

The English Language in Ceylon

In this article an attempt is made, first, to examine and briefly account the extraordinary place English has gradually assumed in the life of Ceylon, culminating in its adoption, in the early years of this century, as the 'mother tongue' of a small but powerful section. When a spirit of nationalism began to assert itself about twenty years ago there naturally followed a return to the vernaculars, accompanied by a tendency to neglect whatever positive gains have accrued from more than fifty years of English education. We are now in the difficult transitional phase, when the vernaculars are struggling into their right place in the educational system, while English is still being treated, in the secondary schools, as the 'mother tongue' and allowed for the most part to look after itself. In conclusion a plea is made for the consolidation of the benefits English has brought to Ceylon, the fullest exploitation of the very valuable contributions English can make towards the reinstatement of the vernaculars in the educational system and towards the revival of native literature, the stabilization of the form of English spoken in Ceylon and the development of a technique by which it can be efficiently taught.

THE remarkable place occupied by the English language in the social, political, and cultural life of Ceylon is one of the many linguistic results of the spread of the English-speaking peoples, geographically and politically, over immense new tracts of the world, which began in the sixteenth century and culminated in the nineteenth. When Drake, Raleigh and Bishar began their voyages in search of wealth and adventure, English was the language of the few million inhabitants of England and the Scottish Lowlands. It was used in Ireland by the English colonists, it was known

1. The population of England numbered about five millions in the xvi century.

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ishmen, a few Welshmen, a few scholars and merchants on the
In England it was only just beginning to replace Latin as the
of culture and knowledge. In the early sixteenth century Elyot
felt impelled by patriotism to express themselves in their native
but they apologised for its deficiencies.² Latin was a more natural
for educationists and men of learning. It was not till the end of the
that, through the efforts of thoughtful schoolmasters like Richard
the English language began to be regarded as worthy of study
ted as the medium of instruction.

as at this time, when English was beginning to be recognised by
en as equal in beauty and in suitability for all the purposes of
and literature to any language, ancient or modern, and when a

in the Dedication of *Toxophilus* (1545) to Henry VIII, Ascham apologises for
English, when "to have written in another tongue had been both more profitable
dy and also more honest for my nature." Contrasting English with Latin and
which "everything is so excellently done . . . , that none can do better," he writes :
English tongue, contrary, every thing in a manner so meanly both for the matter
handling, that no man can do worse." Elsewhere he says : "Although to have
his book in Latin or Greek . . . had been more easier and fit for my trade in study,
I have written this English matter in the English tongue for Englishmen."

The First Part of the Elementarie (1582) : "I love Rome, but London better ;
Italy, but England more ; I honour the Latin, but I worship the English." And,
"Necessity itself doth call for English."

Mulcaster (ibid.) : "I do not think that any language, be it whatsoever, is
e to utter all arguments either with more pith or greater plainness than our
tongue is." Sidney, *The Apologie for Poetrie* (c. 1581) : "for the uttering sweetly
rly the conceits of the mind which is the end of speech, that hath it equally
other tongue in the world." Since the time of Ascham the English language had
rimented with and developed in many directions.

se who are anxious to reinstate Sinhalese and Tamil as the languages of learning
re in Ceylon have many lessons to learn from the history of Western European
like French and English in the sixteenth century. Some of these will be indi-
er in this article. Sidney and Mulcaster were saying about English what du
d said about French : "In this connection I cannot sufficiently blame the foolish
and temerity of some in our nation who, being in no wise Greek nor Latin, mis-
reject with a more than stoical haughtiness all things written in French ; and
sufficiently wonder at the strange opinion of some learned men who think that
r tongue is incapable of good letters and erudition : " (*The Defence and Illustra-
French Language* by Joachim du Bellay, 1549, translated by Gladys M. Turcotte,
in chapter XII du Bellay exhorts the French to write in their language ; he cites
ples of Petrarch and Boccaccio, who "though they did write much in Latin,
ains that this would not have sufficed to give them the great honour which they
ire had they not written in their own tongue. Which knowing well, many
s in our time, . . . have been converted to their mother tongue, even Italians
greater reason to adore the Latin tongue than we." He concludes the chapter :
s to me (reader, friend of the French muses) that after these whom I have
hou shouldst not be ashamed to write in thine own language, but that thou
if thou be a friend of France, nay, of thyself, give thyself entirely thereto,
generous opinion that it is better to be an Achilles among one's own people
omedes, nay, often a Thersites, among others."

great literature was beginning to appear in this so lately despised land that there commenced those processes by which English was disseminated all over the world. The East India Company, organised in the reign of Elizabeth, began to trade actively in India in the reign of James. About the same time England's first colonies were planted by the Cavaliers in Virginia and by the Puritans in New England. In India there began the process which English was to become the language of international and commerce in the East; in America English took root in soil. And so, in the course of the next three centuries, the English language spread through the world, becoming, on the one hand, the language of vast areas in which British emigrants settled (the U.S.A., Canada, South Australia, New Zealand), and on the other, the second language of the part dominated politically by England and, later, by the United States of America. India, Burma, Malaya, Egypt, North West and Central Africa, Palestine, Hawaii, the Philippines, the Canal Zone, numerous islands in the Pacific

The spread of the English language into countries from which it had been practically ousted the native languages, or in which it imposed itself as the language of government and business, in fact of the everyday life of the intelligentsia, has created linguistic situations of many kinds—interesting, novel and difficult. In the U.S.A. there are three distinct types of American English,⁶ and the problem of a common standard, first for Americans and secondly for the English-speaking world, has excited a great deal of controversy. In Canada, French and Quebec are practically bilingual, while other places, the Cape of Good Hope, Victoria for example, are predominantly English in culture, but with a strong colouring from the American Indian and Canadian French populations. In the Union of South Africa the official use of two European languages, English and Afrikaans—the provincial Dutch of the Boers, has caused a complicated language situation. In Australia and New Zealand, isolation from the rest of the country has produced new dialects of English. Irish-English again is a distinctive type.

Different, and far more difficult, are the linguistic problems of countries like India and Ceylon, where English has been imposed on or adopted by peoples who already possessed one or more developed languages of their own (unlike the American Indians or Zulu tribes). In India, and to a less extent in Ceylon, the language of the colonists gradually absorbed many terms from the indigenous languages, describing things that had no equivalent in their own country.⁷ But neither the officials nor the business men who made

5. English has also, of course, been studied by people in many other countries for cultural and commercial reasons.

6. "It is vain to pretend that there is a recognised ideal standard of pronunciation for all of the United States and Canada. The West will not bow before the East before the West, and the South has a deep-rooted affection for its own mode of speaking." H. Kurath, S.P.E. Tract No. XXX *American Pronunciation*.

7. Hobson-Jobsonisms. The original form has usually been modified to suit English speech habits: e.g. bungalow < Hind. *bungla* 'belonging to Bengal'; chutney < Hind. *chutthi* < Sans. *chitra* 'a mark'; pyjamas > Hind. *pae-jama* 'leg-clothing'.

temporary home, endeavoured to learn the languages of the peoples with whom they had to deal.⁸ Instead, such of the inhabitants as were willing to learn English were taught it, and were used as intermediaries between the British and those whom they governed. Consequently, in all these parts some form of foreign English has developed (*i.e.*, English as spoken by those to whom it is an alien language), which occupies a more or less important place in the life and culture of the people.

The social and economic advantages of a knowledge of English were in the course of time realised, and the language eagerly learnt by those who were in contact, or who desired contact, with the foreign officials. The missionaries had devoted themselves to the study of the vernaculars and to the development of vernacular schools. But from about 1870 more formal education was demanded and the Missions, assisted by the Government, established English secondary schools in the larger towns.⁹

From the beginning there were scholars who were interested in the languages of the temporary home. The earliest students of oriental languages were missionaries, some of whose work made it necessary that they should know the language of those with whom they lived. In Ceylon we have the pioneer work of Chater, Clough and Carter; in India, of Beschius, Rhenius, Graul, Caldwell, Percival, and Pope. Still earlier the pioneer work in Indian languages in the south was done either by the Portuguese themselves, or through the medium of the Portuguese language. The arrival of the British powers in India in the 18th and 19th centuries interested Dutch, English, and Danish scholars in the languages and cultures of India. Among laymen one name is that of Sir William Jones.

When the Rev. James Cordiner arrived in Ceylon, late in 1799, as chaplain to the settlement in Colombo he was made principal of all the schools in the settlement. In 1800 there were 170 schools which taught in the vernaculars of the respective regions, Sinhalese and Tamil. For giving a better education to the sons of native chiefs and to the European (Dutch and Portuguese) youths, three schools were established, from which young men were recruited for employment in the Government, to serve either as translators, clerks, proponents (*i.e.* preachers) or teachers. Similar ambitious schools were established at Galle, Jaffna and Trincomalee. These were run by the Government. The general educational policy of the missionaries was to instruct in the vernaculars, but the need for English-speaking missionary assistants and clerks in the lower ranks of Government service led to the teaching of English to a few. In 1800 North wrote to the Board of Directors of the East India Company: "three superior schools [established in Colombo] are likely to produce in a much shorter time than I expected a set of well qualified candidates of all the offices which are to be filled by Burghers or by natives. . . ." The better prospects afforded by a knowledge of English created a demand for more and more English, and soon English schools were established in increasing numbers. From 1827 merchants and planters began to establish schools in the colony, and in due course the needs of Government, the trades and professions were brought into being a class of Ceylonese with an English education. It was an ambitious class whose numbers were continually being swelled. An ambitious father even sent one of his sons to India, as Forbes notes with approval in 1840: "our intelligent and enterprising Modeliar [of Avisawella] seemed perfectly aware of the advantages of education, and proved his sincerity of conviction on this head by sending one of his sons to be educated at the Calcutta College." (For the quotations from North and Forbes, and also from Forbes, information, I am indebted to an unpublished thesis on *English and English in Ceylon* by Dr. Ludowyk, who very kindly allowed me the use of it. I have also to thank the Rev. C. N. V. Fernando for having permitted me to read and make use of his thesis on the *History of Christianity in Ceylon in the British Period*.)

An English system of education, with English as the medium of instruction, was established in Ceylon. The indigenous languages, continued however to be used for the daily needs of the vast majority of the people and even those who attended English schools knew their own language well. There were several newspapers and journals in the two vernaculars, and vigorous controversies were carried on in the press (see note 12). But at the beginning of the present century the vernaculars began to lose ground seriously to English, until the growth of a national spirit arrested this development about twenty years ago. English was adopted by many educated people as their first language. The vernaculars were used chiefly by simple and illiterate folk, and by the educated only in the simplest and most familiar intercourse, and were even then freely mingled with borrowings from English. The spoken languages adapted themselves to the needs of the new life that Westerners brought with them chiefly by the ready and ready method of borrowing largely from the English vocabulary. Obviously the indigenous languages could not, under these circumstances, be the vehicles of modern learning and culture, or the means of coping with a new and increasingly complex civilisation.

The predominance of English in the political and cultural life of a people to whom it is an alien language has created curious and difficult linguistic situations. A system of government resembling English prototypes has been developed and so quite naturally Western institutions and Western ideas have become familiar, and have fostered the natural desire to be free; to throw off the cultural and political bondage to England, and to attempt to restore the national culture by reabsorbing into the new westernised way of life as much of the ancient cultures as is still relevant in the modern world. Religious and literary language were naturally the first to be influenced by the nationalist spirit. Christian missionaries had done most to disseminate English culture in the east.

The indigenous languages had to be rescued immediately from the inferior social and cultural position to which they had been degraded. But English was already securely entrenched in the lives of the intelligentsia and the native agents of British rule, a small percentage of the population, but the rich, the educated, the powerful. From them must come both the struggle to change the old order, and the resistance to change, arising either from the conviction that "Whatever is, is right" or from sheer inertia. The very difficult task that now faces educationists, and the unenviable position of English in this situation can be made clearer by a comparison.

10. An English noun can be readily transformed for colloquial use by the simple process of adapting its sounds to Sinhalese speech habits and, in many cases, sufficient to give it a Sinhalese *eka* 'one' to it: *sōs* (sauce), *birandy* (brandy), *bicycal-eka*, *car-eka*, *gram* (a) *one-eka*.

In the Dark and Middle Ages in Western Europe Latin was the language of learning and science, and of diplomacy; professional men, lawyers and doctors, traders and business men needed to know Latin. It was in fact the international language of the educated. The vernaculars, however, were to be the language of private life and of creative literature. An educated man would thus have two languages at command, Latin and his native language. In England the Norman Conquest introduced a third language, Norman French. Latin remained the language of learning, while French became the language of society and of government; it was the language of the king and his court, of the barons and gentry (both English and Norman), of the professions, of merchants and even artisans; in short, of the upper classes and of those of the middle classes who had dealings with them or who wished to seem and cultivated French as a mark of social distinction. It was used in the home and in the law courts, and it was the medium of instruction in the schools. Naturally it was the vehicle of polite letters. English, which had been the language of official and private life among all classes of the people, and in which many works of literature and of edification had been written, before the Conquest, now lost its social value; it became primarily the language of the illiterate peasants. By Englishmen of the upper and middle classes it would still be used, but as an inferior language and chiefly in the intercourse with the lower classes.¹¹ At the same time its use by the ignorant and unlettered people and its escape from the pedantry of the learned led to the simplification of its grammar and those colloquial tendencies which have made English an analytical language. When the literary use of English was resumed, it was this spoken language, supplied by popular use with the richness of the soil, that was made the basis of the cultivated literary style.¹²

11. Many Englishmen continued to use their native tongue in literature as well as in intercourse, especially in the parts most remote from French influence—the North and the West Midlands.

12. Will colloquial Sinhalese and Tamil play a similar part in Ceylonese literature, and will the pundits succeed in keeping alive the moribund literary forms? In a recent work on *Sinhalese Fiction*, by E. R. de S. Sarathchandra it is noted that controversial literature, which began in the middle of the 19th century, supplanted the language (p. 7), made it flexible and vigorous (p. 9); that the style of Koggala Dharmatileka, for example, was simple, direct, and close to the spoken language" (p. 10). But the pundits seem to be reasserting themselves: On page 16 the author says that "in the early days of journalism the newspapers and periodicals used a language closer to the spoken than the newspapers and periodicals of today." On page 19 we are told that in the 19th century Sinhalese language "had thrown to the winds many grammatical conventions in the name of fluency of expression. . . . And this it did to some extent in spite of the influence of the grammarians, though today we see signs of the language being stifled owing to their influence."

English, like Sinhalese and Tamil in Ceylon today, was still, there the language of the great majority of the people. There were, first, the saints who probably knew a few French words (like the illiterate Sinhalese and Tamils who know a few English words); the bilingual Englishmen and the bilingual Sinhalese and Tamils; and the Normans who gradually became the language of the country (unlike the British, few of whom do so, and unlike the Normans, are not a permanent part of the population). But it was inevitable that French should be the language of everyone of consequence or who desired to be of consequence. "For unless a man knows French is held of little account", wrote Robert of Gloucester in 1298. Ralph Higginson writing about 1350, tells us that noblemen's children are taught French from the time that they are rocked in their cradles; and even country folk will gentlemen and try to speak French to be thought well of.

The position of English in relation to French was thus in many ways that of Sinhalese and Tamil in relation to English. But there are vital differences. In the first place, as Normans and Englishmen became welded into one nation the Norman-French language began to lose its prestige and English became the symbol of the rising spirit of nationalism. It might seem an easy thing to have done to give back to English its rightful place in the life of the nation. But the process was slow. Beginning about the middle of the thirteenth century it was completed only at the end of the fourteenth, when for the first time since the Conquest, one could speak of "the King's English". Henry IV (1399) was the first king of England, since the Conquest, to whom English was his mother tongue. In Ceylon, English cannot be merely discarded like French in fourteenth century England. A majority of politicians as well as educationists would probably wish to retain English as a second language. Englishmen in the fourteenth century recognised a loss in the discontinuance of French in the grammar schools where "children now-a-days know no more French than does their left heel," because they would be at a disadvantage when they "cross the sea and travel in foreign countries" (John de Trevisa 1387). How much more would Ceylonese regret the loss of a language known in every part of the world. Some place has obviously to be found for English in our educational system.

The change over from French to English took place in England immediately before the earlier Renaissance and England was able to profit by the discovery of the ancient classics and the intellectual awakening of Europe. Literary movements in all parts of the country accompanied the general replacement of French by English. At the same time "Standard English" began to emerge, and Chaucer appeared at exactly the right moment to enhance the prestige of this type of English and accelerate its adoption as the standard literary language. Ceylon, one must hope, will profit by the Renaissance of Oriental learning and culture in India. But the reinstatement of the native

and the cultural renaissance must be preceded by radical changes in the educational system. The English literary tradition had been reduced to the language, to political and social inferiority but not destroyed by the Norman Conquest. English ceased, for a time, to be the language of the masses, but it continued to be used uninterruptedly for the edification and enjoyment of the common people, and this popular literature derived from older literary forms. Above all, the continuity of English had never really been broken. The French culture introduced by the Normans modified but did not oust the native culture. In Ceylon the native culture among the educated, has been all but effaced by the very thorough westernisation in the English schools; it is chiefly among those who speak the vernaculars that the traditional culture has preserved its continuity. The intelligentsia may be able to appreciate the ancient or modern literature of Europe, but have lost the ability to read the literature of their native country.

Popular literature exists, but its quality and efficacy are limited by the relatively low standard of culture of the vernacular speaking people and the absence of communication between the vernacular literates and the English educated. In brief, our educated men and women are for the most part 'English educated' and therefore incapable of either producing or appreciating native literary works.¹³ Those who attend the Vernacular Schools are only literate enough to read or write anything valuable in their own language. The new system of education must in the course of time provide the poet or playwright or novelist both with his technique and his public.

That which is valuable in the life and thought of the past has to be made available in the present, and the instrument of language, long left to the use of those who are incapable of adapting it to the needs of a changing world, and put to its best uses only, has to be polished and reshaped. That Sinhalese and Tamil must take the place now occupied by English in the lives of the Ceylonese is a generally accepted view. How this is to be effected is not so generally considered, and when it is, the simple solution of making the indigenous languages the primary subjects in the schools and for examinations, and of using the vernacular as the medium of instruction 'as soon as the change can be introduced' is the vague programme envisaged. Least of all is the part to be played by English in the period of transition, and after, given any attention. There can be no doubt that English must play an important part in the development of a suitable technique for making the vernaculars the media of communication, and probably a predominant part in any literary Renaissance one can envisage for Ceylon.

¹³ This refers to 'the common reader', and not to specialists and scholars.

The small percentage of educated Ceylonese are 'English educated' they know English, and, for the most part, they know it well. It is by that the preliminary work of translating and adapting suitable foreign books and of writing new ones must be done, before Sinhalese and Tamil can take their natural place in the educational system.¹⁴ If these English educated scholars know no Sinhalese or Tamil, or do not know them sufficiently well (it is likely to be the case at first), they will have to collaborate with Sinhalese and Tamil scholars. But the ideal is that there should be, as soon as possible, a stage of complete bilingualism in the English schools. It is only the scholar who knows English and Sinhalese (or Tamil) almost, if not quite, as well, who will be able to bring the thought and feeling, the learning and creative literature of other nations¹⁵ to his countrymen; or translate the terminology of modern science or mathematics or linguistics into the vernacular; or adapt the technique of modern scholarship to local needs.¹⁶

Before considering the place of English in the educational system of the present and of the future, I shall indicate briefly the process (as I see it) by which the vernaculars can once more be brought to play their natural part in the life of the island. First the standard of education in the Vernacular and Anglo-Vernacular Schools must be raised by every available means, and compulsory education strictly enforced. Simultaneously, the teaching of the vernaculars in the English Schools must be entrusted to teachers thorough-

14. A beginning has already been made: Several books used in the vernacular schools are adaptations of English books, and some important books have recently been translated into Sinhalese and Tamil:—e.g. *Our Heritage* (Parts 1 and 2), and *The History of Ceylon* are available in English, Sinhalese and Tamil versions; *The New Geography* in English and Sinhalese; and there are books on other subjects too, in one or both of the vernaculars. But, on the whole, the tendency in Ceylon has been to press for the adoption of the mother tongue as the medium of instruction without previously or simultaneously providing the necessary materials and technique. Contrast the procedure of the state of Hyderabad: Conjointly with the building of the new university in which instruction was to be imparted in Urdu, a publication bureau was set up by Government to translate and compile the necessary text books.

15. Not of course, of England alone; both Western and Oriental learning and literature can be read in English translations. A certain amount of Western and Oriental literature has, apparently, been translated into Sinhalese (see *Modern Sinhalese Fiction* *passim*), but in the absence of a critical Sinhalese-reading public it is difficult to assess the value of this work.

16. In England, in the sixteenth century, simultaneously with the attempts made by intelligent educationists, like Mulcaster, who "perceived in due course the arbitrariness and remoteness from life of the education of their day, and the unreasonableness of the neglect of English," to give the English language its natural place in the educational curriculum, scholars were at work adapting the language to every modern need, chiefly by the work of translation from foreign languages, ancient and modern, into English. Poets and writers of all kinds experimented with the language, and by the end of the sixteenth century there could be no doubt of the capacities of English for every kind of artistic use.

ant both in their native language and in English. Many such teachers will be immediately available. But the present policy of gradually making the study of the mother tongue compulsory in the English Schools, together with the study of the indigenous languages at the University of Ceylon, will result in such teachers in increasing numbers. When Sinhalese, Tamil, and English have an equal status in the school curriculum, there will emerge from the schools a thoroughly bilingual intelligentsia. These will not only add to the number of teachers, now woefully small, capable of teaching the mother tongue in schools which use English as the medium of instruction, and provide the scholars to do the work of preparing the way for the change over from English to vernaculars in all schools, but will form a nucleus of readers for new books written in Sinhalese and Tamil.¹⁷ The number of such readers will naturally increase as the standard of education in the Vernacular Schools is raised, and as the whole population of the island is brought within the educational system. There will thus grow up together scholars capable of translating the best of foreign literatures into the indigenous languages, and readers who will be profiting by these books. What is valuable in the ancient cultures of the island will be revitalised by contact with what is of worth in other cultures, ancient and modern; and to give expression to this new synthesis will appear the now voiceless artists.

But those who are planning our educational system of the future will have to remember that the problem is not so much a scholastic one as really a practical one. The anxiety to learn English, which beginning in the latter years of British rule, has spread ever more widely is the result of the great opening of opportunities, of the economic benefits, which this knowledge has brought. Similarly, if you can give a greater cash inducement, so to speak, to the study of Sinhalese and Tamil, standards in both will improve.

What of English now and hereafter? No one who has thought at all of the matter will deny that the present linguistic situation is in the highest degree unsatisfactory. In the English Schools the vernaculars were 'treated' about twenty years ago as alien languages, and not merely neglected: educational authorities at one time even sought to banish their use from the social intercourse of the school and the home.¹⁸ English, in the big schools,

The reviewer of a recent book: *Modern Sinhalese Fiction*, by E. R. de S. Sahrana, asks very appositely: "What is the author's purpose in writing a criticism of Sinhalese fiction in English?" and points out that, if it is intended to guide and help the writers of Sinhalese fiction, it should have been written in Sinhalese, that neither should be intended for the Sinhalese-reading public. It must be addressed to the English-reading public and yet how many of these can read a Sinhalese novel? (*The Ceylon News*, June 4, 1943).

When Sir (then Mr.) Brandis Denham the Director of Education, formulated his policy of "English, more English, better English." In England the neglect of English and the use of Latin as the medium of education till the end of the 17th century led to a situation as curiously like those due to the neglect of the vernaculars and the use of English as the medium of instruction in Ceylon. Many schoolmasters had a better command of Latin than of English. "English was a penal offence; the Grammar School statutes of the 16th and 17th centuries provided as a rule not only that the master should speak Latin to the scholars, but that the scholars should speak Latin to each other both within the school and without." *Report on The Teaching of English in England* (see note 20), § 34.

was regarded as the mother tongue ; it is still treated as such and consequently also neglected.¹⁹ In all countries there is a tendency to take one's mother tongue for granted. It is learnt first at one's mother's knee, and then, when one just picks it up. Foreign languages, mathematics, science must be taught by specialists. But one's native language can be allowed to look after itself. When the baneful results of this attitude began to force themselves on attention in England, educationists began to examine the place and function of the native language in the curricula of the schools, and at the universities.²⁰ In 1921 George Sampson, in *English for the Empire* (a wise and practical approach to the problem) wrote (p. 25) : " Another peculiarity of English that gives it special importance is that it is the medium of instruction in school—as, indeed, it is the medium of all intercourse, social and commercial, public and private. What should have been its strength in school has been its weakness. As the medium of instruction it has been everybody's business, and has, therefore, become nobody's business. Teachers seem to think that it is always some other person's work to look after English. *But every teacher is a teacher of English because every teacher is a teacher in English.*" (Author's italics). Every word of this applies to the English schools in Ceylon. Sampson is referring to the teaching of English in the Elementary Schools to boys and girls in whose case English is not quite the same thing as the mother tongue. For these children come from homes in which different forms of English are spoken. " The teacher's hardest struggle ", he writes on page 24, " is not against pure ignorance but against evil knowledge. It is hopeless does the struggle seem that many elementary school teachers give up, and say that the attempt to teach good English to children who live and move in an atmosphere of degraded English is sheer waste of time." This parallel with conditions in Ceylon schools is, therefore, closer than it may at first seem to be.

19. See Mr. H. S. Perera's *English as Adopted Language*, p. 7 : " These teachers seem to regard English either as mother tongue or as foreign language. . . . It was clearly altogether a foreign language to them. The only alternative left was to regard it as mother tongue." English was indeed the ' mother tongue ' of most children who attended English schools (i.e. schools in which the medium is English, the sense in which the word is used throughout this article), until a couple of decades ago, when the growth of a national spirit reintroduced the native languages into the familiar intercourse of the home. Children were usually bilingual, speaking to their parents and relations in English, and the servants in Sinhalese or Tamil. But the language they gradually grew less proficient in was not English but their native tongue. The Burghers (Ceylonese of Portuguese or Dutch descent) spoke 'Ceylon Portuguese' or Dutch at home till a couple of generations ago, when they almost universally adopted English.

20. See the *Report of the Departmental Committee Appointed by The President of the Board of Education to inquire into the position of English in the Educational System of England.* (May 2nd, 1919.)

medium of instruction in Ceylon is English in all secondary schools, in technical colleges, in training colleges for teachers, and in the University. If we do not have a good command of this medium our whole education suffers. In the subjects on the school time table, we suffer in the capacity to understand and intelligent living. Language commands in the modern world new powers which have great potentialities for good and evil : the Film, Broadcasting, Advertising and Propaganda, the Best Seller. Our only means of distinguishing right from wrong is through the study of language. If we do not know how words are used, they shall be at their mercy. This situation, as Dr. I. A. Richards has pointed out, is the outcome of our modern heterogeneous civilisation. A few generations ago men were born into more or less homogeneous cultures, and the acquisition of language through intercourse with his fellows was sufficient to give a man a good command of it. But now our everyday reading and writing handles elements from diverse cultures : " we are forced to pass from ideas and feelings that took their form in Shakespeare's time or Dr. Johnson's time to ideas and feelings of Edison's time or Freud's time and back again. More troubling still, our handling of these materials varies from column to column in the newspaper, descending from the scholar's level to the kitchen sink level." (*Practical Criticism*, Dr. I. A. Richards, p. 339.) If, therefore, in the English language we use, we must be able to understand it when we hear it spoken, to speak it clearly and correctly, and to write it with fluency and grace. Every teacher, therefore, in those schools in Ceylon which use English as the medium of education, should be able to distinguish between good and bad English, should know something of the physiology of the language and of the psychology of language ; and should himself be a model in the use of the English language. Of how many teachers is this true ? If in other respects there is cause for complaint in England, how much worse must it be in Ceylon ?

In the schools which use English as the medium of instruction the teachers are almost entirely Ceylonese, to whom English is a foreign tongue. How does this come to pass ? When schools were first established by the British in Ceylon, English was taught first to a few, then, as the demand increased, to ever increasing numbers. When a sufficient number of children had mastered it, more or less, they were regarded as capable of teaching the language to others, or at any rate, of using English in the teaching of other subjects. These English-speaking Ceylonese gradually adopted English as their language. The next generation of children would thus hear English rather than Sinhalese (or Tamil or Portuguese or Dutch) in their homes, and English could be used more and more in school. In the course of time the whole English system of instruction, text books and all, was introduced into Ceylon. And so, more and more Ceylonese learnt to think and express themselves in a foreign language, and to do this for the most part remarkably well. As the school-going population increased, more natives of the

country were required as teachers. English, which had originally been taught by those whose native language it was, gradually came to be taught almost entirely by Ceylonese. At the same time increasing numbers of those whose home language was Sinhalese or Tamil went to English schools. These developments acted together to affect slowly but surely the standard of English used in the schools. The worse (from a linguistic point of view) the more the better should be the teaching in the school. But really the reverse is the case, and this is roughly the situation today.

As schools were staffed more and more by Ceylonese, the standard of English (especially spoken English) varied considerably from school to school and from teacher to teacher. A very good mathematician might have a poor command of English. English, treated for so long as the mother tongue of the pupils (and where it was not, recommended to be adopted as such), became to be entrusted to anyone who was willing to teach it, or had a spare period to give to it.²¹ Hence the present state of affairs: the standard of spoken English especially, but also of written English, has deteriorated even among those who use only English at home or who use both English and their native language equally. In the case of those who speak one of the vernaculars at home and English in school (the majority) the result has been pretty near disastrous. They receive little training in the use of their native language and are compelled to translate their thoughts and feelings into the idiom of an alien tongue, with the peculiarities and idiosyncrasies of which only those born to the tongue (and not all those) or habituated to it by long study and constant use become familiar.²²

It is certain that for a good many years to come English cannot be replaced by the vernaculars as the medium of instruction in the present English schools. Meanwhile Sinhalese and Tamil will become more and more the home languages of the educated. A period of thorough bilingualism is likely in fact inevitable. Except by the Burghers, English will cease to be regarded

21. Not many years ago there came to my knowledge what, I hope, is a rather extreme case. 'English Conversation' was taught in the Special Class (consisting of children who had transferred from Vernacular or Bilingual Schools to this English school) by the school-boxing instructor, whose very amusing, but far from idiomatic English, used to be published in the school magazine, along with the current school-boy howlers.

22. See J. R. Firth, *Speech* (Benn's Sixpenny Library) p. 40. "The characteristic feature of all spoken languages is that native speakers make the fullest use of the perceptual situation and of the assumed background of common contexts of experience." "Babu is not by any means confined to India. It is the common danger lurking in all pupils with literary education, and especially perilous if the languages are alien to the social life of the learners." The kind of English often written by undergraduates offering English as a subject is a terrible commentary on the present language conditions. The conditions in India are similar. "Mr. F. K. Clark, Educational Commissioner with the Government of India, in his report on Education in India states: 'the use of the vernacular for instruction and examination purposes is increasing and will continue to do so. . . . Also with the change the use and application of the English language have deteriorated.' Cited in W. E. J. Beeching in "The Vernacular as the Medium of Instruction", *Modern Language Review*, Vol. XVII, No. 2, p. 40.

as their 'dame's tongue'. What is to be the position of English in this period? One of two attitudes can be adopted: let English go on being used while the vernaculars are being developed and gradually reintroduced into general use, or attempt to teach English systematically, as a foreign language. To regard English as a foreign language is, for many Ceylonese, a matter of course. And if English is to be taught as a foreign language, other questions have to be answered: What spoken form of it should be used? "Standard English"²⁴ or the "Modified Standard"²⁵ used by the

This view is taken by the authors of a book on the teaching of English in India, published last year: *The Teaching of English* in India by Thompson and Wyatt (Humphrey's). A technique is available, developed by West, Palmer and others; and there is also a 'Basic English, which is of some limited use.

Standard English is very difficult to define. It is often described in terms of a 'dialect', but as Lloyd James says (*The Broadcast Word*, p. 116): "there are so many varieties in speech apart from sounds; there is voice, there are grammar, choice of words, rhythm and intonation. . . ." And it must be remembered that "The general character of any type of speech is as much contained in the configuration of its phonetic elements as in these elements taken singly." Professor Daniel Jones, in the introduction to his *English Dictionary*, defines Received Pronunciation as a local (Southern) and class (Public School) dialect. So Fuhrken (*Standard English Speech*, p. 15): "the form of it employed by educated people in the home countries. . . ." Others, like Palmer for example, define it purely as a class dialect. See Wyld *The Best English*, P. E. Tract No. XXXIX, p. 605: ". . . the type spoken by members of the Public Schools, and by those classes in society which normally frequent these." In *The Teaching of English*, p. 65f. At best it is a vague term. Kennedy (*Current English*, p. 24) describes it as "the language generally used by the most intelligent and best English speakers", and enumerates certain criteria by means of which it can be identified. But Lloyd James (*The Broadcast Word*, p. 162) says: "It is very clear that educated people of this country do not all speak the same sort of language, or use the same pronunciation, and if we are to accept the usual definition of Standard English as being that of the educated then we must either define the generation that our Standard is a very vague one." J. R. Firth (*Speech*, Benn's Sixpenny Library) distinguishes between 'Standard English' and 'Educated English'. The former, with Wyld, is a class dialect: "Professor Wyld holds this view. 'It may be said, says, 'good English, well-bred English, upper-class English, and it is sometimes, he says, referred to as standard English.' (p. 63). 'Educated English shows a certain degree of permissible variation. Speakers of this kind of English do not necessarily show all signs of social or geographical origin. . . . Educated English is spoken by all people all over the English-speaking world. This is the only kind of English that has the remotest chance of universality even in Great Britain itself. It must be remembered that even a high degree of education is not in itself a mark of class. Educated people do not form a class in England, or in the English-speaking world.'" (p. 62).

See Wyld, S. P. E. Tract No. XXXIX, 604-5: "This term is intended to cover the various types of English, many of them spoken by highly educated people, who, while they adhere, on the whole, to the Standard, especially in accident and idiom, are nevertheless more or less deeply affected, either by provincialism, or by the use of a dialect, but the uncandid would hesitate to call vulgarism, in pronunciation. . . . These people believe to be an attempt to speak the 'best' or 'standard' English by those who had the advantage of hearing and speaking it from childhood up. It is indeed a 'gone wrong, and 'modified' either by a provincial or as I prefer to call it, 'dialect, or by an inferior Class dialect.'" Cp. also Wyld, *A History of Modern English*, pp. 3, 4, 7, 11. Perhaps it is simpler to regard Ceylonese English as a 'dialect'. See Kennedy, *Current English*, 55ff: "Sometimes the English-speaker has attempted to foist his language upon a conquered people, and the result has been a new form of English, such as that spoken in India, South Africa, or the West Indies."

best Ceylonese speakers? What are the characteristics of Ceylonese English? how does it differ from what is commonly called "standard" or "correct" English? Can a distinction be made between permissible variations and those which vitiate the language? Is English to be taught in all schools? English, Bilingual, and Vernacular, and by whom is it to be taught, by Ceylonese or by Englishmen?

There has grown up in Ceylon a form of English speech with a distinct flavour of its own in regard to pronunciation and intonation, and, in the ears of most speakers, idiom, grammar, and vocabulary as well. The explanation of this form of English would include the investigation: (i) of the social and educational background of those who first taught English to the Ceylonese; (ii) of the extent to which the sounds of Sinhalese and Tamil (and also, perhaps, Ceylon Portuguese) have influenced the pronunciation of Ceylonese English; (iii) of the prevalence of 'translation errors', *i.e.* of the importation of idioms and grammatical usages into Ceylonese English; (iv) of the extent to which words from the indigenous languages (and from Indian dialects and Portuguese) are commonly used in this form of English.

All but a negligible minority, who for special reasons can speak Standard English,²⁷ use a form of English showing these peculiarities, much more in course, in the spoken than in the written language. In the written language divergences due to 'translation errors' would practically disappear. Local words would only be used in the case of special subjects. There are no gradations between those who speak almost exactly like educated English people, and whose written English is indistinguishable from Standard English, and those who speak a very mixed and impure form of English. But there is a kind of English spoken by English educated Ceylonese, chiefly those who have used English as their only or their first language for several generations (including Burghers, Sinhalese and Tamils), in which the sounds vary slightly from those of Standard English—no more than a Northern born educated Englishman's might,—in which the melodies or tunes are not markedly different from those of Standard English, if exhibiting a smaller comparative variety, and from which local idiom and grammar are practically absent. This form of English is thus in general unobjectionable and can be taught, provided there is a careful selection and training of teachers in modern methods of teaching English to foreign students (which involves among other things a knowledge of the native language of the pupils).

26. Cp. *Indian English*, S. P. E. Tract No. XLI, by R. C. Goffin: "A real difficulty confronting the Indian perfecting himself in English, but one often overlooked, is the dialectical variations to be found in the speech of his 'English' official superiors and teachers themselves. . . ."

27. Education in England; frequent association with English people.

Other alternatives present themselves. One need only be mentioned. The teaching of Standard English speech to Ceylonese by those who can speak it themselves, but can tell you what it is, and play gramophone records to you to illustrate what they mean. This seems too ridiculous to mention, but it is not absolutely unknown in Ceylon. If Standard English is not taught in Ceylon, then, there is no alternative to the importation of English men and women. The greatest objection to this method of teaching English is at present political. But there are also practical difficulties, the most of them the cost of employing a sufficient number of such teachers, the difficulty of getting suitable persons.²⁸

For practical and other reasons the almost certain course will be the teaching of the Ceylonese variety of 'Modified Standard' English. It is one of the modified English (note 24) and affords "a reasonably practical standard for local and social intercourse" (Firth speech p. 65). If we accept this course, and also recognise that English has a practical and cultural value in two things are necessary: The best type of local English must be taught, and its deterioration must be arrested by every possible means. It must be taught only by those who have made a special study of its history and literature.²⁹

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It is worth noting, too, that Ceylonese who speak 'Standard English' are generally of the upper social class. There are several reasons for this: those who now speak St.E. either belong to the upper social class, with long purses which can take them to the English Public Universities, and so are disliked too much to be imitated, or have rather painfully acquired this kind of speech for social reasons and so are regarded as the apes of the English; they are singular in speaking English as the majority of their countrymen do not speak it. Children of mixed English and Ceylonese descent also generally speak St.E., but they are a special case. Standard English has thus rather unpleasant connotations when it is spoken by Ceylonese.

The reviewer of *British Rule in Eastern Asia* by Lennox A Mills, in *Oversea Education*, XIV, No. 1, Oct. 1942, writes: "The many problems arising from the wide-spread natural demand for instruction in the English language are shrewdly discussed by the author's acquaintance with similar problems in the Philippines and Java enables him to make useful suggestions. His assumption that English can be taught effectively by local teachers is not confirmed by experience in India and in several colonies, where no local teachers have been obtained by carefully planned training." (The italics