their members as much as possible into Savings Groups, Co-operative Thrift Societies and other savings schemes of Government. Special mention should be made in this connection of the savings scheme organized by women's societies in Harispattu area. It has been recorded that members in sixty-nine women's societies have, entirely through the enthusiasm that the movement has created, saved Rs. 35,355.

The record of men's societies in this division is also creditable and reflects a saving of Rs. 24,255. When to this added the nett value of all self-help work done by Rural Societies, the movement has to its credit an impressive record of achievements. The benefits thereby to Government may modestly be estimated at Rs. 1½ million.

Propaganda.—Reference must also be made to the interest taken by Rural Development Societies in setting up their own magazines and news letters as a measure of propaganda for local rural development activity. Monthly and quarterly magazines have thus been started by societies in different parts of the country, even in distant Bintenne. Apart from news and notes pertaining to rural development work within the district or division concerned, these magazines contain very useful articles on various aspects of rural welfare work. There is little doubt that these magazines fulfil a useful purpose and are greatly appreciated by the members who support them. These ventures are organized entirely by the societies themselves under the grneral supervision of the local Divisional Revenue Officer and are maintained without any assistance from Government. Their contribution towards the development of a healthy public opinion in rural areas is one of considerable value.

The Department of Information has also carried out useful propaganda for the movement by publishing in the monthly issues of the ' Sri Lanka ' notes and news on Rural Development activities of special interest and articles contributed by members of the public as well as by officers of the Department of Rural Development.

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