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## ACCESS OF WOMEN TO EDUCATION

OPPORTUNITIES FOR GIRLS IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

Progress report prepared by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

The Secretary-General has received from the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization the following progress report which he has the honour to circulate to the members of the Commission on the Status of Women.
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## INTRODUCTION

The present report of UNESCO submitted to the United Nations Commission on the Status of Women, in compliance with Economic and Social Council resolution 154 F (VII), is divided into two parts. The first deals with the opportunities for girls in secondary education throughout the world, and the second with UNESCO's activities in the field of women's education during 1954.

Vocational education for girls is not dealt with in the present report; a joint UNESCO-ILO report will be produced next year on the subject.

This report does not review developments at other levels of education -pre-school, primary, higher - as did last year's report, because of the impossibility of appraising progress at all levels in the short period of one year. In the coming year, UNESCO's report will cover higher education for women.

With regard to the resolution of the Economic and Social Council, adopted on 12 July 1954, on educational opportunities for women (No. 547 K (XVIII)), requesting UNESCO to provide studies of methods used: (a) to increase school attendance by girls, including vocational education; (b) to encourage the use of women, including married women, as teachers in areas where it has not been customary to employ them in schools, the Secretariat of UNESCO is considering ways and means of fulfilling this request and will include its findings in next year's report.

The information contained herein is based exclusively on reports presented by Member States to UNESCO and to the International Bureau of Education, and on the latest statistical data available in UNESCO's Statistical Division.

## PART I

OPPCRTUNITIES FOR GIRLS IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

## 1. Legislation

In general, legislation concerning secondary education provides the same opportunities for boys and girls. But in practice, in many countries, the facilities available for girls to obtain a secondary education are still far from being equal to those for boys.

## 2. Organization

The duration of secondary education in the majority of countries is the same for both sexes. However, in a few instances there is a type of secondary education specifically feminine and terminal in character which does not lead to higher education, but prepares for home-making; it has a longer duration than the ordinary high school course. This is the case in Finland where there are a few girls' schools with an additional year in which an advanced course in home economics is given. In the Netherlands there is a special type of modern humanities school, the "school for home training", with a six-year course instead of the five years of the boys' schools.

The duration of secondary education is shorter for girls. In the German Federal Republic, where the normal duration of secondary education is six to seven years; in North Rhine-Westphalia and Rhineland-Palatinate, a three-year course is given in some of the girls' modern grammar schools, which lays stress on practical and artistic training.

In Colombia, where the normal high school course leading to higher education has a duration of six years, girls can obtain a secondary certificate after four years of study, giving them access to certain forms of higher education.

Secondary education for girls is provided in different types of establishments, in specifically girls' schools, such as the girls' high schools of the German Federal Republic; the home training school of the Netherlands and others; in girls' high schools which have the same aim and curriculum as the boys' schools, and in mixed high schools. In the two latter types, girls take homemaking and economics, while boys take manual work.

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The first type of schools exists in Austria, the German Federal Republic, Australia, Canada (Quebec), Dominican Republic, the Netherlands, Sweden and Switzerland (Geneva).

The majority of countries provide separate schools for girls at the secondary level although there is no rigid principle in the matter and in a number of countries secondary schools in smaller towns are mixed, and one-sex in larger towns where enrolments are sufficient to make this type of organization practicable and convenient. This is so in Australia, Austria, Ceylon, Costa Rica, Chile, Dominican Republic, France, German Federal Republic, Mexico, Portugal, Union of South Africa and Viet-Nam. In other countries there are establishments with a boys' and girls' section under one head; while in others there are boys' schools which admit girls when the latter begin their preparation for the baccalaureate, as for instance in France.

There are countries, however, in which by principle and tradition the sexes are educated separately: this is so in Colombia, Egypt, India, Iran, Iraq, Jordan, Pakistan, Peru and Spain.

Co-education at the secondary school level is adopted in principle and practice in Canada (with the exception of the private Catholic Schools of Quebec), Denmark, Berlin and Bremen in the German Federal Republic, Japan, the Philippines and the United States.

## 3. Curricula

In general, the curricula of the secondary school is the same for both sexes, except with regard to certain practical activities. Thus, girls take home economics, needlework, child care, etc., while boys take workshop activities, woodwork, etc. However, this difference in the practical activities taken by boys and girls at the secondary level is tending to disappear - as occurs in the primary stage - by not restricting certain activities to a given sex, but by allowing boys to take up practical activities formerly considered specifically feminine and by encouraging girls to engage in practical activities previously looked upon as specifically masculine. In Denmark, for instance, boys are given special training in woodwork to which girls may be admitted, and girls are given
special training in needlework and home management in which boys may engage. In France, the curricula of the traditional classes and that of the new classes are the same for both sexes, except with regard to handicrafts; thus while in the traditional classes boys engage in specifically masculine activities and girls in specifically feminine ones, in the "new classes" all handicraft subjects are taken indiscriminately by boys and girls alike, but in different proportions: more emphasis being given to textiles in the case of girls, and to metal work in the case of boys.

There is a second group of countries where there is not only a difference in the practical activities available in the curricula for boys and girls but there is also an adaptation of the curricula of the academic subjects in order to meet the special interests of girls or the special aims of girls' education. This is especially the case in countries where secondary education is organized for each sex. This adaptation of the curriculum to the special interests of girls means, in some instances, the omission of certain subjects in girls' high schools which are taken in boys' high schools, as in Iraq where girls are not taught political economy; in Geneva, Switzerland, where Greek is not taken in the classical section of the girls' high school, and girls wishing to take Greek do their final two years in the classical section of the boys' grammar school. In Neuchâtel, Switzerland, girls in the third and fourth years of the classical section who take Greek do not take, as boys do, one period a week of natural science. In Northern Ireland, little provision has been made until now for the teaching of pure science in girls' grammar schools.

The adaptation of the curriculum to girls' interests means the reduction of the number of pericds per week for certain subjects in the case of girls and therefore the reduction of the content of the courses. In other instances, while maintaining the same time-allotment, certain subjects may be given a different orientation for girls. In Neuchâtel, Switzerland, girls in the second year of the classical section take one hour less of mathematics a week, and in the modern section, girls do less mathematics and less drawing than boys, the time thus gained being devoted to feminine crafts and music - girls do not take geometrical

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drawing nor practical work in science. In Jordan, girls are given elementary mathematics in a simpler form and general science is oriented towards home-making, child-care and nursing.

However, the main differentiation in the curricula, both academic and practical, followed by boys and girls at the secondary level, lies in the system of optional subjects common to most countries which leaves the selection of subjects to the free choice of the students. In this respect, there seems to be a marked difference between the subjects chosen by boys and those chosen by girls. Thus in the United States, girls tend to choose commercial subjects (shorthand and typing) while boys select advanced mathematics and physics. In Sweden, girls generally prefer languages and domestic arts, and boys mathematics and technical subjects. In Australia, girls, more than boys, tend to choose cormercial subjects, art, botany, physiology and biology, while boys show a preference for physics and chemistry.

There is a third group of countries in which parallel to the ordinary high school there is a type of secondary establishment specifically feminine in character, with a curriculum leading to a school certificate different from that awarded at the completion of the ordinary high school studies. In Australia, for instance, there are home science high schools for girls. In Austria there is a type of secondary school exclusively for girls, parallel to the Gymnasium, Realgymnasium and Realschule (to which girls are also admitted), whose curriculum includes eight hours more a week for languages than in the other types of secondary schools; cookery and child-care are taught instead of descriptive geometry, and the total number of hours per week is considerably higher than in the Realgymnasium. In Canada, the Catholic schools of Quebec place particular stress on the preparation of girls for their responsibilities as wives and mothers, although adequate facilities are available for the training of those planning to enter trades and professions. In the Dominican Republic, in addition to the secondary studies open to both sexes, girls may prepare for a special baccalaureate (bachillerato de artes $y$ letras) organized for them by certain public or private secondary schools. In the Netherlands, the Hohere Burgerschulen, exclusively for girls, have a curriculum specially adapted to their needs. In

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Sweden, where both sexes have access, in mixed or one-sex schools, to all types of secondary education, there is in addition a type of secondary education designed exclusively for girls and given in the girls' municipal schools. In these establishments, studies are conducted more slowly than in other secondary schools and there are no examinations. The curriculum of these schools gives greater importance to modern languages, feminine crafts and domestic aris.

## 4. The enrolment of girls in secondary school

The access of girls to secondary school and the degree to which they have attained equality can be appraised by a study of enrolment by sexes. Table I shows secondary school enrolment for the different countries of the world, the latest data available, and the percentage of girls. For purposes of comparison, countries and territories have been classified within each continent in six groups according to the percentage of girls: less than 10 per cent, between 10 per cent and 20 per cent, between 20 per cent and 30 per cent, between 30 per cent and 40 per cent, between 40 per cent and 50 per cent, and over 50 per cent.

Europe and North America have the largest proportion of girls enrolled in secondary education. In Europe, of the countries included in the table, none has a female enrolment less than 30 per cent and in North America only two of the twenty countries and territories mentioned have a female enrolment, of less then 30 per cent. In Europe, 17 countries out of 23 , that is 74 per cent, have a percentage of girls enrolled in secondary education of between 40 per cent and 50 per cent or over. In North America, 15 countries out of 20 , that is 75 per cent, have a percentage of girls enrolled in secondary education of between 40 per cent and 50 per cent, or over.

In Europe, 14 countries out of the 23 included, that is 61 per cent, have achieved equality of access to secondary education for boys and girls. In North America, 12 countries of the 20 mentioned in the table, that is 60 per cent, have attained equality between the sexes at the secondary school level. The proportion of girls enrolled in secondary education in Europe ranges from 35 per cent to 58 per cent, with an average of 46 per cent, and in North America from 15 per cent to 65 per cent with an average of 43 per cent.

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TABLE I
SECCNDARY SCHOOL ENROLMENT FOR VARIOUS COUNTRIES AND TERRITORIES, LATEST AVAILABLE DATA (GENERAI SECONDARY EDUCATION)

| Country or Territory | School Year | Pupils En | rolled |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| AFRICA | Percentage of girls enrolled in secondary education less than | Total <br> (thousands) | Per cent female |
| Nigeria (U.K.) | 1950 | 31 | 9\% |
| Nyasaland (U.K.) | 1951 | $\times 0.2$ | $\times 3 \%$ |
| Togoland (U.K.) | 1952 | 0.3 | 1\% |
| Cameroons (Fr.) | Between 10\% and 20\% 1953 | - 3 | 11\% |
| Egypt | 1951 | 156 | 17\% |
| Eritrea | 1952 | x 1 | $\times 14 \%$ |
| French Equatorial Africa | 1953 | 2 | 12\% $\%^{\prime}$ |
| Gold Coast (U.K.) | 1950 | 6 | 120 |
| Portuguese Guinea | 1949 | 0.05 | $20 \%$ |
| Somaliland (Fr.) | 1953 | 0.1 | 20\% |
| Sudan | 1951 | $\times 5$ | $\times 11 \%$ |
| Togoland (Fr.) | 1953 | 1 | $20 \%$ |
| Uganda (U.K.) | 1952 | 9 | 13\% |
| Zanzibar and Pemba (U.K.) | 1951 | $\times 1$ | $\times 17 \%$ |
|  | Between 20, ${ }^{\circ}$ |  |  |
| French West Africa | 1953 | 9 | 22\% |
| Kenya (U.K.) | 1952 | 8 | 30\% |
| Mauritius and Dependencies | (U.K.) 1952 | 7 | 30\% |
| Morocco (Spanish) | 1950 | 2 | 30\% |
| Spanish Guinea | 1950 | 0.1 | 27\% |

x Total enrolment, general secondary and vocational.

## TABLE I (continued)

| Country or Territory |  | School Year | Pupils Enrolled |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| AFRICA (continued) | $\frac{\text { Percentage of girls }}{\frac{\text { enrolled in secondar: }}{\text { education between }}} \frac{30_{0}^{\prime} \text { and } 40^{\prime}}{}$ |  | Total (thousands) | Per cent female |
| Basutolard (U.K.) |  | 1951 | x 1 | $\times 34 \%$ |
| Madagascar (Fr.) |  | 1953 | 11 | 31\% |
| Northern Rhodesia (U.K.) |  | 1951 | 1 | $38 \%$ |
| Sierra Leone (U.K.) |  | 1951 | 3 | 30\% |
| Somaliland (It.) |  | 1951 | 0.5 | 31\% |
| Tanganyika (U.K.) |  | 1951 | 12 | $31 \%$ |
| Tunisia (Fr.) |  | 1953 | 17 | $34 \%$ |
| Between $40 \%$ and $50 \%$ |  |  |  |  |
| Algeria (Fr.) |  | 1952 | 51 | 49\% |
| Angola (Port.) |  | 1952 | 2 | $49 \%$ |
| Gambia (U.K.) |  | 1949 | 0.4 | 49\% |
| Mozambique (Port.) |  | 1952 | 1 | $41 \%$ |
| Southern Rhodesia |  | 1950 | 5 | 45\% |
| South West Africa |  | 1950 | 1 | 45\% |
| Greater than 50, |  |  |  |  |
| Reunion (Fr.) |  | 1950 | 3 | 58\% |
| Seychelles and Dependencies | (U.K.) | 1951 | 0.3 | 53\% |
| Swaziland (U.K.) |  | 1951 | 0.4 | $53 \%$ |
| AMERICA, NCRTH | Less than 10, |  |  |  |
| Honduras | - | 1952 | 1 | 9\% |
| Haiti | Between $1 C_{p}^{\prime}$ and $2 C_{m}^{c}$ | 1952 | 6 | $1.5 \%$ |
| Between 20\% and 30\% |  |  |  |  |

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TABLE I (continued)

| Country or Territory | School Year | Pupils E | nrolled |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| AMERICA, NORTH (continued) | $\frac{\frac{\text { Percentage of girls }}{\frac{\text { enrolled in secondary }}{}}}{\frac{\text { education between }}{30_{0}^{\prime} \text { and } 40 \%}}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { Total } \\ \text { (thousands) } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { Per cent } \\ \text { female } \end{gathered}$ |
| Barbados (U.K.) | 1951 | $\times 3$ | $\times 32 \%$ |
| Greenland (Den.) | 1951 | 0.1 | 35\% |
| Mexico | 1951 | 70 | 31\% |
|  | Between 40\% and 50\% |  |  |
| Alaska (U.S.) | 1951 | $\times 3$ | $\times 48 \%$ |
| Bermuda (U.K.) | 1951 | 0.5 | 42\% |
| Dominican Republic | 1952 | 9 | 47\% |
| El Salvador | 1952 | 11 | 41\% |
| Guatemala | 1951 | 10 | $42 c^{\prime}$ |
| Panama | 1951 | 10 | 49\% |
| Puerto Rico | 1951 | 113 | 49\% |
| Trinidad and Tobago (U.K.) | 1951 | 9 | 45\% |
| Windward Islands (U.K.) | 1951 | $\times 3$ | $\times 50 \%$ |
| Greater than 50\% |  |  |  |
| Bahamas (U.K.) | 1951 | $\times 1$ | $\times 510$ |
| Canada | 1950 | $\times 405$ | $\times 53{ }_{\rho}^{\prime}$ |
| Jamaica and Dependencies | 1951 | 6 | 55\% |
| Leeward Islands | 1951 | $\times 2$ | $\times 65 \%$ |
| Martinique (Fr.) | 1952 | 5 | 52\% $\%^{\prime}$ |
| United States | 1949 | x 6,453 | $\times 51 \%$ |
| AMERICA, SOUTH Between 20 at and $30{ }^{\circ}$ |  |  |  |
| Ecuador Between 20\% and 30\% 1950 . 18 20 |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |

x Total enrolment, general secondary and vocational.

## TABLE I (continued)

| Country or Territory | School Year | Pupils Enrolled |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Total Per cen <br> (thousands) female |
| AMERICA, SOUTH |  |  |
|  |  |  |
| Argentina | 1950 | $70 \cdot 33 \%$ |
| Bolivia | 1950 | 18 38\% |
| Colombia | 1952 | 65 39\% |
| Peru | 1949 | 22 39\% |
| Surinam | 1952 | 3 39\% |
| Venezuela | 1952 | 27 33\% |
| Between 40\% and 50\% |  |  |
| British Guiana | 1951 | 1 44\% |
| Faukland Islands (U.K.) | 1951 | $\times 0.1 \times 45 \%$ |
| Greater than 50\% |  |  |
| Chile | 1951 | 815 |
| ASIA |  |  |
| Less than $10 \%$ |  |  |
| Bahrein | 1951 | $0.26 \%$ |
| Pakistan | 1951 | 1,164 9\% |
| Between 10\% and 20\% |  |  |
| Aden Colony and Protectorate (U.K.) | 1950 | $111 \%$ |
| Afghanistan | 1950 | 16 17\% |
| British - North Borneo | 1951 | 1 19\% |
| Cambodia | 1950 | 1 14\% |
| India | 1949 | 4,675 19\% |
| Iraq | 1951 | 34 19\% |
| Laos | 1950 | $\mathrm{x} 1 \mathrm{x} 13 \%$ |
| Nepal | 1947 | . 9 11\% |

$x$ Total enrolment, general secondary and vocational.

TABLE I (continued)


EUROPE
Less than $10 \%$
None
Bétween $10 \%$ and $20 \%$
None
x/
Total enrolment, general secondary and vocational.

TABLE I (continued)

| Country or Territory | School Year | Pupils Enrolled |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Total (thousands) | $\begin{gathered} \text { Per cent } \\ \text { female } \end{gathered}$ |
| EUROPE (continued) Between $20 \%$ and $30 \%$ |  |  |  |
| None |  |  |  |
| $\begin{aligned} & \frac{\text { Percentage of girls }}{\text { enrolled in secondary }} \\ & \frac{\text { education between }}{30 \% \text { and } 40 \%} \end{aligned}$ |  |  |  |
| Austria | 1953 | 73 | 37\% |
| Greece | 1951 | 208 | $35 \%$ |
| Italy | 1951 | 570 | 40\% |
| Spain | 1951 | 231 | 35\% |
| Between $40 \%$ and $50 \%$ |  |  |  |
| Denmark | 1951 | 94 | 50\% |
| France | 1951 | 856 | 50\% |
| German Federal Republic | 1951 | 1,394 | 44\% |
| Gibralter (U.K.) | 1952 | 1 | 50\% |
| Hungary | 1953 | x 154 | $\times 50 \%$ |
| Iceland | 1950 | 5 | 47\% |
| Ireland | 1951 | 50 | 47\% |
| Liechtenstein | 1951 | $\times \quad 0.5$ | $\times 47 \%$ |
| Malta and Gozo (U.K.) | 1952 | 2 | 46\% |
| Monaco | 1951 | 0.3 | 49\% |
| Netherlands | 1951 | 221 | 43\% |
| Switzerland | 1948 | 92 | 44\% |
| United Kingdom - England and Wales | 1952 | x 1,919 | 49\% |
| Northern Ireland | $1950$ | $30$ | $49 \%$ |
| Scotland | 1950 | $\times 418$ |  |
| Yugoslavia | 1951 | 454 | 43\% |
| Greater than 50\% |  |  |  |
| Finland | 1951 | 98 | 58\% |
| Sweden | 1951 | 215 | 54\% |

I/ Total enrolment, general secondary and vocational.

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TABLE I (continued)

| Country or Territory | School <br> Year | Pupils Enrolled |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Total <br> (thousands) Per cent <br> Female |  |

OCEANIA
Between $10 \%$ and $20 \%$
Samoa (U.S.)
Western Samoa (N.Z.)

\[\)| $\frac{\text { Between } 20 \% \text { and } 30 \%}{\text { None }}$ |
| :--- |
|  |
| $\frac{\frac{\text { Percentage of girls }}{\text { enrolled in secondary }}}{\frac{\text { education between }}{30 \% \text { and } 40 \%}}$ |,

\]

| Fiji Islands (U.K.) | 1952 | x | 2 | x | 31\% |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Pacific Islands (U.S.) | 1952 |  | 1 |  | 33\% |
| Tonga (U.K.) | 1952 | x | 2 | x | 38\% |
| Between 40\% and 50\% |  |  |  |  |  |
| Australia | 1950 |  |  | x | 48\% |
| French Oceania | 1952 |  | 1 |  | 44\% |
| New Caledonia and Dependencies (Fr.) | 1952 |  | 1 |  | 44\% |
| New Zealand | 1951 |  | 62 | x | 50\% |

> Greater than 50\%

Cook Islands (N.Z.
1950
$\times \quad 0.03 \times 52 \%$
x/ Total enrolment, general secondary and vocational.

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In South America, one country out of the ten for which data is available, that is 10 per cent, has an enrolment of girls of less than 30 per cent: five countries are between 30 per cent and 40 per cent, constituting 56 per cent of the total; three countries are between 40 per cent and 50 per cent or over, representing 33 per cent of the total. The proportion of girls enrolled at the secondary school level ranges from 29 per cent to 52 per cent, with an average of 39 per cent for the countries included in the table.

In the ten countries of Oceania, the proportion of girls enrolled in secondary education ranges from 11 per cent to 52 per cent, with an average of 37 per cent. Only two territories out of ten, that is 20 per cent, have an enrolment of girls of less than 30 per cent. There are five countries with between 40 per cent and 50 per cent or over, constituting half of the total number of countries.

In Africa and Asia, approximately 8 per cent of the countries have a percentage of girls enrolled in secondary education of less than 10 per cent. More than half of the countries and territories of Africa have a percentage of girls enrolled in secondary education of less than 30 per cent. In Asia, 67 per cent of the countries and territories have a proportion of girls enrolled in high school of less than 30 per cent. In Africa, 25 per cent of the countries and territories have a proportion of girls enrolled in secondary education of between 40 per cent and 50 per cent or over, while in this same group there are only 18 per cent of the countries and territories of Asia. The proportion of girls enrolled in secondary education for the countries and territories of Africa ranges from 1 per cent to 58 per cent with an average of 28 per cent, and in Asia from 6 per cent to 51 per cent with an average of 27 per cent.

It thus emerges that Europe and North America provide equal opportunities for boys and girls in secondary education, followed by South America and Oceania where the proportion of girls enrolled at the secondary school level is about 40 per cent. In Africa and Asia inequality of access to secondary education is still marked, girls constituting 28 per cent and 27 per cent of the total enrolments respectively. The situation is more encouraging, however, if a long-range view is taken of the growth of secondary education for girls in the countries of Africa and Asia under consideration.

## 5. Growth of secondary education for girls

Table II shows the increase of enrolment of girls in secondary schools for the thirty-eight countries and territories of the world for which retrospective figures are available. Three figures are used for comparison: the enrolment in 1930-31, in 1940-41, and the most recent figure available. In ten of the thirty-eight countries and territories included in the table, girls had already attained equality with boys in 1930. Of these countries or territories three are in North America, Alaska, Canada, United States), six in Europe (Denmark, England and Wales, Northern Ireland, Scotland, Finland and Sweden) and one in Oceania (New Zealand).

In 1940 two other countries attained equality, one in North America (the Dominican Republic) and one in South America (Chile). There are five European countries in the table where girls have not yet achieved equality: Austria, Italy, Netherlands, Spain and Switzerland.

Three European countries that have not yet attained equality show a small increase in girls' enrolment in the last thirty years, due probably to the war. This is the case of Austria, with an increase from 1930 to 1953 of 5 per cent; of the Netherlands, with an increase of 2 per cent from 1930 to 1951: and of Switzerland, with an increase of 2 per cent from 1930 to 1948. Of the European countries included, Spain shows the largest increase in the proportion of girls enrolled in secondary education - from 14.6 per cent in 1930 to 35.9 per cent in 1940, a growth of about 20 per cent in ten years. This rate of progress has not been maintained, however, in the decade from 1940 to 1950 , and the proportion of girls enrolled in 1951 is virtually the same as that of 1940. Italy also shows a large percentage increase from 1930 to 1940 ( 12 per cent) and less than 2 per cent in the next decade. France shows an increase of 7 per cent in the last ten years. In Ireland the enrolment of girls has increased by 4 per cent from 1940 to 1950.

Of the five countries of Latin America (Argentina, Colombia, Chile, Dominican Republic and Haiti) for which retrospective figures are available, two, Chile and the Dominican Republic, attained equality in 1940. Colombia shows very little increase in the last twenty years, the figures being 37 per cent in 1933, 36.9 per cent in 1940, and 39 per cent in 1952. In Argentina, girls constituted 22.4 per cent of the total enrolment in 1942 and 33 per cent in 1950, showing an increase of about 10 per cent in eight years. Haiti shows undoubtedly the largest percentage of increase, from 0.5 per cent in 1943 to 15 per cent in 1952.

## TABLE II

GROWTH OF SECONDARY EDUCATION FOR GIRLS

Percentage of girls of total enrolment for various countries and territories for 1930-1931, 1940-1941 and latest available figures

|  | Latest <br> available <br> figures |
| :---: | :---: |

## AFRICA

| 1. West French Africa | 7.7 | 7.8 | 22 (1953) |
| :--- | :---: | :--- | :--- |
| 2. Egypt | 7.3 (1937) | 16.4 (1945) | 17 (1951) |
| 3. Tunisia | 33.2 | 31.1 | 34 (1953) |
| 4. Mozambique | 26.0 | 29.4 | 41 (1952) |
| 5. Madagascar | - | $25.2(1939)$ | 31 (1953) |

NORTH AMERICA
6. Alaska (U.S.A.)
50.7
46.9

48 (1951)
7. Haiti
-
0.5 (1943)

15 (1952)
8. Canada
57.7
57.2

53 (1950)
9. United States
50.8
51.7

51 (1949)
10. Dominican Republic
42.5 (1936)
48.2 (1940)

47 (1952)
SOUTH AMERICA
ll. Argentina

- 22.4 (1942)

33 (1950)
12. Colombia
37.0(1933)
36.9

39 (1952)
13. Chile
42.6
47.1

52 (1951)
ASIA

| 14. | Iraq | 8.5 | 17.7 |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :--- |
| 15. Cambodia | 4.0 | 11.7 | $19(1951)$ |
| 16. India | 8.9 | 14.6 | $14(1950)$ |
| 17. Syria | 5.9 | 19.1 | $18.7(1949)$ |
| 18. Thailand | 19.8 | 27.1 | $24.0(1952)$ |
| 19. Japan | $37.8(1936)$ | - | $30.0(1951)$ |

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TABLE II (continued)
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|  | 1930-31 | 1940-41 | Latest available figures |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ASIA (continued) |  |  |  |
| 20. Turkey | 25.5 (1935) | 26.8 | 24.0 (1951) |
| 21. Ceylon | 26.6 | 28.3 (1942) | 40.0 (1952) |
| 22. Israel | 43.8 | 51.3 | 51.0 (1952) |
| 23. Burma | 10.4 (1934) | 23.4 (1945) | 28.2 (1948) |
| EUROPE |  |  |  |
| 24. Austria | 31.0 | 30.8 | 36.0 (1953) |
| 25. Ireland | - | 43.2 | 47.0 (1951) |
| 26. Spain | 14.6 | 35.9 | 35.0 (1951) |
| 27. Italy | 26.3 | 38.2 | 40.0 (1951) |
| 28. Denmark | 49.2 | 48.3 | 50.0 (1951) |
| 29. France | - | 43.0 (1942) | 50.0 (1951) |
| 30. Netherlands | 41.0 | 40.0 | 43.0 (1951) |
| 31. England and Wales | 47.4 | 46.9 | 49 (1952) |
| 32. Northern Ireland | 48.4 | 49.5 | 49 (1950) |
| 33. Scotland | 48.3 | - | 49 (1950) |
| 34. Switzerland | 42.7 | 43.5 | 44 (1948) |
| 35. Finland | 54.5 | 55.0 | 58 (1951) |
| 36. Sweden | 50.9 | 51.2 | 54 (1951) |
| OCEANIA |  |  |  |
| 37. Australia | 45.5 | 46.3 | 48 (1950) |
| 38. New Zealand | 46.8 | 49.6 | 50 (1951) |

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In Africa, of the five territories included, Tunisia shows practically no increase in the enrolment of girls in secondary education in the period from 1930 to 1952; Madagascar has an increase of 5 per cent from 1939 to 1953, and Mozambique in the same period has an increase of 15 per cent. In Egypt the proportion of girls errolled in secondary education between 1930 and 1953 , has increased by two and a half times. But it is in West French Africa that there has been the largest increase in the enrolment of girls in the period from 1930 to 1953 - being 7.7 per cent to 22 per cent, or a three-fold increase.

Of the ten countries of Asia for which retrospective figures are available, two - Israel and Japan - had already in 1930 and 1936 a high proportion of girls enrolled in secondary education, 37.8 per cent and 43.8 per cent respectively, and therefore their rate of increase is not so large. Turkey has had no increase in the enrolment of girls in secondary education from 1930 to 1951; on the contrary there is a slight decrease.

The seven remaining countries - Burma, Cambodia, Ceylon, India, Iraq, Syria and Thailand - show a substantial increase in the enrolment of girls in secondary education for the period 1930 to 1950. Of these, Syria, Cambodia and Burma show the largest increase in the period, although by far the greatest increase took place in the decade 1930 to 1940. India and Iraq have about doubled the proportion of girls enrolled in secondary education in the same decade 1930-1940. Ceylon and Thailand, which already had a large percentage of girls in secondary school in 1930 , also show an appreciable increase in the last twenty years.

In two countries, Canada and Turkey, the most recent percentage of girls enrolled is inferior to that of 1940 and even to the corresponding one for 1930. In the case of Canada, this decrease does not affect the equality of opportunities between the sexes, as the proportion of girls is still about 50 per cent. In the case of Turkey, the latest figure does represent a proportionate decrease in their access to secondary education, as compared with the figures for 1940 and even for 1935, but this is explained by the fact that secondary education for boys has developed at a faster rate than secondary education for girls.

On the whole, therefore, the situation with regard to admission of girls to secondary education has improved since 1930. However, the greatest increase in the enrolment of girls took place between 1930 and 1940 , the last ten years being a period of slower progress.

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## 6. Women Secondary School Teachers; their training and conditions of employment

(a) Training

There is no difference in the training of men and women secondary school teachers in any country. Conditions of admission, duration of courses, academic and professional training, practice teaching and requirements for graduation are the same for both sexes. In the majority of countries the training of secondary school teachers is provided in mixed university faculties or teacher training colleges specially created for the purpose. In a few countries there are one-sex training colleges in which academic as well as professional training is provided. Practically all teachers of domestic economy, needlework, etc., are women, and the establishments in which they are trained are, as a result, exclusively for women. Such establishments exist in Australia, Austria, Egypt, England and Wales, the German Federal Republic, Iceland, the Philippines and Sweden.

The training courses for secondary teachers of special subjects, such as physical education, domestic economy, needlework and dressmaking, drawing, woodwork and metal-work, etc., are also the same for men and women.

Required qualifications for employment and procedures of appointment, as well as opportunities for further training and improvement in service, are the same for both men and women secondary school teachers.
(b) Conditions of employment, remuneration and opportunities for promotion

Conditions of service, tenure, scale of salary, promotion, hours of work, allowances and retiring pensions are generally the same for men and women secondary teachers in practically all countries, but certain differentiation on the basis of sex exists nevertheless in some countries with regard to tenure, scale of salary, and opportunities for promotion. In Australia, married women may not in general be employed as "permanent teachers", except in New South Wales. Women teachers must resign in most States on marrying. Married women are employed as temporary teachers, and thus do not compete for promotion with permanent teachers. Opportunities for promotion open to women are different and fewer than those open to men, Girls' schools are directed by women and mixed schools by men. Salaries paid to women are approximately 80 per cent of those paid to men in equivalent

In Ireland, the minimum basic salary payable to women secondary school teachers is 90 per cent of that paid to men. In Luxembourg, the salaries of wcren secondary teachers are 10 per cent lower than those of men.

In New Zealand, salaries of women over 21 years of age in post-primary schools are about 25 per cent lower than those of men. The minimum salaries of women assistants in post-primary schools is from 15 to 20 per cent lower than those of men, and the maximum salary is about 10 per cent lower. The salary of women principals is from 5 to 7 per cent lower than that of men. The scale of overtime rates for women is also lower than that of men. Women can retire at 55 years of age after 30 years of service and men at 65 years of age, after 40 years of service. Girls' schools are directed by women and mixed and boys' schools by men.

In Switzerland, with the exception of the canton of Geneva, the salaries of women secondary teachers are from 18 per cent to 25 per cent lower than those of men. Annual increments are also slightly lower for women than for men. The retiring age for men is 65 and for women 60 . Secondary schools are directed by men, whether one-sex (girls' schools) or mixed, although in principle the headship is open to either sex.

In the Union of South Africa, the scales of salaries of men and women teachers in European public secondary schools are differentiated in respect of amount, yearly increments, and in the number of years required to reach the maximum salary. Thus the salaries of women in each category of the salary scale are about 15 per cent lower than those of men; the yearly increments of women teachers are about 7 per cent lower than those of men, and women in each category of the salary scale are required to serve three years long than men in the same category in order to reach the maximum salary. Women principals and vice-principals are paid a salary 20 per cent lower than that of men and they are required to serve three years longer than men to reach the maximum salary, and although the yearly increments of women principals and vice-principals are about 15 per cent higher than those of men, they do not compersate for the 20 per cent difference in the case of women and the additional three years they are required to reach the maximum salary. Girls' schools are usually directed by women, and mixed schools by men. The opportunities for promotion of men and women secondary teachers are quite different in the Union of South Africa, women being at a disadvantage.

In the Transvaal in 1953, for instance, women constituted 21 per cent of all secondary teachers grade $A$, which have a higher salary scale, and 46 per cent of grade B teachers, which have a lower salary scale. Women secondary school principals in the Transvaal in 1953 constituted only 13 per cent of the total number of principals, and 12 per cent of the total number of vice-principals. In the primary schools with secondary departments, all principals and vice-principals were men. Women teachers in the Union of South Africa are eligible for retirement at the age of 55 , and men at the age of 60 .

In the United Kingdom, the salaries of women teachers are 10 per cent lower than those for men and the increment to the basic salary throughout the scale is 20 per cent lower for women than for men. The scale of allowances for head women teachers is 10 per cent to 12 per cent lower than that of men head teachers. Maximum salary is normally reached by men in fourteen years, and by women in twelve. Teachers are entitled to a special allowance which includes an addition for graduates which is 20 per cent lower for women graduates than for men. Girls' secondary schools are usually directed by women and mixed schools by men (England and Wales). In Northern Ireland, girls' secondary schools are directed by women; mixed schools are usually directed by men, but there is no legal bar to the appointment of women. The opportunities for promotion of women secondary teachers are inferior to those open to men. Thus in the United Kingdom, while women constitute 44 per cent of the total number of secondary teachers, women head teachers are only 28 per cent of the total number.

With regard to the appointment of women to headships of secondary schools, the tendency is to appoint women to the headships of girls' schools and men or women to those of mixed schools. Eleven countries appoint men or women without distinction to headships of mixed schools (Denmark, Dominican Republic, Finland, France, Israel, Italy, Japan, Panama, the Philippines, Poland and Sweden). In other countries, where mixed secondary schools are usually directed by men, women may be appointed to headships, although the proportion is small, as is the case of the United Kingdom already mentioned and in the United States, where only about one out of every seven public high school principals is a woman.
(c) Statistical survey

Secondary school teaching is still a career in which men predominate. Table III shows that in 33 countries out of 39 included, that is in 85 per cent of the total, women teachers constitute less than 50 per cent of the total secondary teaching staff and that in 25 countries, or 64 per cent, women constitute less than 40 per cent of the teaching staff. Only in six countries - representing 15 per cent of the total - do women exceed men in numbers.

If we compare the proportion of women secondary teachers and the percentage of girls enrolled in secondary education, a pcsitive relationship between the two appears. Thus the group of countries which have a percentage of women secondary teachers ranging from less than 10 per cent to 20 per cent have an average enrolment of girls of 25 per cent, while those countries which have a proportion of women secondary teachers greater than 50 per cent have an average percentage of girls enrolled in secondary education of 48 per cent.

## 7. Wastage at the Secondary School Level

Despite equality in legislation, organization, curriculum, teacher training and salaries, and even in enrolment, girls may still have less educational opportunities than boys at the secondary level, due to the fact that they tend to leave school in greater proportions than boys throughout the high school period.

To illustrate this point, five countries have been selected for which figures of enrolment in general secondary education by sex and grade are available. The countries are Austria, Colombia, Israel, Italy and Portugal, and they represent different areas of the world and different levels of educational development as measured by the ratio of total school enrolment, i.e. the relationship between the total number of pupils enrolled in primary and secondary schools and the child population (5-14 years old) multiplied by 100 .

According to this measure, Austria, with an enrolment ratio of 97, i.e. for every 100 children $5-14$ yars old, there were 97 pupils enrolled in all primary and secondary schools, may be considered to be at a high level of educational development. Similarly for Israel, with an enrolment ratio of 82. .

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## TABLE III

## SECONDARY TEACHERS

(General Secondary Education)


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## TABLE III (continued)

| Country | Year | Teachers in secondary schools |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Total | Women | \% Women |
| D. Between $30 \%$ and $40 \%$ |  |  |  |  |
| Australia | 1950 | 7,814 | 3,048 | 39.0 |
| Colombia | 1952 | 6,031 | 2,102 | 34.8 |
| Denmark | 1951-52 | 2,380 | 911 | 38.2 |
| German Federal Republic | 1951 | 41,958 | 15,454 | 36.8 |
| Guatemala | 1951 | 1,338 | 405 | 30.2 |
| Mexico | 1948 | 7,805 | 2,642 | 33.8 |
| Thailand | 1951 | 7,494 | 2,813 | 37.5 |
| E. Between $40 \%$ and $50 \%$ |  |  |  |  |
| Argentina | 1950 | 11,956 | 5,920 | 49.5 |
| Bolivia | 1950 | 2,048 | 889 | 43.4 |
| Portugal | 1951-52 | 1,154 | 531 | 46.0 |
| Sweden | 1951-52 | 10,465 | 4,611 | 44.0 |
| Turkey | 1949-50 | 6,095 | 2,759 | 45.2 |
| England and Wales | 1952 | 96,543 | 45,226 | 46.8 |
| Northern Ireland | 1950-51 | 1,514 | 713 | 47.0 |
| Scotland | 1951-52 | 13,145 | 5,779 | 43.9 |
|  | Greater |  |  |  |
| Dominican Republic | 1952-53 | 496 | 288 | 58.0 |
| Finland | 1951-52 | 5,653 | 3,233 | 57.1 |
| Ireland | 1951-52 | 4,043 | 2,169 | 53.6 |
| Italy | 1950-51 | 50,235 | 26,689 | 53.1 |
| Philippines | 1952-53 | 7,688 | 4,516 | 58.7 |
| United States | 1949-50 | 372,093 | 210,526 | 56.5 |

Italy, with an enrolment ratio of 73 , may be said to occupy an intermediate position. Portugal, with an enrolment ratio of 48 , and Colombia, with 32 , may be considered as relatively less developed educationally. All these ratios refer to the situation as of 1950 or 1951.

Tables IV to VIII show the enrolment in secondary schools (general) by sex and grade or class for the five countries mentioned. Colombia, although a country with a low enrolment ratio, has equality between boys and girls at the primary level, and 39 per cent of girls in secondary school enrolment. TaLie IV shows that the proportion of girls enrolled in the different classes of the secondary school decreases from 45 in the preparatory class to 19 in class 6 , which means that while boys and girls were more or less equal in number at the beginning of the secondary school course ( 55 per cent boys to 45 per cent girls) in the last class boys constitute 81 per cent and girls only 19 per cent; the difference in enrolment becomes marked in class 3 where girls have a disadvantage of 10 per cent with regard to boys; it increases to 14 per cent in class 4 , to 22 per cent in class 5 and finally to 31 per cent in class 6 . Four times more boys than girls finish the secondary school course.

Table $V$ shows the enrolment in secondary schools by sex and class in Portugal, a country with a somewhat higher enrolment ratio, which has 45 per cent of girls enrolled in primary school and 47 per cent in secondary education. It may be noticed that girls, who constitute 50.6 per cent of the enrolment in the first year of the secondary school, represent only 31.9 per cent of the enrolment in the seventh year, that is, there is a decrease of 20 per cent. Of those enrolled in the first year, 51.2 per cent of the boys reach the seventh year, while only 23.4 per cent of the girls reach the same level.

Table VI shows the same figures for Italy, a country with an intermediate enrolment ratio, which has attained equality between the sexes at the primary stage, and where girls constitute 40 per cent of the enrolment in secondary schools. It may be observed that girls represent 44 per cent of the enrolment in midde schools, maintaining the same proportion throughout the three years course. of those who finish the third year of the middle school, 33.6 per cent of the boys pass to the classical high school and 12.8 per cent to the scientific high school,

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## TABIE IV

COLOMBIA
Enrolment in secondery schools by sex and class, 1950

| Class | Total | Male | Female | Per cent female |
| :--- | ---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Total | $\underline{55,884}$ | $\underline{33,966}$ | $\underline{21,918}$ | $\underline{39.2}$ |
| Preparatory | 11,069 | 6,115 | 4,954 | 44.8 |
| Class 1 | 15,428 | 9,074 | 6,354 | 41.2 |
| Class 2 | 10,298 | 6,051 | 4,247 | 41.2 |
| Class 3 | 7,287 | 4,384 | 2,903 | 39.8 |
| Class 4 | 5,245 | 3,344 | 1,901 | 36.2 |
| Class 5 | 3,628 | 2,620 | 1,008 | 27.8 |
| Class 6 | 2,929 | 2,378 | 551 | 18.8 |

Source: Colombia. Direccion Nacional de Estadistica. Annuario general de estadistica, 1950. Bogota, 1952.

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TABLE V

ITALY
Enrolment in secondary schools by sex and class, 1951/52

| Type of school and year of study | Total | Male | Female | Per cent <br> female |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Middle schools | $\underline{410,401}$ | $\frac{229,935}{96,082}$ | $\frac{180,466}{74,736}$ | $\frac{44.0}{43.8}$ |
| lst year | 170,818 | 9,400 | 75,139 | 59,261 |
| 2nd year | 134,400 | 44.1 |  |  |
| 3rd year | 105,183 | 58,714 | 46,469 | 44.2 |
| Classical gymnasium-1yceums | 120,067 | $\underline{77,069}$ | 42,998 | $\underline{35.8}$ |
| lst year | 30,552 | 19,761 | 10,791 | 35.3 |
| 2nd year | 23,297 | 15,111 | 8,186 | 35.1 |
| 3rd year | 23,925 | 15,599 | 8,326 | 34.8 |
| 4th year | 20,823 | 13,072 | 7,751 | 37.2 |
| 5th year | 21,470 | 13,526 | 7,944 | 37.0 |
| Scientific lyceums | 39,476 | $\underline{32,434}$ | 7,042 | 17.8 |
| lst year | 9,219 | 7,615 | 1,604 | 17.4 |
| 2nd year | 7,830 | 6,458 | 1,372 | 17.5 |
| 3rd year | 7,588 | 6,251 | 1,337 | 17.6 |
| 4th year | 7,265 | 5,944 | 1,321 | 18.2 |
| 5th year | 7,574 | 6,166 | 1,408 | 18.6 |

Source: Italy. Istituto Centrale di Statistica. Annuario statistico dell' istruzicne italiana, 1951-52. Rome, 1954.

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TABLE VI

PORTUGAL
Enrolment in secondary schools by sex and class, 1951/52

| Year of study | Total | Male | Female | Per cent female |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Total | 51,577 | 27,328 | 24,249 | 47.0 |
| lst year | 10,112 | 4,992 | 5,120 | 50.6 |
| 2nd year ${ }^{\text {² }}$ | 11,335 | 6,049 | 5,286 | 46.6 |
| 3 rd year | 7,697 | 3,775 | 3,922 | 51.0 |
| 4 th year | 5,988 | 3,003 | 2,985 | 49.8 |
| 5 th year-1/ | 10,638 | 5,687 | 4,951 | 46.5 |
| 6 th year | 2,052 | 1,264 | 788 | 38.4 |
| 7 th year ${ }^{1 /}$ | 3,755 | 2,558 | 1,197 | 31.9 |

Source: Portugal. Instituto Nacional de Estatistica. Estatística da educaçâo, 1951-52. Lisbon, 1953.

1/ Including external students who register for examination purposes.

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TABLE VII

## AUSTRIA

Enrolment in secondary schools by sex and grade, $1953 / 54$

| Grade | Total | Male | Female | Per cent <br> Female |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Total | $\underline{2,025}$ | $\underline{45,539}$ | $\underline{26,486}$ | $\underline{36.8}$ |
| Primary level |  |  |  |  |
| Class 1 | 14,952 | 9,473 | 5,479 | 36.6 |
| Class 2 | 13,738 | 8,682 | 5,056 | 36.8 |
| Class 3 | 14,683 | 9,244 | 5,439 | 37.0 |
| Class 4 | 12,403 | 7,649 | 4,754 | 38.3 |
| Secondary level |  |  |  |  |
| Class 5 | 6,390 | 2,016 | 2,374 | 37.2 |
| Class 6 | 3,552 | 2,109 | 1,063 | 35.7 |
| Class 7 | 3,172 | 2,082 | 1,053 | 33.5 |
| Class 8 | 3,135 |  |  | 35.6 |

Source: Austria. Österreichische Statistische Zentralamt. Österreichische
Schulstatistik, 1953/54. Vienna, 1954.

## TABLE VIII

ISRAEL
Enrolment in secondary schools by sex and grade, 1952/53

| Grade | Total | Male | Female | Per cent <br> Female |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Total | $\underline{13,875}$ | $\underline{6,502}$ | $\underline{1,373}$ | $\underline{53.1}$ |
| Grade 9 | 4,848 | 2,080 | 2,768 | 57.1 |
| Grade 10 | 4,060 | 1,887 | 2,173 | 53.5 |
| Grade 11 | 3,027 | 1,499 | 1,528 | 50.5 |
| Grade 12 | 1,940 | 1,036 | 904 | 46.6 |

Note. The figures refer to the Hebrew education system and do not include evening classes.

Source. Israel. Central Bureau of Statistics and Economic Research. Statistics of education and culture, 1952/53. Part I. Jerusalem, 1953.

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making a total of 46.4 fer cent, which means that slightly less than half the number of boys who finish the middle school proceed to high schocl. Of the girls who finish the middle school, only 26.6 per cent, that is about one-fourth, continue their education in the high school, 23.3 per cent enrol in the classical high school and 3.4 per cent ir the scientific high school; the difference between the sexes is, therefore, 20 per cent against girls, that is, of all students who finish the middle school, 20 per cent more boys proceeding to high school than girls. Once enrolled in high school, however, 75 per cent of the girls remained till the last year, as compared with 72 per cent of the boys.

In Table VII are shown the figures of enrolment in secondary schools by sex and grade for Austria, a ccuntry with a high ratio of school enrolment which has attained absolute equality between the sexes at the primary stage and where girls constitute 37 per cent of the enrolment at the secondary school. It may be observed that girls keep their proportion fairly equal throughout the eight-year course; there is only a decrease of 3 per cent from the first to the eighth class. Wastage throughout the secondary course affects boys and girls in about the seme proportion; nevertheless, because of an initial disadvantage, half as many girls as boys finish the secondary school.

TableVIII shows the enrolment in secondary schools by sex and grade for Israel, a country with a high enrolment ratio, which has a percentage of girls enrolled at the primary and secondary level of 51 per cent. The four countries analysed previously have a high school course of seven or eight years' duration, while Israel has a secondary school with a four-yeâr course. Girls maintain their proportion through their school career fairly well. The shorter course naturally reduces wastage, and 40 per cent of all those enrolled in grade 9 , of both sexes,

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reach grade 12; 49.8 per cent of the boys, but only 32.6 per cent, however, of the girls. The numbers of boys and girls in class 12 are about the same, with only a slight advantage in favour of boys.

This analysis shows that wastage affects girls more than boys at the secondary school level, even in countries where girls censtitute a large proportion of the high school enrolment. Equal opportunities for girls in secondary education therefore are still far from being achieved. However, there seems to be a marked difference in this respect in the five countries studied. The two countries with low enrolment ratios show the largest difference in wastage between boys and girls, t. the disadvantage of girls. In the country with an intermediate ratio, although there is a greater wastage among girls than emong boys in passing from the middle to the high school, girls maintain, and even improve their proportion throughout the high school course. In the countries of high enrolment ratio there is relatively little difference in wastage between boys and girls throughout high school.
8. The passing from the primary school to the secondary school

The passing from the primary school to the secondary school is a critical point of transition at which many children discontinue their education, if compulsion does not require them to attend. At this stage of their education girls generally leave school in greater numbers than boys, and they are, therefore, at a disudvantage with regard to access to secondary education.

In the five countries studied, this disadvantage is clearly observed. Tables IX to XIII show the number of students graduating from primary school by sexes, and the enrolment at the first class of the secondary school. In Colombia (Table IX) an equal number of boys and girls finish primary school and ten per cent more boys than girls enrol in the first year of the general secondary school, although slightly more girls than boys enter vocational schools. In Portugal (Table X) girls represent only 35.7 per cent in the last class of the primary school and about one-third of them enrol in the first year of the secondary and vocational schools, while one-fourth of the boys take advantage of the same opportunities. In Italy (Table XI) girls constitute 45 per cent of those who graduate from primary school and two-thirds of the boys proceed to the middle and vocational schools, while only half of the girls take advantage of the same opportunities.

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TABLE IX

## COLCMBIA

Enrolment and examination results by sex in last class of primary school compared with enrolment by sex in first class of secondary school, 1949 and 1950

| Item | Year | Total | Male | Female | Per cent female |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Primary |  |  |  |  |  |
| Enrolment, 4 th class | 1949 | 40,353 | 19,934 | 20,419 | 50.6 |
| Admitted to examination, 4 th class | " | 30,837 | 15,319 | 15,518 | 50.3 |
| Passed examination | " | 25,594 | 12,948 | 12,646 | 49.4 |
| Secondary |  |  |  |  |  |
| Enrolment, lst year (Preparatory) | 1950 | 11,069 | 6,115 | 4,954 | 44.8 |

Source: Colombia. Dirección Nacional de Estadística. Anuario general de estadistica, 1949; 1950. Bogota, 1952. (2 vols.)

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TABLE X

ITALY

Enrolment and examinaticn reaults by sex in last class of primary school 1950/51, compared with enrolment by sex in first class of lower secondary school and first class of vocational orientation school, 1951/52

| Item | Year | Total | Male | Female | Per cent female |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Primary schools |  |  |  |  |  |
| Enrolment, 5th class | 1950/51 | 715,984 | 390,372 | 325,612 | 45.5 |
| Admitted to examination, licenza elementare $1 /$ | " | 646,850 | 358,322 | 288,528 | 44.6 |
| Passed examination 1] | " | 595,070 | 326,682 | 268,388 | 45.1 |
| Middle schools |  |  |  |  |  |
| Enrolment, lst year | 1951/52 | 170,818 | 96,082 | 74,736 | 43.8 |
| Vocational orientation schools Enrolment, lst year | 1951/52 | 189,316 | 126,396 | 62,920 | 33.2 |

Source: Italy, Istituto Centrale di Statistica. Annuario statistico dell' istruzione italiana, 1950-51; 1951-52. Rome, 1953; 1954. (2 vols.)

1/ Internal candidates.

TABLE XI

PCRTUGAL
Enrolment and examination by sex in last class of primary school 1950/51, compared with entrance examination results and enrolment by sex of first class of secondary sehcol, 1951/52

| Item | Year | Total | Male | FemaleFer cent <br> female |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Primary schools |  |  |  |  |  |
| Enrolment, 4th class | $1950 / 51$ | 88,210 | 56,916 | 31,294 | 35.5 |
| Admitted to examination, | $"$ | 63,774 | 41,060 | 22,714 | 35.6 |
| 4th class | $"$ | 61,972 | 39,843 | 22,129 | 35.7 |
| Passed examination |  |  |  |  |  |
| Secondary schools |  |  |  |  |  |
| Admitted to entrance | 1951 | 12,496 | 6,201 | 6,295 | 50.4 |
| examinations | $11 / 52$ | 9,928 | 4,902 | 5,026 | 50.6 |
| Passed examination | 10,112 | 4,992 | 5,120 | 50.6 |  |
| Enrolment, lst year |  |  |  |  |  |

Source: Portugal. Instituto Nacional de Estatística. Estatistica da Educaçâo, 1950-1951; 1951-1952. Lisbon, 1952; 1953. (2 vols.)

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## TABLE XII

## AUSTRIA

Enrolment by sex in 4th class of primary school 1952/53, compared with enrolment by sex in 5 th class of primary school and upper primary school and first class of secondary school, 1953/54

| Item | Year | Total | Male | Female | Fer cent <br> female |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Primary school, 4th class | $1952 / 53$ | 119,195 | 61,451 | 57,744 | 48.4 |
| Primary school, 5th class | $1953 / 54$ | 46,839 | 24,139 | 22,700 | 48.5 |
| Upper primary school, lst class | $"$ | 62,016 | 31,040 | 30,976 | 49.9 |
| Secondary school, lst class | $"$ | 14,952 | 9,473 | 5,479 | 36.6 |

Source:
Austria. Österreichische Statistische Zentralamt.
Schulstatistik, $1952 / 53 ; 1953 / 54$. Vienna, 1953; 1954. (2 vols.)

TABLE XIII

## ISRAEL

> Enrolment by sex in last class of primary education $\frac{1951 / 52, \text { compared with enrolment by sex in first }}{\text { class of secondary and vocational school, } 1952 / 53}$

| Item | Year | Total | Male | Female | Per cent <br> female |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\frac{\text { Primary level, all schools }}{}$ |  |  |  |  |  |
| Enrolment, Grade 8 | $1951 / 52$ | 13,077 | 6,686 | 6,391 | 48.9 |
| Secondary level, all schools |  |  |  |  |  |
| Total enrolment, Grade 9 |  |  |  |  |  |

Note. The figures refer to the Hebrew education system.
Source: Israel. Central Bureau of Statistics and Econcmic Research. Statistics of education and culture, 1951/52. Part 2. Statistics of education and culture, 1952/53. Part 1. Jerusalem, 1953. (2 vols.)

In Austria (Table XII), girls represent 49.9 per cent in the last grade of the upper primary school and only 36.6 per cent in the first class of the secondary school, while about one-third of the boys who finish the upper primary school enrol in the first year of the secondary school and only about one-fifth of the girls graduating from primary schcol proceed to the secondary school.

In Israel (Table XIII), both sexes discontinue their education in the same proportion at the end of primary school, with a slight advantage in favour of the girls.

## 9. Factors hindering opportunities for girls in secondary education

(a) Educational factors
(i) The enrolment of girls at the primary stage is a handicap with regard to their access to secondary education. In fact, in the eleven countries and territories of Africa where the percentage of girls enrolled in secondary education is between 10 per cent and 20 per cent, with an average of 15 per cent, the proportion of girls enrolled in primary schools in the same countries range from 15 per cent to 35 per cent, with an average of 23 per cent. On the other hand, in the seven countries of Africa which have a percentage of girls enrolled in high schools of between 40 per cent and 50 per cent or over, with an average of 49.7 per cent, the enrolment of girls at the primary stage ranges from 33 per cent to 54 per cent with an average of 44 per cent.

The same is true of Asia. The six countries with girls' enrolment in secondary education of between 10 per cent and 20 per cent, with an average of 16.8 per cent, have low enrolments of girls in primary education, ranging from 3 per cent to 29 per cent with an average of 19.6 per cent. The group of Asiatic countries which have an enrolment of girls in secondary education of between 40 per cent and 50 per cent or over, with an average of 47 per cent, show an equally high proportion of girls in primary school, equivalent to 48 per cent.

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The proportion of girls of primary school age attending school also seems to affect the opportunities for girls in secondary education. The countries or territories which have the lowest girls' primary enrolment ratio, ranging from 10 per cent to 30 per cent, namely Federation of Malaya, Honduras, Egypt, Gold Coast, Algeria, India, Tunisia and Mozambique, show, with the exception of Mozambique, a low percentage of girls in secondary education equivalent to 25 per cent. The contrary is the case in countries with the highest primary enrolment ratio, such as France, New Zealand, Canada, the German Federal Republic and the United States, where the proportion of girls enrolled in secondary schools is 49.2 per cent.
(ii) The number of years of compulsory schooling

Generally speaking the tendency at the present time is to make secondary education accessible to all children, and to give some part of compulsory education at the secondary level. In countries where the latter part of compulsory schooling is given at the secondary level, secondary schools enrol a large proportion of girls. This is the case in Canada, where compulsory education lasts 8 years; Denmark, 7 years; Finland, 8 years; France, 8 years; Netherlands, 8 years; Sweden, 7 years; Switzerland, 8 years; United Kingdom, 10 years; United States, from 8 to 12 years; in all of these equality has been attained at the secondary level, in general and throughout the grades. On the other hand, in countries where the years of compulsory schooling are six years or less and the law is imperfectly enforced, as in some countries of Africa, Asia and Latin America, the proportion of girls enrolled in secondary school is, in general, low.
(iii) Opportunities for women in higher education

The opportunities open to wonen in higher education constitute an incentive for girls to enrol in secondary school and especially to complete their course. The countries which have the highest proportion of girls enrolled in secondary school, an average of 51 per cent - Canada, Chile, Denmark, England and Wales, Finland, France, the Philippines, Scotland, Sweden and the United States - have also the largest percentage enrolled in higher education,
ranging from 22 per cent to 42 per cent, with an average of 31 per cent. On the other hand, the countries with the lowest proportion of girls' enrolment in secondary schools, have an average of 27 per cent. Afghanistan, Ecuador, Egypt, India, Iran, Iraq, Syria, Thailand, Turkey, have also the lowest percentage of girls enrolled in higher education, averaging 11.6 per cent.
(iv) Unequal educational facilities

This is the main factor which hinders the access of girls to secondary education, especially in countries where one-sex schools are the rule, as is the case in the majority of countries of Asia and in several of Latin America. In most of these countries secondary education for girls is of recent date and therefore the provision of school facilities is still far from equalling those existing for boys. In Asiatic countries where co-education is the rule at the high school level, thus equalizing educational facilities for both sexes (e.g. Japan and the Philippines) girls' enrolments are practically equal to those of boys. On the other hand, in India, Iraq, Jordan, Iran and Pakistan, where one-sex secondary schools are the rule, the proportion of girls receiving secondary education is considerably inferior to that of boys.

In other areas of the worla, where one-sex secondary schools are the rule-Colombia, Egypt, Peru, Spain - the provision of equal educational facilities for girls is not yet attained as shown by the percentage of those enrolled in secondary education in these countries.
(v) The cost of secondary education

In many countries fees are charged in schools; textbooks have to be bought and there are transport and other expenses. The fact of having to pay for secondary education affects girls more than boys, due to tradition and the limited opportunities of employment for women which still exist in many countries, and which induce the family, in case of financial difficulties, to prefer the education of the boy to that of the girl. This is true of the majority of countries in Asia, where enrolments of girls are low, and in some Latin American countries.

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Private secondary education for girls in many countries is more extensive than that for boys, due to the fact that facilities at public expense are not provided in the same measure for girls as for boys. The result is that education becomes more expensive for girls than for boys, and this also operates as a hindering factor.

Thus in many countries girls enrolled in secondary education constitute a more selected group from the socio-economic point of view than that of boys, which means that secondary education for girls in many areas of the world is not only restricted in the terms of facilities, but is also more selective and exclusive, to the detriment of the less favoured socio-economic group.
(vi) The shortage of women teachers

The relationship that exists between the number of women teachers in secondary education and the school enrolment of girls has already been pointed out. The shortage of women teachers at the secondary school level affects the enrolment of girls, especially in countries where one-sex establishments are the rule and where it is not customary for girls to be taught by men teachers at the secondary school level. This is the case of Afghanistan, India, Iraq, Jordan, Pakistan and Syria, where the shortage of women secondary teachers is a factor which hinders the access of girls to secondary education as is shown by the low percentage of girls enrolled.

## (vii) Vocational guidance services

The lack of vocational guidance services in many countries, although a factor common to buth sexes, affects girls more than boys. Where the traditional role of women solely as home-makers still predominates, and only a small proportion of them is engaged in remunerative employment, girls have little or no interest in entering occupations or planning careers.

Where such conditions prevail, many girls do not develop enough confidence in their abilities or enough ambition to take the hard and difficult road that leads to employment and careers.

In addition, occupational choice everywhere is more difficult for girls than for beys, due to the fewer and less diveraified occupaticral crortunities available to then.

As a result, in many countries the majority of girls have no occupational expectations whatsoever and the few who want to engage in an occupation or to plan a career are unaware, both of their own abilities, aptitudes and interests, and of the occupational opportunities open to them.

Vocational guidance services will help girls to become conscious of their own capacities; will provide them with occupational information, and thus develop their interest in engaging in employment or careers; and will assist them in choosing an occupation or career in accordance with their individual characteristics in relation to occupational opportunities.
(viii) Sccial assistance

Insufficient measures of social assistance to girl students at the secondary school level is the cause, in many cases of non-attendance or early withdraval. In order that girls may avail themselves of the opportunities to enrol in secondary schoois and to complete courses, sccial assistance measures have been adopted in some countries. These measures comprise the provision of school reals, clothing facilities, free distribution of school textbooks and materials, free transportation services or grants to reduce its cost, and free board and lodging, or its equivalent in money where accommedation is not available. Scholarships or family allowances have also been provided in some cazes, and free medical services have been supplied.
(ix) School social work services

The lack of school social work services is a handicap to the stendance of girls at secondary schools and to their progress throughout the whath ach course. In some countries, social workers offer social servico msabtame to girls and their families when in need, through interviews with parents, individual case-work, home visits, etc.; the enviroment in which the girls live can thus be improved upon, and hence their school attendance, theiw adjustment and their progress.

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( $x$ ) The quality and validity of secondary education
No attempt has been made in this paper to deal with the very great changes which, in many countries, have in recent years occurred in the spheres of activity open to women in the new capacities of wage earners and full citizens. How can these new roles be reconciled with the traditional one of home-maker? How efficiently is woman learning to discharge her new economic and civic duties? How well is she adjusting herself to the changing pattern of women's role in society and to the conflict resulting from the co-existence of traditional values and emergent ones?

The secondary school, an essentially masculine institution in origin, aims and content, must now, in addition, help girls to understand and adjust themselves to these changes and to their far-reaching consequences on family life, on relationships with the opposite sex, and last but not least, on personal happiness.

The quality of secondary education should, then, be evaluated from the point of view of the new social demands imposed upon women; but this subject requires further and deeper consideration than can be accorded it in this brief survey of the current position of girls in secondary education.
(b) Social factors
(i) Early marriage as an obstacle to secondary education

The early marriage of girls is an obstacle to their acquiring, and especially completing, secondary education. In many countries with a tradition of early marriage, such as the Arab countries, India, the East in general, and some countries of Latin America, the proportion of girls enrolled in secondary education is considerably lower than that in countries where later marriages are the practice. In countries for which data are available - Turkey, Egypt, Ceylon - the proportion of women married in the age group 15 to 19 was 23.2 per cent in Turkey (1935), 23.6 per cent in Egypt (1937), and 24 per cent in Ceylon (1946), and the percentage of girls enrolled in secondary education in these countries in the same year was 25.5 per cent in Turkey (1935), 7.3 per cent in tayp (1937) arid 35 per cent in Ceylon (1946).

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On the other hand, in countries where the proportion of women married under twenty is relatively small, the proportion of girls enrolled in high school. is equal to or higher than that of boys. Such is the case in Australia, where only 5.5 per cent of the total population in the 15 to 19 age group were married (1947), Canada, where the proportion for the sare age group was 5.6 per cent (1941), Chile where it was 8.7 per cent (1940), Denmark, 2.6 per cent in 1945 , France, 5.3 per cent in 1946, Sweden, 3.4 per cent in 1945 and the United States, 11.5 per cent in 1940.
(ii) The opportunities open to women to engage in remunerative employrent

Opportunities for work in remunerative occupations open to women are also a powerful incentive for girls to attend the secondary school and complete its course. Thus, in France, where equality with boys has been reached at the secondary school level, the proportion of women engaged in remunerative occupations, out of the total female population, was 37.5 per cent in 1946. In other countries where girls constitute 50 per cent or over of the cecondery school enrolment, a similar situation exists. Such is the case thencran, where the percentage of woren in remunerative employment, out of thetal female population, was 33.7 per cent (1952), Sweden, 23.3 per cert (19, ), the United Kingdom, 27.2 per cont (1951) and the United States, 25 wes ert (1559).
(iii) The restriction of freedom and opportunities for sose

The traditionally inferior position of woren in society wam still exists in some countries and which entails restrictions upon than freedom of moverent and upon participation in activities outside the hore, and aron engagerent in remunerative occupations, is a hindrance for giris wish to continue their education beyond the primary stage. In fact, the preatest inequalities in educational opportunities between the sexes at the secondary school level exist in those countries.

## CONCLUSIONS

1. Throughout this survey of the access of girls to secondary education it has becore apparent that while equality exists in legislation, organization, and curricula, in many countries the proportion of girls who take advantage of the opportunities to enrol in secondary school is still inferior to that of boys. This is generally true of Africa, Asia and some countries in Latin Arerica. 2. The enrolment of girls in secondary education has increased considerably since 1930; but the greatest increase took place between 1930 and 1940, the last ten years being a period of slower progress.
2. The training of men and women secondary school teachers is the same everywhere.
3. The remuneration, opportunities for prom@tion and conditions of employment are the same for men and women secondary teachers in the majority of countries. In Australia, Ireland, Luxembourg, New Zealand, Switzerland, the Union of South Africa and the United Kingdom, the salaries of women teachers are from 10 per cent to 25 per cent lower than those paid to men. In many countries women have less opportunities for promotion to headships than men as they are not appointed to headships of mixed schools.
4. Secondary school teaching is still a career in which men predominate. There seems to be a positive relationship between the proportion of women secondary teachers and the proportion of girls enrolled in high school.
5. The shortage of women teachers in secondary education is a factor which hinders the enrolments of girls.
6. Urequal educational facilities are the main causes which hinder the access of girls to secondary education.
7. The cost of secondary education affects girls' enrolments more than boys'.
8. Wastage is greater among girls than boys at the secondary school level, especially in countries of low and intermediate ratio of total school enrolment.
9. In passing from the primary school to the secondary school, a greater number of girls than of boys discontinue their education. This is particularly so in countries of low and intermediate ratio of total school enrolment.
10. Unequal opportunities for girls at the primary stage affects the access to secondary education.
11. The number of years of compulsory schooling affects the enrolment of girls in secondary education and their progress throughout the grades. 13. The opportunities open to women in higher education constitutes an incentive for girls to enrol in secondary schools and especially to complete the course. 14. The lack of vocational guidance services in secondary education affects girls more than boys.
12. Insufficient social assistance to girl students in the secondary school adversely affects their attendance and progress throughout the course. 16. The lack of school social work services is a handicap to the attendance of girls at secondary school and for their progress through the school grades. 17. The early marriage of girls is an obstacle to their access to secondary education and in particular to their completion of the high school course. 18. The opportunities open to women to engage in remunerative employment are a powerful incentive for girls to attend the secondary school and complete the course.
13. The restriction of freedom and opportunities for woren is a hindering factor for girls to continue their education beyond the primary stage,

In view of these conclusions two general lines of action may be suggested to increase the opportunities for girls at the secondary level:

The first, that ways and means to attain equality of opportunities between boys and girls at the secondary school level be adopted, such as: the provision of equal educational facilities for girls, the prolongation of free and compulsory schooling to include part of secondary education, the adoption of social assistance measures and the establishment of school social work services, the developrent of vocational guidance services, the increase of opportunities for women to enrol in higher education, the mobilization of social forces - women's organizations, cultural and civic groups - on behalf of more and better opportunities for girls in secondary education, and the improvement of the status of women teachers.

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Second, that enquiries be made into the quality and validity of secondary education for girls in an effort to appraise the degree in which it meets the special needs of women in this period, when a new conception of women's role in society is being evolved.

Only by attaining equal access to secondary education, but to a secondary school adapted to the changing pattern of worren's role in scciety, can woren overcome the uncertainties of this age of transition and take their full ahare of responsibility both in the family and in the cultural, social, economic and political life of their countries, and at the same time, achieve personal adjustment and happiness.

## PART II

## UNESCO ACTIVITIES IN 1954 OF SFECIAL INTEREST TO WOMEN

## A. Education

The programme of CTNESCO as a whole is intended equally for women and for men; it includes, however, some activities more specifically directed towards advancing the education of woren and promoting the application of the principle of equality.

## 1. Access of woren to education

During 1953-54, UNESCO has been concerned with the relationship existing between the sociological background of a country and the access of girls and women to education. The Governments of Japan, Pakistan, and Mexico invited UNESCO to conduct research in this field in their territories, and three missions composed in each case of a sociologist and of a specialist of education were sent for periods of two months to carry out field studies in these countries. On the social science side, Dr. Claire Leplae, a Belgian sociologist, took part in the missions to Japan (October-November, 1953) and Pakistan (Secerter 1953January 1954), and Dr. Jeanne Sylvain, an anthropologist from Haiti, was appointed a member of the team which went to Nexico (February-March 1953). On the educational side, Dr. Suhasi Ghosh, an educator from India, was appointed to the mission in Japan, and Dr. Irma Salas, an educator from Chile, took part in the missions to Pakistan and Nexico. Owing to the active co-operation and assistance which the missions received from the National Commissions for UNESCO in the countries concerned and from various woren's organizations, they were able, despite the short time they could spend on the spot, to collect significant materials on the subject-matter of the ir investigation.

The six reports prepared by the members of these missions were received by UNESCO in manuscript form at the end of 1954. They are being considered with a view to the publication of a volume.
2. Progress report on the application of Recommendation 34 of the International Conference on Public Education, 1952

The XVIIth International Conference on Public Education held in Geneva in July 1954, had before it a report prepared by the secretariat of UNESOO on the equality of access of men and woren to education. The report includes the comments of Nember States on Recommendation 34, adopted by an International Conference in 1952, on the Access of Women to Education, and enumerating measures adopted by sore countries to implement it. It deals with criticisms of Recommendation 34 expressed by United Nations Commission on the Status of Women and certain non-governmental women's organizations, and describes recent activities of TISSCO in the field of women's education.
3. Free and compulsory education

The Secretariat of UNESCO has prepared two studies on the subject of free and compulsory education for girls, one for the Conference on Free and Compulsory Education of the Arab States held in Cairo in December 1954, and the other for the Conference of the Pan-Pacific Women's Association, held in Nanila in January 1955.
4. Fundamental education

Fundamental education is that kind of minimum and general education which aims to help children and adults who do not have the advantage of formal education, to understand the problems of their immediate environment and their rights and duties as citizens and individuals, and to participate more effectively in the economic and social progress of their community.

It is fundarental in the sense that it gives the minimum knowledge and skills which are an essential condition for attaining an adequate standard of living. It is a prerequisite to the full effectiveness of work in health, agriculture and similar skilled services. It is general in the sense that this knowledge and these skills are not imparted for their own sake only. It uses active methods, it focuses interests on practical problems in the environment, and in this way it seeks to develop both individual and social life.

It is concerned with children for whom there is no adequate system of primary schooling and with adults deprived of educational opportunity; it utilizes all suitable media for their developrent through individual effort and through community life.

- Fundamental education must awaken a consciousness of human dignity and develop a sense of the cultural and moral solidarity of mankind.

Thus conceived, it is evident that fundamental education is as important for wormen as it is for men, and that no programme which is limited to men can achieve the rounded community life at which fundamental education aims.

One of the tasks on which UNESCO's programme in the field of fundamental education has been concentrated, is the training of men and women as leaders in fundarental education, and it was for this purpose that the Training Centre for Latin Atrerica (CREFAL) was established in 1951, and the Training Centre for the Arab States (ASFEC), in 1953.

CREFAL
So far 162 students have graduated from the Centre, of whom 60 were woren. As might be expected, the larger part of them concentrated in their class studies on home economics and management, and health education. In the production of educational materials they have made a notable contribution to the Centre's programme by reason of the special aptitude which they have shown in engraving, drawing, and the production of film and film-strips.

In the laboratory villages in the neighbourhood of the Centre, where the students do practical work in teams, the women members have again concentrated largely on such matters as nutrition, care of children and of the sick, hore management, and family relations.

According to the information available, women graduates from the Centre have been appointed to important posts in their own countries, including the direction of cultural missions, national fundamental education centres, rural normal schools, rural teachers' centres, adult education inspectorships, social services, and home economics schools.

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There are at present 37 women students under training at CREFAL, while the staff itself has 3 women specialists: one in home management and the improvement of conditions in the home; and the director of the CREFAL library and of community library service.

ASFEC
There were 13 women graduates in a total of 48 students who graduatod at the end of the first ccurse in August 1954. Eleven women are at present under training in the seccnd course (total 55), and it is estimated that a further 10 will be recruited among the 60 trainees for the third course, final figures for which are not yet available. There are 3 women specialists on the staff, one in home economics, one in librarianship, and one in documentation.

It is too early to expect full information on the placement of graduates from the first course, but as at the Latin American Centre, training has from the first been oriented towards their eventual employment in fundemental education projects in their own countries. Again as at CREFAL, a substantial part of the training programme is concerned with health, home economics and social welfare, and as well as taking lectures in these aubjects, students carry out practical work in the surrounding villages.

Two women graduates from ASFEC have joined the UNESCO Technical Assistance Mission at Dujailah in Iraq, where they will work for one month before proceeding to a permanent posting. At Dujailah they are doing social welfare and health work, as well as teaching in the girls' school sponsored by the Mission.

## Other UNESCO trainine activities

(a) National fundamental education projects

UNESCO gives assistance, with varying degrees of inter-Agency co-operation, to projects in the following countries: Cembodia, Ceylon, Colombia, Iraq, Liberia, Libya, Somaliland, Thailand and Venezuela. Of these, the Thailand UNESCO Fundamental Education Centre (TUFEC) at Ubol in Thailand already has the status or a national training centre; the programe of study makes provision
for training in health, home management and domestic science, all of which lie at the heart of community life, and in which women play so vital a role. There are 60 trainees in the first course, 29 of whom are women. The Iraq, Ceylon and Liberia projects are also largely concerned with training. It is planned to stimulate the creation of new centres.

## Ceylon

At the Minneriya Centre in Ceylon, a woman is engaged in fundamental education in charge of the training of rural workers. The project includes a training scheme for rural leaders, the organization of a training programme for field officers of the Department of Rural Development, and the organization of a training programme for women welfare workers for rural communities.

## Du,jailah, Iraq

The Mission has opened a school for girls with an attendance of between 30 and 40. The school largely follows the Iraqi curriculum, but strong emphasis is laid on household activities: the organization of sewing classes, the introduction of an improved stove, embroidery, knitting, the making of dolls, general household management and hygiene.

A wool processing unit has been set up, where 30 girls and 30 boys of between 10 and 16 years are employed. An Iraqi schoolmistress is in charge of their education, and an UNTAA expert in social welfare is concerned with the improverent of community life.

Women staff on the Mission (in sanitation, fundamental education and home-economics), include 2 supplied by UNESCO and one by UNTAA (social welfare); the number of Iraqi women counterparts varies from year to year between 2 and 4. Of the 15 trainees enrolled each year, approximately 5 are women.
(b) Training for International service in fundarental education

UNESCO provides this training by means of individual fellowships and group training facilities set up in Mysore towards the end of 1953. Under the former, study programmes are arranged in institutions and areas where significant work in
fundamental education is being carried out. Of the 10 fellowships awarded in 1954, one went to an Italian woman student, who will visit Mexico, Puerto Rico and Jamaica to study for international service in fundamental education.

Under the Mysore Group Training Scheme, nine months: training is given at Yelwal, near Mysore city in India. The first course ended in July 1954, and of the 16 trainees, 5 were women. Of these five, one (from Belgium) has gone to a UNESCO Technical Assistance project in Cambodia, as a specialist in the training of rural community workers; one (from Denmark) has stayed on in Yelwal as a specialist consultant for the second course of trainees; one (from Holland) will accompany her husband on his appointment to the TUFEC centre in Thailand; one (from France) is at present awaiting an appointment; and the last (from Germany) has returned to her former appointment.

## 5. UNESCO Technical Assistance Programme

Towards the end of 1954, there were 11 women serving as UNESCO experts under the Technical Assistance Expanded Programme. Miss A. Camusel (Belgium) joined a fundamental education mission in Cambodia, where she is working with women's groups and as general assistant to the project director. Miss D. Moses (India) is organizing and conducting training courses for rural leaders, for the Rural Development Department of the Government of Ceylon. Miss T. Femenias (Chile), after serving as an expert for two years in Panama, took up another UNESCO assignment with the rural educational broadcasting programme of the Government of Colombia. Miss S. Karsen (United States of America), after working two years in the UNESCO Secretariat, has gone to Costa Rica as Assistant to the Chief of the UNESCO Rural Education Mission. Miss M.J. Hacker (United Kingdom) is serving a second year as Educational Adviser on women's education to the Government of Hashemite Jordan. Miss N. Lopez-Peralta and Miss E. Lopez-Peralta (Mexico) have continued for a third year with the UNESCO Fundamental Education Mission at Dujailah, Iraq. Miss J. Granger (France) is completing a second year as a technical assistance expert in
production of school materials for the Lebanon. Miss A.A. Babbitt (United States of America) is serving a third year in Libya, working on primary teacher training at the Educational Production and Training Centre. Mrs. D. Collings (United States of America) has been for two years librarian at the Arab States Fundamental Education Centre in Egypt. Miss Filomena Martinez (Chile) is working as a fundamental education specialist at the UNESCO regional training centre in Mexico.

Much of the technical assistance which UNESCO is providing affects the education of women or girls. Assistance with primary and secondary teacher training has a bearing on the status and competence of women teachers and the education of girls. Many of the science teaching projects, and other scientific assistance to universities and research institutes, concern women students and technicians.

## B. Woments role in civic life

The enquiry into the exercise by women of the rights and duties of citizenship, organized by UNESCO in co-operation with the International Political Science Association and the UNESCO Institute for Social Sciences at Cologne (Germany), was completed at the end of 1953. Detailed reports concerning the actual participation of women in political life were prepared by Professor J. Narbonne and Mr. M. Dogen (France), Dr. Gabriele Bremme (German Federal Republic), Dr. Lisbeth Broch and Dr. E. Gronseth (Norway), and Professor M. Snuderl and Judge $N$. Bozinovic (Yugoslavia). These reports investigate the electoral participation of women in national and local elections, taking such factors into sccount as age, profession, size of the community, etc. They also deal with the role of women as candidates to elected functions in parliaments, State legislative assemblies, town councils and other bodies representing important sections of the population, for instance, the committees administering economic enterprises or social security schemes in Yugoslavia.

These reports are also concerned with the proportion of women in appointed administrative functions (ministries, public services, municipalities, etc.). The Yugoslav report devotes an important chapter to women's share in economic activities and in leading organs of political parties.

On the basis of these national reports, Professor Maurice Duverger, Director of the Institute of Political Studies at the University of Bordeaux, acting as General Rapporteur, wrote a volume drawing comparisons between the various situations prevailing in the four above-mentioned countries. This volume will be published by UNESCO in English and French, in 1955.

## C. Fellowships and travel grants

During the year 1954, UNESCO awarded 85 fellowships in its normal programme, 5 of them to women. In the sponsored programme 20 fellowships were awarded, 6 of them to women.

UNESCO Technical Assistance Programe included 57 fellowships, 7 of them to women.

Added to earlier figures, this means that since 1947 approximately 870 UNESCO fellowships have been awarded, of which 130 have been given to women. It should be noted that as in previous years, no particular preference is given to women, unless the subject of study is particularly suited to them (e.g. home economics, or some branch of women's education). However, for .ertain of the sponsored fellowships (e.g. Ohio Federation of Women's Clubs or Soroptimists International) only women candidates are eligible.

It should be noted that, although the final choice and the awerd rest with UNESCO, candidatures for fellowships are submitted by the Governments to whom grants have been offered. Unless the regulations specify that candidates must be women - which they do only where the type of study justifies it - the choice depends entirely on the Government. If its list nominates both men and women, UNESCOrs choice is made solely on the merits of the candidates.

## Youth travel erants

Under the 1954 programe 40 grants have been made, 20 of them to women. Other international fellowship and siholarships

Over 50,000 international fellowships and scholarships were listed in Volume VI of "Study Abroad: International Handbook; Fellowships, Scholarships, Educational Exchange", published in February 1954. An Analysis of these offers shows that 137 donors out of a total of 1, 088 restricted their offers to women candidates. At the same time 114 donors restricted their offers to men. The total number of individual fellowships involved was 690 in the case of women, and 1,993 in the case of men. The previous year about 550 fellowships had been offered exclusively to each sex.

The remaining 48,383 fellowships listed in Volume VI were offered without restrictions on the sex of candidates. Sufficient information is, however, still lacking in order to show how many were in fact awarded to men and how many to women.

Since the last report was made by UNESCO on "The Access of Woraen to Education", there has been a change of the publication schedule of the handbook "Study Abroad" from which some of the figures quoted here are taken. This has entailed a corresponding change in the dates on which related enquiries rave been conducted. The handbook will henceforth appear in October of each year, instead of January. This means that there has been a gap of $13 / 4$ years between Volume VI and Volume VII, instead of one year. Comparable figures for foreign student enrolments in universities and institutions of higher education will therefore not be available until after this report has been submitted. It is hoped, however, that the figures given in the last report will be repeated and improved on future occasions.

## D. Libraries

All members of the staff of the public library pilot project in Medellin, Colombia, with the exception of the Director, are women. This library organized by UNESCO and the Government of Colombia, opened in October 1954. The project is planning special group activities for women.

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E. Collaboration with non-governmental organizations

The following women's international organizations have consultative relations with UNESCO and maintain regular working relations with the Secretariat for exchange of information and experience:

Associated Country Women of the World
International Alliance of Women
International Council of Women
International Federation of University Women
Women's International League for Peace and Freedom
World Association of Girl Guides and Girl Scouts
World Federation of Catholic Young Women and Girls
World Union of Catholic Women's Organizations
World's Young Women's Christian Association.
The following women's organizations joined the working parties set up to examine UNESCO's proposed programme for 1955-56 during the NGO conference held in September 1954:

Associated Country Women of the World
International Alliance of Women
International Council of Women
International Federation of University Women
Women's International League for Peace and Freedom
World Federation of Catholic Young Women and Girls.
The following women's organizations in consultative status with UNESCO sent observers to the Eighth Session of the General Conference:

International Council. of Women
International Federaion of University Women
World Federation of Catholic Young Women and Girls
World Union of Catholic Women's Organizations
World Young Women's Christian Association.
In 1954 UNESCO was represented at the General Assembly of the Internaticnal Council cf Women, held at Helsinki, June 1954.

In response to an invitation from the International Women's Alliance, a member of the Secretariat attended the International Study Course on "the Status of Women in the Community" organized by the Danish Women's Society, an affiliate of the International Women's Alliance, held at the International Folkhighschool, Elsinore, Denmark, from 31 July to 7 August 1954.

UNESCO was also represented at the Ninth Congress of the International Co-operative Women's Guild held in Paris in September 1954.

Women's organizations in donor countries participate in the Gift Coupon Programme, sending gift coupons direct to institutions in need of equipment. International co-operation and understanding through personal contact between women's organizations in different parts of the world is thus advanced through the scheme. Among these women's organizations are: Soroptimists of various countries; in the United States of America, Future Homemakers of America, National Home Demonstration Clubs, many woments "Guilds" of churches, Associated Women of the American Farm Bureau Federation, General Federation of Women's Clubs, National Federation of Business and Professional Women's Clubs, National Education Association; in Canada, Canadian Association for Adult Education, Canadian Home and School and Parent-Teacher Association, Federated Women's Institutes of Canada; in the United Kingdom, United Nations Association; ete.

