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COMMITTEE ON INFORMATION FROM NON-SELF-GOVERNING TERRITORIES

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SUMMARY RECORD OF THE SEVENTY-NINTH MEETING

Held at Headquarters, New York,
on Wednesday, 26 August 1953, at 2.15 p.m.

CONTENTS

Educational conditions in Non-Self-Governing Territories: reports
submitted by the Secretary-General and the specialized agencies:

- (c) Education of girls (A/AC.35/L.133) (continued)
- (d) Vocational education (A/AC.35/L.132, L.141)
- (e) The financing of education (A/AC.35/L.122 and Add.1)
- (f) Use of indigenous languages in education (A/AC.35/L.137)

Establishment of a sub-committee on education

PRESENT:

<u>Chairman:</u>	Mr. LOOMES	Australia
<u>Rapporteur:</u>	Mrs. MENON	India
<u>Members:</u>	Mr. FRAZAO	Brazil
	Mr. LIU	China
	Miss MAÑAS	Cuba
	Mr. SVEISTRUP	Denmark
	Mr. BENITES-VINUEZA	Ecuador
	Mr. PIGNON)	
	Mr. HURE)	France
	Mr. CHARTON)	
	Miss RUSAD	Indonesia
	Mr. KADRY	Iraq
	Mr. GRADER	Netherlands
	Mr. SCOTT	New Zealand
	Mr. PIRACHA	Pakistan
	Mr. VARD)	United Kingdom of Great Britain
	Mr. MATHIESON)	and Northern Ireland
	Mr. FERNOS-ISERN)	
	Mr. SEARS)	United States of America
	Mr. BEDELL)	

Representatives of specialized agencies:

Mr. GAVIN	International Labour Organisation (ILO)
Mr. BALLOS	Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO)
Mr. AKRAWI	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)
Mrs. MEAGHER	World Health Organization (WHO)

<u>Secretariat:</u>	Mr. HOO	Assistant Secretary-General in charge of the Department of Trusteeship and Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories
	Mr. BENSON	Secretary of the Committee

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

(c) Education of girls (A/AC.35/L.133)

Miss RUSAD (Indonesia) stated that document A/AC.35/L.133 had given her delegation a useful insight into the problems of the education of girls in Non-Self-Governing Territories. Paragraph 54 of that document showed that there was general agreement among the Administering Powers concerning the importance of women's education and the need to improve it. Nevertheless, the recognition of principles had little significance if their translation into practical terms were forgotten or neglected. It was stated in paragraph 5 that the type and quality of education in most of the Territories was generally poorer for girls than for boys. In paragraph 15, it was admitted that girls were often taught by inadequately trained women teachers. In paragraphs 21 and 27, it was stated that in most Territories girls' education did not go beyond the post-primary level, since a full secondary course was not provided. According to paragraph 24, vocational training had until recently been regarded as an education for boys only. Paragraphs 38 and 39 gave a description of the unsatisfactory situation with regard to higher education for girls. All those admissions showed that the Administering Powers' declaration of principle still needed to be implemented.

The Indonesian delegation also wished to draw the Committee's attention to the disparity which still existed between the enrolment of girls and boys in primary schools. In the Belgian Congo, for example, the enrolment of girls was less than 10 per cent of that of boys. She was sure that adequate primary education for girls in all Non-Self-Governing Territories could be achieved.

The social factors militating against the education of girls could be dealt with more effectively if the authorities concerned would work for the modernization of the views of the indigenous inhabitants on the social status of women. That could best be done by using modern methods of propaganda and information, such as radio and mobile film units. The United Kingdom representative's remark that the influence of environment on children was three or

more times as strong as that of the school confirmed the fact that the provision of educational facilities for girls must be complemented by a change in the outlook of the people themselves. Before Indonesia had become a sovereign State, it had been generally held that Indonesian girls needed little or no education. Since the country had achieved independence, however, Indonesian women had attained equality of rights with men and freedom of movement and education.

The Indonesian delegation considered that efforts to improve girls' education should be concentrated on preparing public opinion and providing primary schools. It was also highly important to provide for vocational training for girls, to prepare for work which could best be performed by women. The problem of providing education for girls in sparsely-populated rural areas could be solved by the establishment of boarding schools. Those were the initial steps which the Administering Powers could take to implement the principle which they had recognized.

Mrs. MENON (India) said that her delegation was disappointed by the situation with regard to the education of girls as described in document A/AC.35/L.133. Although there seemed to be general agreement on the importance of such education, the implementation of measures for its improvement were most unsatisfactory. The Indian delegation wished to draw attention to the defects described in the document, because it considered that the education of girls needed much more attention than that of boys.

The document showed that the education of girls lagged behind that of boys in most of the Territories. Far fewer girls attended school, and the education they received was generally inferior to that of boys. Women teachers were inadequately trained in some cases. Even when girls were admitted to co-educational schools, they were neglected to such an extent that they could not benefit by the better standards of those schools.

The alleged reason for that state of affairs was not neglect on the part of the Administering Powers, but racial customs, traditions and economic and social factors. Yet throughout the document there were references to an insistent and increasing demand for more educational facilities for girls. The situation shown by the figures in the report was lamentable. The proportion of girls in

the total enrolment in primary schools ranged from 15 to 67 per cent; at the secondary level, however, there was a considerable decrease, especially for the African population; the table showing the proportion of the girls enrolled in general secondary schools as against the total enrolment of girls in primary schools was especially important, since it gave a picture of wastage in education: the percentage was 1.3 in French Equatorial Africa; .42 in Basutoland; 1.49 for Africans, 1.66 for Arabs, 10.37 for Asians and 55.69 for Europeans in Kenya; 2.4 for Moroccans and 28.6 for non-Moroccans in Morocco; 1.7 for Moslems, 11.6 for Jews, 21.1 for the French and 9.2 for others in Tunisia. The fact that social prejudice was not so strong a barrier to girls' education as it was alleged to be was proved by the fact that Moroccan Moslem girls were attending a co-educational lycee in increasing numbers since girls had been admitted to it. In Kenya also, 84 Arab girls were enrolled in a co-educational secondary school. The Administering Powers need have no qualms about proceeding with a programme which would give equal educational opportunities to girls in the Non-Self-Governing Territories.

The shortcomings of higher education for girls in those Territories were due to the anachronistic idea that woman's place was in the home. The Indian Delegation felt very strongly that it was for the girls and women themselves to decide their future. There was plenty of evidence to prove that the women of the Non-Self-Governing Territories were taking that attitude. The theory that curricula should vary according to sex was absolutely false and imposed a stamp of inferiority on women's education. It was essential to provide a wide range of subjects at the secondary level, to enable the pupils to make their choice of an occupation suitable to their aptitudes. Though the Africans were an artistic people, African girls were given no opportunity for artistic expression in schools, but taught instead to make unsuitable clothing and to cook unsuitable food. It was not surprising that African women were sceptical about the uses of "domestic science".

The only way of eliminating the excessive importance attached to academic education, was to attach equal value to academic and non-academic subjects. The modern world would not tolerate the existence of an elite class and it was wrong to attempt to perpetuate such a class by means of education. The education of the African woman should not be confined by a narrow concept of her opportunities: it was essential that those women should be able to envisage careers as professors, doctors, lawyers, technicians, scientists, painters and sculptors and should be prepared to take their places as citizens of the world.

Facilities for higher education were at present limited by the shortage of secondary schools and the absence of an establishment for higher education in any of the Central African Territories. It was for the Administering Powers to remedy those two shortcomings. Even if no large-scale development programmes were undertaken, the Administering Powers could make an effort to improve existing institutions in order to increase opportunities for the education of girls.

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

Mr. BENSON (Secretariat) recalled that no document on vocational education had been prepared in 1950, although some papers had been submitted on the training of specific technical groups. Considerable developments had taken place in that field and noteworthy changes had even taken place since 1950.

He drew the Committee's attention to the comprehensive nature of vocational education, which should be regarded as an integral part of general education. No technical training could be undertaken without a background of general education. Another point to be considered was the relation between vocational training schemes and the needs of industries, whether expressed by private employers or trade unions.

In conclusion, he drew attention to the last paragraph of document A/AC.35/L.132, which stated that vocational training should not be interpreted as a narrow training for various forms of employment, but should include emphasis on citizenship.

Mr. FERNOS-ISERN (United States of America) stated that the principle of vocational education applied throughout the United States and in the Territories administered by it was to teach each individual the knowledge, skills and attitudes which would enable him to become as productive as possible in his own community. The methods of vocational education represented the most effective combination of the cultural processes known to the pupil and the techniques provided by the professional specialist. Vocational education was an integral part of the educational system. In some cases, separate vocational schools were established, but for most pupils vocational training was a part of the general educational programme. Courses were selected by the pupils and were open to persons of all races and creeds on an equal basis.

The Territory of Alaska did not operate vocational schools as such, but in the school year 1951-52 sixteen high schools had given shop courses, sixteen had given home-making courses and twenty-two given commercial courses. The Alaska Department of Education had set up minimum standards for elementary and high school courses of study, which were presented in broad outline form; the schools then developed local curricula to provide for local needs and to utilize any special advantages the community might afford. Three high schools in the Territory had carried out a work-experience programme in 1950 and 1952. That was a method of vocational education most suitable for small communities which could not afford to purchase elaborate equipment.

A vocational school in American Samoa provided training for adults in woodworking, carpentry, mechanics and agriculture. The Agriculture Department conducted the agricultural training programme mainly for veterans of the Second World War, laying stress on practical work. Some vocational training was also provided by commercial courses in high school and agricultural courses in junior high school.

In 1952, an evening vocational school had been opened on Guam with a view to providing adults with new or additional skills and knowledge. The curriculum included accounting, blueprint-reading, bookkeeping, stenography, typing, drafting, office management and office machine repair. The Government had organized in-service training programmes to remedy the shortage of skilled and semi-skilled workers. An agricultural extension service was provided to help farmers solve their problems by demonstrations.

Great emphasis was placed on vocational education in Hawaii, where opportunities for vocational training were available not only to children but to adults. The principal subjects of vocational training were agriculture, home economics, trade and industry, occupational information and guidance, and business education.

Vocational training in the Virgin Islands had been reorganized and extended in 1952, when the first grant of federal funds had been received for that purpose. Before that grant had been made, the vocational training programmes had been organized mainly as a division of the Charlotte Amalie High School, where all the students had been required to spend an hour and a half daily in a class of home-making, manual or industrial arts or craft training.

His delegation wished to draw special attention to its final report on education in Puerto Rico. Vocational education was an integral part of the general education programme administered by the Department of Education of Puerto Rico. The sections of vocational education dealt with agriculture, home economics and handicrafts, trade and industry, business education, industrial arts and guidance. The programme had expanded in the last twenty years; there were now eleven vocational trade schools giving regular day classes and veterans' trade and industrial education programmes. The day programme was open to elementary school graduates who wished to learn a trade. The vocational programme in the secondary school was intended for students who wished to combine their general education with vocational education; they usually spent an equal amount of time in workshops and academic classes. Vocational trade schools often also provided part-time and evening classes, to train the workers needed by the industries of Puerto Rico.

An organized programme of vocational education had been begun in Puerto Rico in 1931. By the end of the 1931-1932 school year, programmes of vocational agriculture, home economics, trade and industries had been started. Vocational rehabilitation had been begun in 1936, distributive occupations in 1938 and vocational guidance in 1939. Existing programmes in commercial training handicrafts and industrial arts had been transferred to the vocational division of the Department of Education of Puerto Rico in order to unify all vocational and pre-vocational activities.

During the 1931-32 school year, the vocational education programme had had a budget of \$154,980 and had provided for about 5,700 students. The budget for the 1952-53 school year amounted to \$2,750,205.80 and the estimated enrolment was approximately 90,000; excluding the 60,000 students in the guidance programme.

Puerto Rico had always been an agricultural community, but concentrated attention had been given to its industrialization in the past ten years. Over two hundred new factories had been established recently and industrialization was regarded as a major solution of the unemployment problem. That did not mean, however, that agricultural improvement and production was being neglected.

Vocational education was making its contribution to the effort towards increased agricultural and industrial production. The Puerto Rican vocational educational programme was unique in the experience of the United States. The rapid economic progress of the island had made it the spearhead of America experiments in technical assistance. In 1952-53, approximately 500 persons had been brought to Puerto Rico under the United States and United Nations technical assistance programmes, approximately three-quarters of them from Latin American and the Caribbean. The Metropolitan Vocational School at San Juan, in collaboration with the University of Puerto Rico, provided teacher-training experience in addition to instruction in skilled trades. In the past three years students from over twenty countries had come to Puerto Rico under UNESCO and Point Four programmes to observe its educational growth and general progress.

Vocational agricultural education was stimulating increased food production and helping to prepare agricultural leaders. Such training had resulted in improving farming methods and rural homes. In 1951, 7,435 boys and 2,000 adult farmers had received supervised agricultural instruction. The teachers of vocational agriculture were using co-operative planning methods in their work with individuals and groups and the participation of students, parents and teachers in planning and carrying out local programmes had brought about a constructive change in the general attitude towards agricultural education.

Vocational education in home economics had been begun in 1932 in 36 schools, with an enrolment of about 2,000 girls. The programme, which comprised cooking, nutrition, clothing, child care, home nursing, housing and social family relationships, now covered approximately 17,000 girls, 2,000 boys and 1,828 adults, in 164 centres. The budget for the programme had increased approximately nine-fold, from \$57,000 in 1932 to \$500,000 in 1952. Adolescent boys and ex-service men either attended regular classes in home economics or used a system of exchange classes, whereby girls received training in home food production and home mechanics and boys received training in clothing selection and care, food preparation and social and family relations. After-school groups were also helped by the organization of mothers' clubs in home economics centres and by encouraging girls to carry on activities together with their mothers and other adults. Home improvement workshops had been set up to give teachers practical experience in helping low-income families to solve their food, clothing and shelter problems. Handicrafts teachers were now receiving training in home economics, since it was considered advisable for them to give their pupils home-making instruction rather than to allow them to devote all their time to handicrafts. The objectives of the home economics section were to give two years' instruction in home economics in junior high schools, to open a vocational home-making centre in every secondary school, to increase the number of teachers for adult education, to promote the establishment of school co-operatives in home industries and to develop a programme in which the home, school and community would co-operate to achieve effective education for home and family living.

The trade and industrial education programme was now being conducted in 11 vocational trade schools, 10 of which had been built and equipped between 1946 and 1952 at a total cost of \$6,447,000. There were 20 programmes of diversified occupations in 16 centres and an effective programme of part-time and evening classes. The appropriation for the programme for 1952-53 was \$854,841.54 and the total enrolment was 13,890, with 3,495 students in vocational trade schools, 485 in the diversified occupations programme and an estimated 10,000 in part-time classes; 12,569 ex-service men had received training in special programmes.

The Division of Vocational Education was intensifying the dissemination of information to improve and expand industrial orientation.

The increased demand for secretaries, typists and other clerical workers caused by the development of commerce and industry had led to the establishment of the two-year commercial course in some high schools. That programme had expanded gradually and there were now 21 commercial education centres with a total enrolment of 3,352 students. A committee was currently working on the revision of the business education curriculum.

An occupational information and guidance service had been established in 1939 and had given immediate attention to the training of guidance personnel. Courses in guidance and related fields were given in co-operation with the University of Puerto Rico. In 1943, \$150,000 had been appropriated for counselling services and the guidance personnel in public schools had been increased. Eighty-eight counsellors had been assigned for the 1952-53 school year. A programme of studies for a professional diploma in guidance, approved in 1950, had given rise to great improvements in the training of counsellors, whose institutional training was supplemented by in-service training. The guidance service had co-operated with the Research and Statistics Division of the Department of Education in establishing norms for Puerto Rico at the secondary level for the Co-operative Inter-American tests of general ability and reading in English and Spanish. The results of the tests served as a source of information for adapting teaching methods and as a basis for the educational and vocational plans of students.

The existing vocational rehabilitation plan offered physically and mentally handicapped persons medical examinations, counsel and guidance, medical, surgical, psychiatric and hospital care, artificial appliances, vocational training, maintenance and transportation, tools, licences and equipment, job placement and follow-up services.

During the 1949-50 school year, the industrial arts section had been integrated into the Division of Vocational Education. Since then it had been re-organized to meet the needs of the pupils, the schools and the community, in accordance with Government plans for industrial development. Approximately 30,000 high school students were currently enrolled in industrial arts courses. In junior high schools, the learning was mainly exploratory and instruction was given in woodwork, metal work, electricity, general crafts, textiles and ceramics and communication and transport. More specific work in the same subjects was given in senior high schools. A 50 per cent increase in the number of students was expected by 1960. In-service teacher training was provided through classroom meetings, study groups, conferences, sectional meetings, teaching publications, workshops and extra-mural courses. The University of Puerto Rico gave a Bachelor of Science degree in industrial education and New York University gave a summer course in industrial education in Puerto Rico.

The objectives for future years were to improve teacher training, to increase the efficiency of organization and to establish practical courses to meet the needs of the pupils, the school, the community and the growing industry of the island.

Mr. GAVIN (International Labour Organisation) said that Documents L.132 and L.141, together with the statements made in the Committee, gave an adequate picture of progress in vocational training and guidance in the Non-Self-Governing Territories in recent years.

Referring to the first sentence of paragraph 53 of A/AC.35/L.132, "The prejudice against manual work need hardly be emphasized since it is a matter of general experience, particularly where there are opportunities for clerical employment for a large proportion of school graduates", he stressed that the problem was not purely educational; it was a matter of making manual employment at least as attractive as clerical. That was being done in at least one

Territory, Nigeria, and a remarkably successful attempt was being made, with the approval of local Trade Union leaders, to fix manual wages at the same or at a higher level than clerical wages in the government service, in the hope that private employers would follow suit.

The question of further opportunities for the employment of girls was difficult, since even in advanced countries the range of technical training for girls was far more limited than for men; nevertheless opportunities were increasing in the Non-Self-Governing Territories. In Nigeria, for instance, women had been for practical purposes excluded from industry and commerce, with the single important exception of vegetable selling in the markets, but now there was a movement of women into certain industries such as cigarette and soap manufacture, where certain repetition jobs were being successfully performed by women, sometimes with mechanical assistance. Two trade centres for a total of 350 girls were being opened in Nigeria to teach such subjects as embroidery, needlework, cooking, etc., not from an educational point of view, but in order to provide skilled operatives for the industries concerned. Those centres had a section for purely commercial studies which had previously been a purely male preserve. In French West Africa, accelerated training techniques had been introduced at Dakar, based on selection before training, and he hoped that at some time in the future notes on results in that venture would be available from the French Government.

The planning of vocational training required up-to-date information on man-power needs in the territories to avoid the mixing of priorities and the diversion of financial resources to less important objectives. Interesting examples of economy in training resources were provided by the Puerto Rican centre, which was open to all the inhabitants of the Caribbean area, and by the South Pacific centre.

Finally, he stressed the fact that assistance in vocational training was available to the Non-Self-Governing Territories through the United Nations technical assistance programmes, and that the help and experience of the specialized agencies was available to those territories equally with other countries.

Mr. WARD (United Kingdom) said that although the importance of vocational training had never been overlooked in Non-Self-Governing Territories under British Administration, it had been recognized that results were not satisfactory, and thinking and practice on the subject had had to be overhauled. In the Gold Coast, the Basel Mission primary schools had done extremely good work in training artisans, and as long ago as 1924, trade schools and a technical college based on those schools had been established, but unfortunately these institutions had not succeeded in developing the tradition of the Basel Mission-trained craftsmen.

The new policy realized that two levels of technical ability were required, that of the artisan proper and that of the technician, i.e. the engineer, works foreman, etc. The old system had produced only the former, and had done nothing for his superior officer, the technician. Further the old system had had no provision for "in-service" training as industry and commerce had not as yet been sufficiently developed. European firms had not been interested in training indigenous technicians, and there had been but few indigenous firms. It was now realized that in-service training was an essential part of vocational training, and that a college-trained man was far from complete without that practical background. The new policy made a distinction at primary and junior-secondary school level between vocational training proper, which was a serious matter, and training in educational handicrafts, which were not suitable to teach specific skills but were intended only to develop manual dexterity and to assist in the general education of the individual. Vocational training was now believed to require not less than 8 years' general education, followed by 3 years' basic training in specific crafts and at least two years' in-service training, which could be provided either by the employer or at a continuation school, the trainee being released by his employer for periods of training.

In the field of higher technical education, the United Kingdom had developed a new idea, with particular reference to West Africa but now spreading to other British Non-Self-Governing Territories, known as the college of arts, science and technology. The intention was to provide a technical education at the same level as the academic education provided by a university. It was also

intended as a temporary measure to carry students over the two-years gap between the School Certificate level reached by the secondary school, which was supposed to qualify for university entrance, and the actual standard in practice required of entrants by the universities. Thus the college covered all post-secondary and pre-university training, as well as continuation training in conjunction with commerce and industry. The new colleges were available to all races and both sexes, and offered between them primary and secondary school teacher training courses, with facilities for specialization in such branches as art and music, four-year courses in accountancy and engineering, a three-year course in secretarial practice, courses in pharmacy, architecture, agriculture, with specialization in agricultural machinery, courses for leaders in community development schools, and arts and science courses up to university entrance standard.

In closing he again stressed the necessity for in-service training under competent supervision, which would become progressively more available as the colleges produced more and more indigenous employers and supervisors qualified to supervise trainees.

The meeting was suspended at 3.50 p.m. and resumed at 4.30 p.m.

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

Mr. BENSON (Secretary of the Committee) recalled that, in addition to documents A/AC.35/L.122 and Add.1, a mimeographed paper giving detailed information with regard to certain Territories had been distributed to the Committee. The paper, while short, had been very difficult to prepare and the Secretariat would appreciate comments on it, either now or at a later stage.

Mr. WARD (United Kingdom) wondered what line the Committee, composed as it was largely of educational experts, could usefully pursue in discussing the financing of education. All its members were aware of the financial obstacles involved and of the fact that the most backward territories, which needed education most, were least able to pay for it. While the Committee could

not ignore the financial problem in its report, neither could it suggest a quick and easy solution. The shortage of funds for education in Non-Self-Governing Territories was part of a larger problem - the shortage of real wealth in the world as a whole - and was a matter for financial experts and administrators to study.

In the experience of the United Kingdom, it was not impossible to find funds for capital investment, such as the building of schools or hospitals. The real difficulty arose in paying for the annually recurrent items: maintenance, supplies, the salaries of the staff, etc. International assistance was at present confined to capital investment. In the past three years, for example, the United Kingdom had contributed nearly 9 million pounds sterling in aid for primary and secondary education in the Non-Self-Governing Territories under its administration. Large as the sum was, it was only a drop in the bucket, and it was intended solely for capital investment, so that the vexing problem of upkeep remained. That was the problem which most urgently called for a solution, and he hoped that the Committee might have some suggestions which could be profitably passed on to the financial authorities, who would probably have the last word in the matter.

He had one such suggestion to make himself. The normal practice of administrators was to divide the available funds among all the social services. It was his personal opinion that if, for the space of ten or fifteen years, education was assigned more than its share of the funds, even at the risk of temporarily starving the other services, there would at the end of that time be an increase in efficiency, keenness and initiative on the part of the local personnel and the local population which would make possible more rapid progress in all the other fields and would therefore be economically profitable. He realized that this idea was not generally accepted, but felt that it was by sponsoring some such revolutionary notion though not necessarily this one, that the Committee might point the way out of the present deadlock.

The CHAIRMAN stated that further comments on the financing of education could be made at a later meeting.

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

The CHAIRMAN, noting that no representative seemed prepared to speak on that item, suggested that the discussion should be postponed until the following meeting.

It was so decided.

ESTABLISHMENT OF A SUB-COMMITTEE ON EDUCATION

The CHAIRMAN recalled that on previous occasions, when it had constituted sub-committees to deal with special subjects, the Committee had appointed six members, three representing the Administering Powers and three the non-administering Powers. In accordance with that practice, he suggested that the sub-committee on education should be composed of the representatives of France, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom, Brazil, China and India.

It was so decided.

The CHAIRMAN expressed the hope that the representative of UNESCO and the representatives of other specialized agencies who might be interested would assist the Sub-Committee in its work.

With regard to the Sub-Committee's functions and terms of reference, he suggested that it should not be viewed as a drafting committee, but should be given wide latitude and should proceed to its task in the manner it chose. Attention had been drawn in the course of the debate to particular questions which might be given more detailed study than others. He would not, however, suggest that the Committee should specifically limit the Sub-Committee's terms of reference to the extent of excluding any of the items on the agenda from its consideration. Moreover, the emphasis to be given to particular questions should be determined by the Sub-Committee itself, in the light of its more detailed study and of the opinions expressed in the Committee.

He did not think it necessary for the Committee to decide to what extent the Sub-Committee should deal with the educational developments which had taken place since 1950. The subject was adequately covered in the papers prepared by the Secretariat and would no doubt be referred to in the Rapporteur's report.

On the other hand, the Sub-Committee should be free to consider some of the points raised in the 1950 Special Report on Education.

Mr. MATHIESON (United Kingdom) agreed generally with the Chairman's suggestions, but thought that the Sub-Committee should not feel obliged to re-open the discussion of items adequately treated by the Committee or to initiate new topics of discussion. Furthermore, the Sub-Committee might well devote one section of its report to the developments of the past three years, indicating major lines of progress and the manner in which the principles adopted by the Committee in 1950 had been applied in the Non-Self-Governing Territories, reaffirming the continuing validity of those principles, and describing any new lines of educational policy which had emerged during that period.

Mr. Frazao (Brazil) agreed in principle with the United Kingdom representative, but inquired whether, in that representative's view, the Sub-Committee should be free to apportion blame as well as praise.

Mr. MATHIESON (United Kingdom) said that he hoped to see, as in previous years, a fair appraisal of the facts.

The CHAIRMAN, noting that there was no further comment, stated that the United Kingdom representative's views would be taken into account by the Sub-Committee.

The meeting rose at 5.20 p.m.