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COMMITTEE ON INFORMATION FROM NON-SELF-GOVERNING TERRITORIES

Fourth Session

SUMMARY RECORD OF THE EIGHTIETH MEETING

Held at Headquarters, New York,
on Thursday, 27 August 1953, at 2.15 p.m.

CONTENTS

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PRESENT:

Chairman:	Mr. LOOMES	Australia
Rapporteur:	Mrs. MENON	India
Members:	Mr. FRAZAO	Brazil
	Mr. LIU	China
	Miss MAÑAS	Cuba
	Mr. SVEISTRUP	Denmark
	Mr. BENITES-VINUEZA	Ecuador
	Mr. CHARTON) Mr. PIGNON)	France
	Miss RUSAD	Indonesia
	Mr. KADRY	Iraq
	Mr. GRADER	Netherlands
	Mr. SCOTT	New Zealand
	Mr. WARD	United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland
	Mr. BEDELL) Mr. GERIG)	United States of America
Representatives of specialized agencies:		
	Mr. GAVIN	International Labour Organization (ILO)
	Mr. BAÑOS	Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO)
	Mr. AKRAWI	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)
	Mrs. MEAGHER	World Health Organization (WHO)
Secretariat:	Mr. HOO	Assistant Secretary-General
	Mr. BENSON	Secretary of the Committee

EDUCATIONAL CONDITIONS IN NON-SELF-GOVERNING TERRITORIES: REPORTS SUBMITTED BY THE SECRETARY-GENERAL AND THE SPECIALIZED AGENCIES (continued)

(d) Vocational education (A/AC.35/L.132, 141) (continued)

Mr. CHARTON (France) described the position and problems of technical education in the French overseas territories. Since 1946, France had made great efforts to develop vocational education, which was one of the fundamental conditions of economic and social development.

Two types of economy, which were often associated, co-existed and were being developed in the African territories. One was the old rural economy, still limited and regional, and the other was a modern economy, in contact with the outside world and based on transport networks and urban centres. Most African farmers still used primitive methods to till the soil and raise cattle. That traditional rural economy was in the process of evolution; steps were being taken to furnish ploughs and other agricultural implements and to introduce new and better varieties of crops, all of which would bring additional wealth to the people. A parallel development was the growth of an economy of exchange, which depended on modern means of transportation and which was reflected in the rapid development of ports and cities. Thus, Casablanca, Dakar and Tunis had all grown markedly in recent years, the increase in their population being due almost entirely to the influx of Africans from the surrounding countryside. Lastly, considerable industrial development was taking place in Northern Africa and, while in other territories on that continent progress was slower, a number of projects had been undertaken and mining, in particular, was of great importance.

It was clearly recognized that vocational education must keep pace with all those forms of evolution. In African territories, there were two main types of vocational education: the first type took the form of the perpetuation and improvement of traditional trades, arts and crafts. Craftsmen were taught to use modern equipment and techniques and to improve their products. Girls learned improved techniques of housekeeping and child care in domestic science schools and took their knowledge back with them to their homes which were bound to remain their chief field of activity for at least some time to come. Much was being done to preserve ancient culture as exemplified in African arts and crafts and to

find markets for them. There was a maison des artisans at Bamako and Brazzaville and instruction in arts and crafts was given in Morocco, Tunisia and Madagascar. The second type of vocational education, which was known as technical education, was very similar to French technical education in its structure and programmes. Its development varied from one territory to another, according to the commercial and industrial development of the region and the demand for technicians. In the first place, the centres d'apprentissage trained skilled workers for the regions which they serviced, according to the needs of those regions. They provided for occupations requiring modern techniques and equipment (electricians, mechanics, fitters, woodworkers etc.). At the next stage were the collèges techniques, which offered practical and workshop instruction together with general secondary education, trained employees, administrative officials, foremen and accountants and gave certificates of professional, industrial and commercial competence. At the highest level were special schools, which trained agronomists, assistant engineers, industrial draughtsmen, etc. There were several such schools at Casablanca. In Tunisia there was a collège technique for girls and a school of Mediterranean agriculture for students who had passed the baccalauréat examination. Finally, about 500 African students, after undergoing vocational training in the Non-Self-Governing Territories, were now completing their studies in France.

He then gave precise data for several territories. In French West Africa there were 10 centres d'apprentissage and 8 collèges techniques with nearly 4,000 students. In French Equatorial Africa, an under-populated and economically retarded region, there were 5 centres d'apprentissage and 1 collège technique. In Madagascar, there were about 5,000 students in vocational schools, of wh over one thousand were girls. There was a special industrial school, and collèges techniques for boys and girls. Tunisia, with its 11,000 vocational students, over 7,000 of whom were Tunisians, showed how swiftly progress could be made once the population wanted to take part in the country's economic life. Lastly, Morocco had 14,000 students of whom over 7,000 were Moroccans. It had an industrial school and several special schools, such as the Ecole du livre, in which book-binding and printing were taught, a school for building and a school which offered courses in the manufacture of precision instruments.

It would thus be seen that France had made a great effort to develop vocational education in the Non-Self-Governing Territories, an effort which had

been largely financed, in the case of buildings and equipment, by the Fonds d'Investissement pour le développement économique et social (FIDES) (Investment Fund for Economic and Social Development). As vocational education was more expensive than academic education, the sums involved were quite impressive.

Mr. FRAZAO (Brazil) said that the statements of the French and United Kingdom representatives had shed a great deal of light on the information contained in document A/AC.35/L.132.

In view of the particular importance of vocational education in the Non-Self-Governing Territories it seemed to him that the opportunities for agricultural training were inadequate. The number of agricultural schools in many Territories seemed to be determined by vacancies in the administration. Care should be taken, however, to train not only future government officials but farmers able to apply modern scientific methods and to increase the productivity of the land.

Secondly, opportunity for industrial vocational education appeared to be even more restricted than for agricultural education. The needs of the labour market were gauged too closely, and only a few Africans were trained as skilled workers to replace the Europeans. In the Belgian Congo there was not only restriction of opportunity but actual discrimination; vocational schools for Europeans offered more advanced courses than schools for Africans, to ensure that the African should remain in subordinate positions.

In view of the world's acute need for raw materials, an effort should be made to develop vocational education not only to meet immediate administrative and industrial needs, but with a view to further economic development. Africans should be trained in much larger numbers, not only in order to replace a few Europeans here and there, but to give a new impetus to economic progress.

He hoped that the Sub-Committee on Education would give serious attention to the matter.

Miss AÑAS (Cuba) had also heard the statements of the French and United Kingdom representatives with great interest. She agreed that vocational education was a prerequisite for economic development, and emphasized the need for making such education available to women under the same conditions as to men,

so as to enable them to participate fully in the economic life of their countries. The Commission on the Status of Women, which was concerned with equal rights and opportunities for women everywhere, had adopted a resolution on the subject of vocational guidance and vocational and technical education of women which had been approved by the Economic and Social Council as resolution 445 D (XIV) and which she recommended to the Committee's attention.

The number of working women in the world was increasing, owing largely to increased opportunities for vocational education. Such opportunities should everywhere be equal to those of men, so that women could claim equal pay for equal work without encountering the argument that they deserved less pay because they were less well trained. It was interesting to note that in some of the Non-Self-Governing Territories under French and United Kingdom administration that principle was beginning to be recognized. Furthermore, women should be given the same access as men not only to vocational education, but to all other types of education, so that they could become fully fledged members of society, and she hoped that all the Administering Powers would make greater efforts in that direction than they had done in the past.

Mr. WARD (United Kingdom) was very glad that the Brazilian representative had asked whether more attention should not be given to agricultural training. The question was frequently asked but from different motives. The Brazilian representative was convinced of the importance of agriculture in a world in which many citizens were inadequately fed. Many people, however, were more interested in the question from the point of view of the produce markets, and thought in terms of a world full of docile, hard-working agricultural labourers. The inhabitants of the Non-Self-Governing Territories knew that, and accordingly suspected the motives of anyone who told them that since agriculture was their biggest industry and should be developed they themselves should devote their lives to it.

The problems in the way of developing agriculture were many. One was the drift to the towns, a world-wide tendency. Another was the peculiar position of Europeans in Non-Self-Governing Territories. They were normally seen in positions of authority, and only very rarely in positions where they earned their living by manual labour. Thus it was difficult for the European to persuade

the indigenous inhabitant to go to an agricultural school. Another problem was village conservatism. An African, for instance, who had taken an agricultural course would find himself up against the village elders and their traditions. The educated African would tend to go to the town, where he could find better living conditions, a more congenial social atmosphere, and better opportunities. Rural life must be made more attractive if people were to be induced to regard agriculture as an adequate career. Composite training colleges such as existed in East Africa offered some hope of breaking down the prevalent attitude towards agriculture by bringing teacher, agricultural and other students together in a common course, thus making it appear as honourable and profitable an occupation as any other.

The CHAIRMAN announced that the discussion of item 4 (b) of the agenda was concluded.

He ruled that item 4 (e) could be discussed in conjunction with item 4 (g).

(e) The financing of education (A/AC.35/L.122 and Add.1) (continued):

(g) Community development and the general co-ordination of educational and social policy (A/AC.35/L.131)

Mr. BEDELL (United States of America) said that in the United States and its Territories the first objective was to arrive at a satisfactory relationship between the educational programme and the money required to put it into effect.

As an illustration of how stimulation of local community interest can help solve the problem of financing education, he described the initiation of education in a community in an unnamed country with a hot dry climate. The first step had been to dig a well so that water was available in large quantities. But the people had still known nothing of hygiene, so that the provision of water did not improve the standard of health. An educator had been sent out to interest the

people, first of all through their children, in the uses of soap and water. The total cost to that point had been less than $4,000, but the seed had been sown. No more money had been put into the project, and from then on the awakened interest of the community had led it, step by step, to open a school, send teachers for training, etc., out of their own resources. In due course the idea had spread to 23 neighbouring communities, the whole cost being the small amount of money originally invested in a single community. That was the meaning of community development, to make a community interested so that it built institutions on its own initiative. In that particular instance the community had been primitive, but in more developed areas already existing social institutions had been used, with special success in Puerto Rico, where the Department of Education had set out to cure "civic unemployment" by developing the organization of leisure. Such community programmes could be introduced if the community wanted it, if a certain amount of native talent existed and if a little money was available to start with. The aim was to help people to identify their problems, to know their resources and through that knowledge to solve their problems, to work for a common purpose on their own initiative, to build up social institutions designed to continue to solve their problems, and to find the means of obtaining the necessary money.

Mrs. MENON (India) said that more information on the financing of education in Non-Self-Governing Territories was desirable. While the Secretariat was to be congratulated on document L.122, the information was confined to certain selected areas; further the varying financial arrangements between various metropolitan and dependent territories, together with currency differences and the fact that much education in the Territories was financed by voluntary bodies made it difficult to arrive at a basis for comparison. It would be useful to have more information on the allocation of funds as between primary, secondary and higher education. She thought there was a tendency to place undue stress on higher education in some Territories in deference to the

needs of the government service, while the responsibility for primary education was shared haphazardly among sundry bodies. Co-education made it difficult to assess the amount spent on girls' education. Per capita expenditure was not a wholly satisfactory index, but it undeniably was an index of progress. It appeared that other commitments, such as defence, prevented some administering Powers from spending as much as others on the Non-Self-Governing Territories, but that did not explain why proportionate budgeting varied between Territories administered by the same Power. It would be useful to amend the standard form for collecting information so that those points could be presented to the Committee in a more comparable form.

Mr. AKRAWI (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization) said that he had some points to put forward, based on statistics, which might assist the discussion. It might help in the consideration of what proportion of budgets was devoted to education. Column 2 of table 1 (A/AC.35/L.12 showed that four Territories spent less than 5 per cent, seventeen 5-10 per cent, twelve 10-15 per cent, three 15-20 per cent and one, more than 20 per cent, the range being 2-34 per cent. Thus thirty-three Territories were spending less than 15 per cent. Second, a comparison of per capita expenditures was useful. After allowing for currency variations and by relating total expenditures to enrolments, in primary schools only, it appeared that the range was from less than $1 to $55 per pupil, which showed scope for improvement. Third, it should be ascertained whether existing expenditure was being used to the best advantage. He was thinking of a case where the expenditure per pupil was fairly high, although less than 5 per cent of eligible children were actually attending school. Possibly programmes were too ambitious and economy might help; in some cases local committees might not be doing all they might. His intention in intervening was to mitigate the hopeless feeling which the discussion of educational finance might induce.

The Chairman suspended discussion on item 4 (c).

(f) Use of Indigenous languages in education (A/AC.35/L.137)

Mr. KADRY (Iraq) drew attention to an unfortunate tendency on the part of administering Powers to discuss a particular Territory and generalize from that to all the others. He agreed with the statement in document L.137 that "each situation demands study and an individual approach". Comparison between conditions in different territories was dangerous.

UNESCO regarded it as axiomatic that "teaching in the vernacular is always theoretically possible and, wherever possible, should be practised, particularly in the earlier years of schooling" (L.137). Although the report went on to say that there were many difficulties, it was a serious matter that there were cases where administering Powers were not using vernacular languages in education in Non Self-Governing Territories.

Mr. LIU (China) pointed out that all the sub-items on education were very closely interrelated; most of them, however, constituted objectives to be attained in Non-Self-Governing Territories, whereas the use of indigenous languages in education and the financing of education related to the methods whereby the objectives were to be achieved.

The problem of language was an extremely technical one and the Committee would have to rely on the professional services of UNESCO for information on the subject. Nevertheless, the Committee might take some of the conclusions in the UNESCO monograph on the use of indigenous languages as a basis for its discussions. It was stated in that monograph that every pupil should begin formal education in his mother tongue, that all languages could become vehicles of modern civilization and that a lingua franca could not take the place of the mother tongue. Furthermore, it was stated in the conclusion of the interim report on the problem of vernacular languages in education, prepared by UNESCO (A/AC.35/L.137), that UNESCO's programme had moved to a more particular study of special aspects of second language teaching and of methodology of teaching reading and writing.

In connexion with second language teaching, he drew the attention of the Committee and of UNESCO to the position in the Territory of Malaya, where large populations of different nationalities lived side by side. Children were educated in four different kinds of schools, where they were taught in Malay, English, Chinese and Tamil. An act had been passed recently establishing "national schools" where free education would be given to children of all nationalities. There were to be two types of national schools; in one type, Malay would be the first language and English the second and in the other, English would be the first language and Malay the second. Chinese and Indian pupils could attend those schools if they wished and, if the demand was sufficient, classes in Chinese and Tamil were arranged for them.

He considered that Chinese and Tamil should be taught automatically at the national schools and not only at the request of parents. English was taught from the third year in Chinese schools and Chinese children in Malaya thus had every opportunity of becoming trilingual, since they learned Malay as a matter of course by associating with Malay children. Although he sympathized with the Malayan Government's objective of establishing uniform national education with a view to creating a homogeneous Malay nation, he did not think that the claims of Chinese and Indian civilization and culture should be ignored or placed on sufferance. Nevertheless, the experiment of national schools in Malaya was extremely interesting from the linguistic point of view and would provide UNESCO with an excellent field for study of the subject of second language teaching.

Mr. WARD (United Kingdom) stated that the Government of the Federated States of Malaya had recently become concerned with the question of adapting the educational system to build up Malayan nationhood, in view of the difficult linguistic and social situations in the Territory. It had appointed two committees to investigate the systems of educating Malay and Chinese children. On receiving the reports of those bodies, it had resolved to initiate a national educational

policy and had set up another committee to translate that policy into legislation. He read a passage from that committee's report, to the effect that Chinese vernacular schools were an integral part of the Malayan educational system and must continue to be so for a long time to come, until the Chinese themselves decided that they were not needed; the same applied to other vernacular schools. The continuance of Chinese schools had therefore been provided for in the ordinance on a national educational policy, which had been enacted in 1952.

He pointed out that in both types of national schools Chinese and Tamil would be taught where desired. No question of privilege or sufferance was involved. If the parents of fifteen Chinese or Indian children in a national school asked that their children should be taught Chinese or Tamil, the teaching staff were bound under the ordinance to comply with the request. Moreover, there was no question of restricting the existing Chinese or Indian schools until the Chinese or Indians themselves decided that they no longer wanted them.

He assured the Chinese representative that the Malayan Government was keenly aware of the justice of the claims of the Chinese inhabitants of Malaya for the maintenance of their old cultural heritage and would do nothing to minimize the status of that culture. Opportunities to study Chinese would continue to be made available at Government expense and were expressly provided for in the recent legislation.

Mr. AKRAWI (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization) recalled that a group of experts had been instructed three years previously to study the problem of the use of indigenous languages in education. Their findings had been published in the monograph before the Committee. The problem, which existed in Non-Self Governing Territories and sovereign States alike, was so complex that there could be no question of applying a universal policy or set of principles; there were many exceptions even to the general suggestions made in the experts' report.

Every effort should be made to begin the formal education of every pupil in his mother tongue, but practical difficulties sometimes made that impossible. Literacy campaigns for adults achieved better results if they were conducted in the mother tongue. The principal difficulties in using vernacular languages lay in providing functional material and teachers with an adequate knowledge of the language concerned, since teacher training was often conducted in a foreign language.

Some languages were used by so few people that their use in education was not economically feasible. In such cases, the most promising and most widely used language had to be explored and the problem of finding teachers also arose. The use of a lingua franca was advisable only if the language concerned was widely-used and if the groups speaking the vernacular language were small. Where there was a need to establish a national language, the children would have to learn both their mother tongue and that language; the solution to that problem was to teach the national language orally at first, and to introduce reading and writing in it gradually.

It was important for the peoples of Non-Self-Governing Territories to keep in touch with modern technical and agricultural developments and from that point of view the use of a second language was advisable. There was an increasing recognition of the principle that all pupils should first become literate in their mother tongue, which could provide a good introduction to learning a second language. That principle had been confirmed by a conference of education authorities from English-speaking countries in Africa.

A factor of primary importance in combating illiteracy was the development of techniques for teaching reading and writing. The group of experts had gathered information and material on the subject and had reached some preliminary conclusions. The aims of teaching reading and writing were now much broader than they had been, since learning was regarded as a means of adapting individuals to social life and of attaining wider comprehension. The range of methods of teaching

reading, which could be taught alphabetically, syllabically, by sentences or by whole stories, was very wide and it had been found that one method was seldom used by itself. It was difficult to judge at the current stage which was the best method; the subject required further study.

UNESCO was preparing a letter suggesting the establishment of a committee which would transfer the question to the experimental level. UNESCO itself was unable to undertake any large-scale experiments, but could help interested States and Territories to draw up plans and could provide them with the necessary information and material. The preliminary work on the subject had been completed and field work was now most important. The administering Powers had shown interes in the question and had initiated the study of vernacular languages and of t e possibilities of their use in education.

The main objectives to be borne in mind were the need for broad-minded experimentation, the collection of material and the training of teachers.

The meeting rose at 5.55 p.m.