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Special Study on Educational Conditions in Non-Self-Governing Territories

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SPECIAL STUDY

ON

EDUCATIONAL CONDITIONS

Non-Self-Governing Territories

Summaries and analyses
of information transmitted to the Secretary-General
during 1953

CORRIGENDUM

In the fifth line of the second paragraph of the Preface, page iii, "Administering Members during 1952" should read "Administering Members during 1953".

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PREFACE

On 27 November 1953, the General Assembly of the United Nations approved a special report prepared by the Committee on Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories which met in New York from 18 August to 18 September 1953.

The points raised in the report are summarized in chapter I of this volume; the remaining chapters contain the studies on educational conditions in Non-Self-Governing Territories prepared in the Division of Non-Self-Governing Territories for the Committee on the basis of information transmitted to the Secretary-General by the Administering Members during 1952 and previous years.[1]

This volume, although a separate study of educational conditions, is part of the annual series containing summaries and analyses of information on Non-Self-Governing Territories which are listed on the back of the title page.

[1] Documents Nos. : A/AC.35/L.122, A/AC.35/L.123, A/AC.35/L.125, A/AC.35/L.127, A/AC.35/L.128, A/AC.35/L.130, A/AC.35/L.131, A/AC.35/L.132, A/AC.35/L.133, A/AC.35/L.136 (prepared by UNESCO), A/AC.35/L.141 (prepared by ILO), A/AC.35/L.143 (prepared by UNESCO).

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CHAPTER I

GENERAL ASSEMBLY REVIEW OF EDUCATION IN NON-SELF-GOVERNING TERRITORIES

Introduction

The Committee on Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories[1] comprises the eight Members responsible for administering Non-Self-Governing Territories—Australia, Belgium, Denmark, France, the Netherlands, New Zealand, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, the United States of America—and eight others elected by the General Assembly. In 1953, the elected members were : Brazil, China, Cuba, Ecuador, India, Indonesia, Iraq and Pakistan.

A principal duty of the Committee is to examine summaries and analyses of the economic, social and educational information which is transmitted each year by the Administering Members to the Secretary-General. The Committee reports to the General Assembly and may make substantive recommendations relating to functional fields generally but not with respect to individual territories. In 1950 the Committee paid particular attention to education, in 1951 to economic conditions, and in 1952 to social conditions.

In 1953, at its fourth session held from 18 August to 8 September, the Committee once again examined educational conditions. After a general discussion of the studies published in this volume, the Committee appointed a Sub-Committee composed of the representatives of Brazil, China, France, India, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom, with the participation of representatives of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) and the International Labour Organisation (ILO). The Sub-Committee prepared a report on educational conditions in Non-Self-Governing Territories which, after approval by the full Committee and review by the Fourth Committee, was approved by the General Assembly.

[1] Before 18 January 1952 the Committee was called the Special Committee on Information transmitted under Article 73 e of the Charter.

General

The report on educational conditions in Non-Self-Governing Territories opens with a restatement of the general principles with which the Committee in 1950 prefaced its comments on the various educational problems and with a quotation from the 1950 report regarding the relationship between the work of the Committee and that of UNESCO.

The report then continues with the statement that, even though the time which has elapsed since the last report on education is so brief, the information before the Committee indicates that the importance of educational advancement has been increasingly stressed in the Non-Self-Governing Territories and that the educational facilities have increased appreciably.

The information on progress in school enrolment in fifty-nine Non-Self-Governing Territories shows a substantial increase between 1945–1946 and 1951; enrolment in higher and university education has also increased, as has expenditure on education. After quoting figures in support of these statements, the report states that such figures must be read in conjunction with other facts which show how much remains to be done. Not only is there too little education, with too few schools and too short a period of schooling, but in most cases the quality of education is open to criticism. The need for education has increased, the problems have become even more complex, and the whole process of aiding the peoples of the Non-Self-Governing Territories to attain self-government is hindered by inadequacies in their education.

Equality of opportunity

The Committee, in 1950, stated that in the field of education no principle is more important than that of equality of opportunity for all racial, religious and

cultural groups of the population. In 1953 the Committee emphasized that the betterment of human relations in the Non-Self-Governing Territories and access to equal opportunities in education for all children are points of such fundamental importance that it should continue to focus attention on them. It noted that even in the brief period since 1950 there had been a tendency, in some of the Territories inhabited by plural communities, to create a national school system, while a second tendency is for the institutions of higher education to seek pupils from all groups, even in regions where at the lower stages of education separate school systems are maintained. Even so, it was noted, there remain wide differences in the educational facilities open to children of different groups in some of the Territories under consideration; compulsory education in certain Territories in Africa is applied to all but African children; there is a wide diversity in the sums spent on the education of each child according to the category assigned to him by law; there are systems where the provision for the culture of a particular group of children is such that modern education is difficult to link with traditional values.

Language of instruction

UNESCO experts now accept that there is nothing in the structure of any language which precludes it from becoming a vehicle of modern civilization. They accept as axiomatic, on psychological, sociological and educational grounds, that the best medium for teaching a child is his mother tongue. Consequently, they recommend that every effort should be made to provide education in the mother tongue to as late a stage in education as possible. However, they recognize that it is not always possible to use the mother tongue in school and that there is no one solution to the question of the choice of the language of instruction. Many obstacles of a political, linguistic, educational, socio-cultural, economic, financial and practical nature may impede or condition the use of the mother tongue (*The Use of Vernacular Languages in Education*) The conclusions reached by UNESCO confirm and elaborate the views expressed by the United Nations in 1950. They indicate that the programme of UNESCO has now moved to a more particular study of special aspects of second-language teaching and of the methodology of teaching reading and writing.

Extension of primary education

The Committee in 1953 paid special attention to means of providing universal primary education.

In many of the Non-Self-Governing Territories, the obvious immediate problem is not that of establishing an obligation for the children to attend school but of providing school facilities and of overcoming the difficulties which prevent children from taking full advantage of these opportunities. Accordingly, in order that the existing educational facilities may be most effectively used, an important priority is that education should be provided free of charge so that no children are debarred from school by reason of poverty. At the same time the principle of compulsory education is also of major importance. It is indicative not only of an obligation on the pupils to attend school but on society as a whole to provide the facilities for education and the means of using these facilities. In some of the Non-Self-Governing Territories, compulsory primary school attendance has already been established in law and practice and is firmly implanted in the minds of the people. In others, compulsory school attendance laws have been adopted for particular localities or for groups of pupils, and within these limitations appear to be generally effective Elsewhere, there may be school attendance laws, but existing difficulties prevent their full implementation. Yet again, target dates have been fixed with a view to the achievement of general primary education or of the attainment of definite stages in the advance towards that aim.

In these developments, even where the population shows eagerness for education and the school enrolment is relatively high, at least in the junior grades, it has been found that efforts to ensure regular attendance and continuity meet with considerable obstacles. It may be most practical to proceed by steps towards regularly assigned objectives, as by providing : (*a*) compulsory regular attendance for those enrolled in schools; (*b*) minimum and maximum ages for admission to the various grades; (*c*) compulsory enrolment and attendance in regions where there are sufficient school facilities and staff; and (*d*) universal compulsory education.

In this programme of the extension of primary school education, of particular importance are the twin problems of wastage and retardation. Another problem exists in the numerous cases where the school course available to the pupils in itself is insufficient to lay the first foundations of education. The information before the Committee was not precise enough to indicate the actual situation in a number of Territories. It suggested, however, that, even where the gross school enrolment of children of school age is not inconsiderable, an appreciable proportion of the children cease to attend in their second year and so on until those attending the final year are but a feeble percentage of those originally enrolled. Even more, there are Territories where the large majority of the schools provide courses of no more than one or two years in duration and the average child is unlikely in existing circumstances to have the opportunity to attend any other school.

The causes of these complex difficulties are manifold and the Committee recorded its conviction that a more comprehensive and more scientific study of the causes of wastage and retardation and of the means of remedying these factors in educational inefficiency should be undertaken.

The Committee noted the consideration which is being given to the question of international assistance in the field of free and compulsory education. As

stated by the regional conference on free and compulsory education in South Asia and the Pacific, which was held in Bombay in December 1952, while the development of free and compulsory education is primarily the responsibility of sovereign States and of Powers administering Non-Self-Governing Territories, it is also of international concern and calls for co-operative action both financial and technical. The Committee concurred with the view of that conference that free and compulsory education is fundamental to all plans for economic development and should be given the requisite priority in the planning of such development. The Committee noted in this connexion, that the General Assembly, notably by resolution 444 (V) adopted on 12 December 1950, has already invited the Administering Members which need technical assistance for the economic, social and educational advancement of their Non-Self-Governing Territories to submit their requests.

Finally, the report states, in emphasizing the importance of the expansion of the educational system by way of the establishment of compulsory free primary education, the Committee does not wish to leave the impression that the efforts of the governments should be directed to the solution of the resulting problems without sufficient regard to the other aspects of education. In particular, in meeting the strong and legitimate public demand for increased primary education, care must be taken to expand existing teacher-training schools and provision for secondary education, without which primary education cannot be fully developed as an integral part of the economic, social and political advancement of the peoples of the Territories.

Women's education

In most of the Non-Self-Governing Territories the education of women lags behind that of men. This applies particularly to many of the African Territories. In the Territories south of the Sahara, girls constitute approximately 24 per cent of the total African enrolment in primary schools. In post-primary schools the situation is worse. Girls constitute some 13 per cent of the total enrolment in African secondary schools; where such schools for girls exist, many do not provide a full secondary course; most of the teacher-training institutions prepare primary school teachers by means of courses that themselves are only on a post-primary level. Where the schools are co-educational, fewer girls than boys join the first classes and the wastage among them is often higher than among the boys. Vocational training for girls is extremely limited.

The educational authorities have expressed their concern at the backwardness of women's education in general. They have indicated their recognition of the fact that the whole process of national improvement will be delayed until a great drive is made to reach the women and girls. Policies of undue caution in promoting girls' education have fallen into disfavour. Among the populations there is a growing belief in, and demand for, education for girls and often an active interest is taken by the women in all forms of education, while a general tendency to ignore the claims of women to share in the benefits of education shows many signs of abatement.

The Committee, recognizing that the solution of the problem of the education of women is part of the problem of the social and cultural evolution of the inhabitants of the Non-Self-Governing Territories, considered that in the educational field, the following are examples of measures that should be taken: (*a*) increasing adoption of free education for girls with the liberal provision of scholarships, including places reserved for girls only; (*b*) the inclusion of girls in any schemes of compulsory primary education—in this connexion it may be remarked that there is often a stronger case for compulsory education among girls in view of the greater reluctance to send girls to school; (*c*) the increase in the number of primary girls' schools or the development of co-educational methods to meet the particular needs of girls and to attract girls to the co-educational schools; (*d*) the development of technical training in fields particularly suited to women; (*e*) the encouragement of the recruiting of girls for teaching, with improvements in the training of women teachers; (*f*) further consideration of the status and remuneration of the woman teacher, including the encouragement of the employment of married women teachers; and (*g*) the organization or extension of educational opportunities for adult women.

The provision of special inducements to attract and keep girls at school was held to be justified, indeed necessary where, as is often now the case, school development is bringing education to boys in more rapidly increasing numbers than to girls. Otherwise, a major effect of educational development may be to increase the stress that exists in the adaptation of the indigenous society to new needs, since the disproportion between the educated men and women will continuously increase.

Vocational training

The increased emphasis on economic development has directed attention to the need for more adequate facilities for producing trained workers of both sexes in many fields and at various levels of skill. Although finance remains a limiting factor, there has been increased expenditure on the development of vocational and technical education in recent years, and older methods of vocational training have been replaced by systems which seem to promise more fruitful results.

In this connexion, the Committee pointed out that technical education must be part of a general system of education. The pupil who is to be trained as a competent artisan will require an adequate basic standard of general education, followed by three years of technical training and by continued training of a practical character while in his first years of employment. This represents a new stimulus for a minimum eight-year general school course. The general educational requirements for those who seek to become qualified artisans by the apprenticeship method are

similar. At the secondary level, technical schools provide intermediate and technical training for industrial and commercial positions. The general education which is linked with the technical courses in these schools is at the secondary leval. The training in the higher ranks of technical skill should reach a level comparable with that of university education.

On the other hand, in the process of economic development at present taking place in Non-Self-Governing Territories, many classes of workers can receive training on the job or in specially organized courses of short duration and do not require to become the master of a trade in the way in which the apprentice or the graduate of a technical institute is master of his trade. The Committee noted that, whereas attention in most cases is primarily directed to providing vocational training for the young, the practical benefits to be derived from training policies directed to improving and up-grading the skill of workers already in employment appear to have received less consideration.

The Committee noted with interest the work undertaken by the International Labour Office in studying problems of technical and vocational training. It also noted that technical assistance for training programmes has been the most substantial part of the technical assistance programme conducted by ILO and that such assistance is open to the Non-Self-Governing Territories on the request of the governments of Members. The Committee hopes that use will be made of the services of ILO in appropriate cases.

A further form of international collaboration may be provided in the various regions. The Committee was, for example, informed of the use of the Vocational School of Puerto Rico by trainees from other parts of the Caribbean, and of proposals and developments that are taking place in the South Pacific. The impossibility for small island Territories to provide extensive training at home makes such regional cooperation of substantial economic value, and the educational value of closer contacts between peoples of the same region also merits commendation.

Financing of education

How more money can be obtained for improving education and how the best results can accrue from the money spent are stubborn problems. The Committee had before it an analysis of figures showing the sources of finance and the classification of expenditure for education. It considered that, when the General Assembly next comes to pay particular attention to education in the Non-Self-Governing Territories, more detailed information should be prepared showing, for example, the proportions of the territorial budgets allocated to the various forms of education, the assistance provided by the metropolitan governments and the territorial distribution of costs between the various organs of government and the various voluntary agencies.

Community education

The Committee, in its 1950 report on education, recorded the view that "education in its broadest sense is a necessary basis for progress in economic, social, cultural and political knowledge and responsibility" and that the extension of schooling and the raising of both literacy rates and the standard expressed by the term "literacy" are prerequisites for the raising of general conditions in all fields. At its 1952 session, in its report on social conditions, the Committee held that new foundations are required on which the individual can build a new expression of his responsibility to his family and his community, and that in working towards this aim, the whole-hearted support of the peoples, obtained by the stimulation of their own aspirations and their realization of their own needs, is indispensable.

To this process have contributed greatly the various forms of informal education which are being used in community developments and mass education with the participation of the whole local population. Community development policy is essentially concerned with the human aspects of social development. Its objectives do not differ from those of public policies in general, the ultimate aim of which is the transformation of the Non-Self-Governing Territories into a modern society, adequately equipped with corresponding economic institutions, social services and cultural attributes. Its specific feature is the emphasis placed on the participation of the inhabitants in the policies and activities aiming at social, economic and cultural advancement.

While remarkable results have been achieved in a number of communities, the obstacles that hinder expansion from the local to the national scale have in many cases not been overcome. In this expansion, the educational component of community development comes to the forefront. The aim of community development, merging with that of the general educational policy, is to provide means and channels through which new interests and aspirations can be geared to the local foundations and collective purposes, so as to lead to the emergence and consolidation of constructive social forces. Thus, community education requires the combination of all agents in social development; the public health and social welfare officer as well as the educationalist; the traditional leaders as well as the youth; women as well as men. It requires the assistance of expanding social institutions, improving literacy and the confidence of the people in their evolution towards the full exercise of self-government.

Community education thus calls for the fundamental education of adults as well as for school education of children as complementary aspects of one general process of education. In this general process the school should be a central feature, and if it is, it may well find itself able to overcome some problems which, without the participation of the community, may have appeared to be financially insoluble. In this spirit, the school should seek an affirmative answer to questions such as the following: (*a*) Does the school help the

people to identify their own problems? (*b*) Does it help the people to understand their resources for solving their own problems? (*c*) Does it help the people to learn how to use and to increase their resources to solve their problems? (*d*) Does it enable the people to work together in their common objectives and their common purposes? (*e*) Does it help the people to accomplish their tasks on their own responsibility and on their own initiative? (*f*) Does it help the community to establish social institutions that will continue to enable the community to meet their problems?

The objectives of education

The Committee included in its report a summary of the objectives of education in the Non-Self-Governing Territories and these objectives were discussed in some detail both in the Committee itself and later in the Fourth Committee of the General Assembly.

The conclusions reached are summarized as follows and incorporated in the resolution adopted by the General Assembly itself. It was held that the objectives of education in the Non-Self-Governing Territories are :

(*a*) To develop moral and civic consciousness and responsibility among the peoples, and to enable them to take an increasing share of responsibility in the conduct of their own affairs;

(*b*) To raise the standards of living of the peoples by helping them to improve their economic productivity and standards of health;

(*c*) To promote the social progress of the Territories, taking into account the basic cultural values and the aspirations of the peoples concerned;

(*d*) To secure the extension of the intellectual development of the peoples so as to provide for them access to all levels of culture.

CHAPTER II

ERADICATION OF ILLITERACY

Introduction

Illiteracy is one of the major problems with which most Non-Self-Governing Territories are concerned. Resolution 330 (IV), adopted by the General Assembly of the United Nations in the course of its fourth session, invited the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO):

> "to communicate to the Administering Members full information on measures for suppressing illiteracy which could be applied with satisfactory results in Non-Self-Governing Territories, and to communicate annually to the United Nations an account of these measures and of the extent to which its services in campaigns against illiteracy have been provided for any of the Non-Self-Governing Territories at the request of the Members concerned;"

The same resolution also invited the Secretary-General:

> "to collaborate with the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization in any necessary studies, taking as a basis the information transmitted under Article 73 e, together with any relevant supplemental information and any relevant studies undertaken by the Trusteeship Council with regard to Trust Territories."

During the 1950 session of the Committee on Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories, to which special studies on the question of eradication of illiteracy were submitted by the Secretary-General and UNESCO, various aspects of the problem were treated at length.[1] The preliminary survey[2] of the question prepared by UNESCO in 1950 was followed in 1951 and 1952 by interim reports[3] on the Organization's activities.

The present chapter is divided in two parts. The first part proposes to show the existing state of literacy and school enrolment in a large number of the Non-Self-Governing Territories, and wherever data are available, an attempt has been made to review the progress of literacy and school enrolment over a period of years (tables 2 and 5). The second part[4] surveys UNESCO'S action over the past year relating to measures for suppressing illiteracy which could be applied in Non-Self-Governing Territories.

Literacy and school enrolment in Non-Self-Governing Territories

Extent of literacy

In dealing with literacy and school enrolment, the first part of this chapter does not consider in detail such questions as the standards, criteria and measurements of literacy, all of which were discussed in 1950 and to which brief reference is made in the second part of the chapter. In preparing the various tables no attempt was made to establish any distinction between the various racial groups, as this particular aspect of educational conditions is treated in another study.

Table 1 shows the percentage of literates of total population or more often of the population over a certain age in the latest year for which such information had been received by the Secretariat at the time this chapter was drafted.

Most of the figures supplied by the Administering Members are estimates. In some cases sampling surveys have been undertaken or an enumeration of literates has taken place as part of a general population census. It is assumed that this is the case wherever a census has been taken as indicated in Table 1, with the exception of Uganda, where the percentage of literacy is stated to be a mere estimate.

In some Territories the estimates may be more accurate than in others: namely, when they are based on an enumeration made in a previous year.

The percentages are not fully comparable and note should be taken in each case of the various interpretations of literacy and of the standards for the quantitative measurement of literacy which are briefly described in the last column of Table 1 wherever information was available on such criteria.

It is admitted that these brief indications, the only ones which were available, throw little light on the literacy status, i.e., whether people are highly literate, or literate with ability to read and write, or semi-literate and able to read only.

In spite of its shortcomings, table 1 shows at least roughly what the existing situation is and where improvement is most urgently needed.

Among the thirty-five Territories for which information on literacy was provided, the percentage

[1] United Nations: *Non-Self-Governing Territories. Summaries and Analyses of Information transmitted to the Secretary-General during 1950*, New York, 1951 (Sales No. 1951.VI.B.1.Vol.III), pp. 14–18 and 31–77.

[2] United Nations: document A/AC.35/L.16.

[3] United Nations: documents A/AC.35/L.62 and A/AC.35/L.99.

[4] Prepared by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (United Nations: document A/AC.35/L.136).

TABLE 1

Extent of literacy

Territory	Year *		Total population	Literacy percentage	Criteria and measurement of literacy
Cyprus	1951	E.	491,000	74.4	Literacy percentage of population between 15 and 60 years.
Gibraltar	1951	E.	22,848	High	"High degree of literacy."
Morocco	1951	E.	8,500,000	50.0	Percentage of population 10 years and over.
Belgian Congo	1951	E.	11,662,698	37.0	Percentage of total population.
Gold Coast	1951	E.	4,332,500	20.0-30.0	Of the population of Ashanti and the Colony; a substantially lower proportion in the Northern Territories.
Gambia	1951	E.	279,686	30.0 20.0-25.0	In Bathurst. In Protectorate if limited literacy in Arabic acquired in Koranic schools is included.
Sierra Leone	1951	E.	1,891,000	65.0 5.0	In Colony percentage of total population over 10 years. In Protectorate percentage of total population over 10 years.
British Somaliland	1951	E.	640,000	1.0	Percentage of total population.
Uganda	1948	C.	4,958,520	30.0	Percentage is estimated. Age not stated.
Nyasaland	1945	C.	2,049,914	6.5	Ability to read and write. Percentage refers to total population.
Swaziland	1950	E.	197,000	18.0	Of the African population, some 18 per cent are literate in their own language, and about 7.5 in English.
Madagascar	1949	E.	4,207,000		Of total population 10 per cent, "read the newspaper in the Malagasy language".
Mauritius	1944	C.	419,185	27.7	Ability to read. Percentage of total population.
St. Helena	1951	E.	4,748	High	Practically the whole population is literate.
Seychelles	1947	C.	35,232	25.9	Ability to read. Percentage of total population.
Aden Colony	1946	C.	80,516	19.2	Ability to read and write. Percentage of total population.
Federation of Malaya	1947	C.	4,908,000	38.0	Ability to read. Percentage of population 15 years and over.
Singapore	1947	C.	940,824	46.0	Ability to read. Percentage of total population 15 years and over.
North Borneo	1951	C.	334,141	11.0	Literacy in any language. Percentage of population 15 years and over.
American Samoa	1951	E.	19,000	98.0	Percentage of population 10 years and over.
Fiji	1946	C.	259,638	64.0	Ability to read and write. Percentage of population 15 years and over, excluding Europeans.
Gilbert and Ellice Islands	1951	E.	30,000	High	Illiteracy is negligible. Ability to read and write one's own name.
Hawaii	1951	E.	459,521	High	Illiteracy is negligible.
Bahamas	1943	C.	68,846	69.0	Ability to read and write.
Barbados	1946	C.	195,398	93.0	Percentage of population 10 years and over.
Bermuda	1950	C.	37,000	97.0	Ability to read and write. Population 7 years and over.
British Guiana	1949	E.	408,000	78.6	Ability to read. Percentage of population 10 years and over.
British Honduras	1946	C.	59,220	84.0	Ability to read. Percentage of population 10 years and over.
Grenada	1951	E.	75,000	81.4	Ability to read. Percentage of population 10 years and over.
Jamaica	1943	C.	1,237,063	76.1	Ability to read. Percentage of population 10 years and over.
Dominica	1951	E.	54,000	70.0	Ability to read. Percentage of population 10 years and over.
Puerto Rico	1950	E.	2,254,000	75.7	Ability to read and write. Percentage of population 10 years and over.
St. Vincent	1951	E.	67,000	80.9	Ability to read. Percentage of population 10 years and over.
Trinidad and Tobago	1946	C.	557,347	77.5	Ability to read. Percentage of population 10 years and over.
Virgin Islands (U.S.)	1951	E.	27,000	87.0	Ability to read and write. Percentage of population 10 years and over.

* Year of census = C. Estimate = E.

of literacy ranges from 1 per cent in British Somaliland to 98 per cent in American Samoa. It is equal to or higher than 70 per cent in Cyprus, Gibraltar, St. Helena, American Samoa, Gilbert and Ellice Islands, Hawaii, Barbados, Bermuda, British Guiana, British Honduras, Grenada, Jamaica, Dominica, Puerto Rico, St. Vincent, Trinidad, Tobago and the United States Virgin Islands.

It is equal to or lower than 30 per cent in the Gold Coast, Gambia, British Somaliland, Uganda, Nyasaland, Swaziland, Madagascar, Mauritius, Seychelles, Aden Colony and North Borneo.

None of the African Territories is in the higher brackets and none of the Caribbean area Territories is in the lower brackets. With the exception of North Borneo, whose percentage of literacy is 18.7, the South East Asia Territories are at the intermediate level.

Regarding Morocco, the information transmitted for 1951 states that " no definite criteria of the concept of illiteracy can be established and consequently censuses fail to give any information on that subject. Nevertheless it would be close enough to the truth to say that half of the population ten years of age and over has more or less received some instruction, whether in official schools or in the *msids* (elementary Koranic schools).

No literacy statistics are available for the French Territories south of the Sahara.

In the Seychelles, information transmitted in 1950 states that " the last known figure for literacy is that given in the 1947 census, viz. 25.9 per cent. It is not possible to gauge accurately the improvement since that time, but having regard to the steps taken to remedy illiteracy in government departments, e.g. the police, and to the fact that since that date the registered school population has increased by some 14 per cent, the improvement is likely to be quite considerable ".

" In Nyasaland, the 1945 census showed that 6.55 per cent of the total African population was literate, 0.96 per cent being literate in English as well as in the vernacular. Literacy is most prevalent in the Northern Province, where 10.61 per cent was returned as literate."

In Basutoland and Zanzibar literacy has been measured in relation to the child population only. These Territories have therefore been omitted from table 1.

In the Belgian Congo information supplied for 1948 specified that the percentage of literacy has been obtained by measuring the total Christian population against the total population of the Territory. In the information for 1951 no indication is given as to what criteria have been used in the new estimation. But clearly the 1948 standard of measurement, i.e., the assumption that any Christian is a literate person cannot form a basis for statistical calculation. Every year some 100,000 children are born in Christian families and receive baptism, so that, after a period of seven years and allowance being made for the infant mortality, the Christian population comprises roughly 500,000 baptized children who have to be deducted from the so-called literate population.

In North Borneo, " the rates are incontestably low, but it should be remembered that schooling was interrupted for some four years during and immediately after the Japanese occupation and that the break in many individual cases lasted for considerably longer ".[5]

In American Samoa, 98 per cent of the population can read or write English. Moreover, 95 per cent of the Samoan people can read or write the Samoan language.

In the Gilbert and Ellice Islands, illiteracy is stated to be negligible, and to have been so for many years, but literacy is described as " ability to read and write one's own name ".

Table 2 shows the progress of literacy in selected Territories. It has its limitations. Attention is drawn in particular to the few cases where the age group on which the percentage is based is different in the two years compared.

[5] North Borneo: *A Preliminary Report on the Census of Population, 1951*, Jesselton, 1952, p. 8.

TABLE 2

Progress of literacy

Territory	*Year*	*Age group*	*Percentage*	*Year*	*Age group*	*Percentage*	*Increase expressed in percentage*	*Annual rate of increase in percentage*
Cyprus	1946	All ages	56.1	1951	15 to 60 years	74.4	32.6	6.52
Sierra Leone :								
Colony	1947	Not stated	30	1951	10 years and over	65	116	29
Protectorate ...	1947	Not stated	5	1951	10 years and over	...[a]	...	...
British Somaliland.	1946	All ages	0.15	1951	All ages	1	566	118.2
Swaziland	1947	African population	18	1950	African population	18	—	—
Belgian Congo ...	1948	All ages	33	1950	All ages	37	12.1	6.05
North Borneo	1931 C.	All ages	9	1951	10 years and over	17.0	88.0	4.4
American Samoa .	1940 C.	10 years and over	94	1951	10 years and over	98	4.2	0.38
Grenada	1946		68	1951	10 years and over	81.4	19.7	3.94
Puerto Rico	1940 C.	10 years and over	69	1950	10 years and over	75.7	9.7	0.97
St. Vincent	1946	Adults	81	1951	...	80.9		

[a] Throughout the volume, this symbol (...) is used whenever information is not available; a dash indicates thad the amount is nil or negligible.

TABLE 3
School enrolment

Territory	Year	Total population	School enrolment	Percentage of school enrolment to total population	Number of children of school age	Percentage of school enrolment to children of school age	School age
Cyprus	1951	491,000	77,419	15.7	86,000	90.0	6–14
Gibraltar	1951	22,848	3,441	15.0	3,091	100.0	...
Morocco	1951	8,500,000	264,018	3.1	...	...	6–14
Tunisia	1951	3,500,000	194,528	5.5	...	...	...
French Equatorial Africa	1951	4,305,000	93,516	2.16	861,000	10.8	...
French West Africa	1951	17,176,000	179,203	1.04	3,435,000	5.2	...
Gambia	1951	279,686	4,281	1.5	...	...	...
Gold Coast	1951	4,332,500	281,177	6.5	675,000	42.0	5–15
Nigeria	1950	24,300,000	999,350	4.1	5,000,000	20.0	...
Sierra Leone	1950	1,860,000	37,775	2.0	418,000	9.0	...
British Somaliland	1951	640,000	2,224	0.35	...	2.0	...
French Somaliland	1951	54,000	1,530	2.8	11,000	14.0	...
Kenya	1950	5,635,000	381,902	6.8	1,055,108	36.0	7–15
Uganda	1951	5,187,000	346,333	6.7	1,037,400	33.3	6–15
Zanzibar	1950	274,835	10,025	3.6	69,498	14.4	6–15
Basutoland	1951	578,000	89,421	15.4	186,000	48.0	6–18
Bechuanaland	1951	296,310	18,536	6.2	60,000	30.0	...
Belgian Congo	1951	11,662,698	982,220	8.4	2,110,000	46.5	...
Northern Rhodesia	1951	1,947,000	170,259	8.7	...	...	7–16
Nyasaland	1951	2,401,000	241,797	10.0	...	Over 50 %	5–18
Swaziland	1951	200,000	15,453	7.7	...	35.5	...
Comoro Archipelago	1951	168,000	2,357	1.4	33,000	7.0	...
Madagascar	1951	4,207,000	251,848	6.0	841,000	29.9	...
Mauritius	1951	494,519	73,105	14.7	83,771	87.0	5–12
St. Helena	1951	4,748	1,251	26.0	...	100.0	5–15
Seychelles	1951	37,000	5,826	15.7	...	50–60	...
Aden Colony	1951	100,000	6,630	6.6	...	...	5–15
Brunei	1951	48,000	4,680	9.7	...	48.0	...
Federation of Malaya	1951	5,420,000	720,000	13.2	...	43.2	6–13
Singapore	1951	1,050,372	158,797	15.0	222,000	70.5	6–18
North Borneo	1951	334,000	21,348	6.3	54,500	39.0	...
Sarawak	1951	562,000 [a]	42,284	7.5	...	...	...
American Samoa	1951	19,000	5,301	27.9	...	...	7–15
Cook Islands	1951	15,000	4,085 [a]	27.2	...	...	...
Fiji	1951	301,959	54,845 [b]	18.2	...	78.0	6–14
Gilbert and Ellice Islands	1950	39,000	8,108	20.7	...	...	...
Guam	1951	60,900	10,389	17.3	...	...	...
Hawaii	1951	450,521	121,144	26.3	...	...	...
Netherlands New Guinea	1951	700,000	31,705	4.5 [c]	...	...	...
Papua	1951	375,966	41,881	11.1	...	...	...
New Hebrides	1951	49,000	2,000	4.0	...	...	...
Bahamas	1951	81,000	18,057	22.2	...	...	6–14
Barbados	1951	213,000	36,195	16.9	38,581	93.8	5–14
Bermuda	1951	38,000	7,632	20.0	...	...	7–13
British Guiana	1951	431,000	80,528	18.6	108,983	73.8	6–14
British Honduras	1951	70,000	13,879	19.8	...	...	...
Grenada	1951	75,000	18,531	24.7	19,000	97.5	6–15
Falkland Islands	1951	2,280	348	15.2	...	...	...
Dominica	1951	55,000	10,201	18.5	12,900 [a]	79.0	...
Jamaica	1950	1,403,000	218,627	15.5	280,000	78.0	7–15
Antigua	1951	45,000 [a]	10,898	24.2	11,000	99.0	5–13
St. Kitts-Nevis	1951	48,000 [a]	11,436	23.8	13,400	85.3	5–13
Montserrat	1951	13,500 [a]	2,387	17.6	4,000	59.6	5–13
St. Lucia	1950	79,000	13,837	17.5	...	...	...
St. Vincent	1951	67,000 [a]	14,822	22.1	...	66.6	5–15
Trinidad and Tobago	1950	627,000	131,278	20.9	...	85.0	6–12
Puerto Rico	1951	2,254,000	482,319	21.3	...	64.4	6–18
Virgin Islands (U.S.)	1951	26,654	7,202	27.0	...	...	...
Alaska	1951	140,000	15,806	11.2	...	...	...
Greenland	1951	23,000	4,268	18.5	...	...	...
Hong Kong	1952	2,000,000	194,575	9.7	...	...	...
Tokelau Island	1951	1,580	537	33.9	...	...	...

[a] 1950.

[b] Fijians and Indians.

[c] The figure of 11 per cent is given for 1952 by the Administering Authority, but in regard to the *registered* Papuan population only.

Any comparison between the ratios of increase for the various Territories should also take into account the length of the period under consideration which differs from one Territory to the other.

In the Territories where the standards of literacy are already high or reasonably so, the progress over a relatively short period of time is obviously almost imperceptible, while the ratio of increment expressed in percentage may appear to be striking where illiteracy is still widely spread. The case of British Somaliland, with an improvement ratio of 566 per cent over a period of five years, but with an illiteracy of 99 per cent, illustrates this latter point, while the 4.2 per cent increase ratio over a period of eleven years but with an almost negligible percentage of illiteracy in American Samoa illustrates the former point.

School enrolment and literacy rate

Although school enrolment statistics do not constitute by themselves an index of the extent of literacy in the various Territories, they provide some clue when examined in conjunction with statistics of the popution of school age and of the total population. Moreover, they help to measure the efforts made towards the eradication of illiteracy.

When used for comparison purposes, the relationship of school enrolment to total population must be interpreted with the greatest caution because it depends on the ratio of children of school age to total population. This ratio varies considerably from one Territory to another, as the range extends from 15 per cent in the Gold Coast to 33 per cent in St. Vincent. In Africa 20 per cent is arbitrarily adopted as an average percentage for all French Territories south of the Sahara.[6]

This wide range is partly explained by the different average life span of the population, partly by the varying birth rates, partly by the divergent interpretation given as to what age group should be considered as the " school age population ". This latter standard differs widely in the information supplied by the Administering Members, as school ages range from 5–12 years in Mauritius to 5–18 years in Nyasaland. These disparities must be kept in mind whenever a comparison is made between one Territory and another.

Most Non-Self-Governing Territories share with other less economically developed countries the burden of having much higher percentages of school age children than the developed countries.

Although the ratio of school enrolment to the number of children of school age is a more reliable indicator of educational conditions than the ratio of school enrolment to total population, it has also to be read with reservations. Among the children enrolled in a given year, many drop out at the end of the first or second year. In Kenya for instance, the number of African children in Standard I in 1949 was 113,897; in Standard II, 51,160; in Standard VI, 6,983.[7] In this, as in similar cases, it would be misleading to take the school enrolment without qualifications as an index of progressive reduction of illiteracy. The education department of Kenya suggests in its annual report for 1949, that " the reasons for this situation are complex and would appear to be based on a combination of lack of interest on the part of the pupils themselves and of social conditions in which parents rely on their children to help in the work of the family ".[8]

Moreover, a certain number of children who have learned to read and write relapse into illiteracy when back in their village where the environment is not conducive to retaining the elements of education which they have received.[9] This would emphasize the fact that keeping people literate depends on general progress in the level of standards of living, and on the availability of reading material as well as of postal communications, circulation of newspapers, etc.

School attendance is a factor to be borne in mind when reading the educational statistics as to their value in measuring the progress of the eradication of illiteracy. Table 4 shows for selected Territories the percentage of actual school attendance to enrolment.

[6] France: *Bulletin de l'Inspection générale de l'enseignement et de la jeunesse du Ministère de la France d'outre-mer*, April 1952, p. 34.

[7] Kenya: *African Education in Kenya*, Nairobi, 1949, p. 15.

[8] Kenya: *Education Department Annual Report, 1949*, Nairobi, 1951, p. 34.

[9] Nyasaland: *Report on the Census of 1945*, Zomba, 1947, p. 16.

TABLE 4

Attendance compared to enrolment in selected Territories, 1946-1951

Territory	1946	1947	1948	1949	1950	1951
Gold Coast	95.2	95.3	92.8	...	...	...
Kenya (Africans)	40.0	41.1	...	...	...	...
Zanzibar	82.6	88.5	90.8	91.1	77.1	...
Northern Rhodesia (Africans)	81.1	...	...	...	...	85.0
Mauritius	68.2	...	70.2	78.0	78.1	...
Seychelles	...	...	...	82.0	...	...
Federation of Malaya (Malays)	87.9	...	...	91.1	...	...
Singapore (Malay schools)	88.9	93.7	94.4	94.7	95.6	...
Barbados	74.0	74.0	74.5	74.8	75.2	73.6
British Honduras	80.1	79.8	80.7	80.8	82.8	83.0
Jamaica	65.7	68.1	66.9	67.6	...	...

In Territories for which data are available over a period of years a fairly constant pattern of the degree of attendance suggests that there is no significant change in that field. Absenteeism is particularly great in Kenya and Jamaica. In a few instances the attendance rate is satisfactory and even good, as in the Gold Coast, Hong Kong and Singapore.

Percentages should be interpreted with care, as in some Territories the size of the enrolment has been adjusted to the attendance figure. The information supplied for the Belgian Congo states that the figure given as the number of children enrolled " corresponds to the average attendance figure; the actual average enrolment figure may be estimated to be from 10 to 20 per cent higher ".[10]

Table 5 indicates the comparative state of school enrolment over a period of five years. In order to give a more balanced picture of this development, three different rates of increase—or decrease—are shown in the last three columns.

Column 10 expresses the percentage of increase of school enrolment in column 7 over column 3. It shows generally speaking an improvement with the exception of Bechuanaland, where there is a decrease of 14 per cent.

The set of figures in column 11 is meant to indicate by what percentage the 1951 ratio of school enrolment to children of school age (column 8) has increased over the 1946 ratio (column 14). The 300 per cent increase for British Somaliland may look abnormally high, but is explained by the very low basic figure to which the improved situation is compared (see above).

Finally, column 12 expresses the percentage of increase or decrease of the 1951 ratio of school enrolment to total population (column 9) over the 1946 ratio (column 5). The rate shows on the whole a favourable trend and nowhere, with the exception of Basutoland, Bechuanaland, and Gilbert and Ellice Islands, for which negative figures are shown, is the rate of increase outpaced by the rate of growth of the population. The Belgian Congo, Northern Rhodesia, Nyasaland and the Colony of Aden have a rate of increase equal to or lower than 5 per cent. In these Territories the ratio of school enrolment to total population is equal to or less than 10 per cent. Other Territories, like Cyprus, Dominica, Jamaica and Greenland, show also a low percentage in the last series, but their ratio of school enrolment to total population has been actually reasonably high and therefore the rate of progress must be expected to be slower.

Measures for suppressing illiteracy which could be applied in Non-Self-Governing Territories

Basic work in the form of studies

Both quantitative and qualitative studies of illiteracy and of measures taken against it are badly needed. Without these the basis for successful large-scale action does not exist. UNESCO is therefore engaged on the systematic collection and analysis of information on the subject. Studies of this kind give opportunity for the standardization of terms and of statistical methods, permit a clearer and more widely intelligible statement of the problems involved and stimulate national action through comparative experience. As a result, the problem of illiteracy should be better understood and more effectively dealt with on the national and territorial planes.

[10] Belgium: *Rapport sur l'administration de la colonie du Congo belge pendant l'année 1951, présenté aux Chambres législatives*, Brussels, 1952, p. 133.

Statistics relevant to the problem

Statistics on illiteracy have been presented in the UNESCO publication *Basic facts and figures*, first issued in 1952. This pamphlet has aroused sufficient interest in Member States to call for a fresh edition in 1953, which is now in press. The revised table on illiteracy, covering 50 countries and 58 Territories, is reproduced in annex 1. While the coverage of this table is considerably larger than that in the 1952 edition, information on this subject is still lacking for many of the Non-Self-Governing Territories, where the problem is most acute.

As may be seen from the annexed table, there is still no uniformity either in the criterion of literacy adopted or with respect to the age level of the population considered. Hence the percentages of illiteracy are not strictly comparable between countries.

An attempt to develop a method for analysing census data on literacy has been made in a monograph *Progress of literacy in various countries* published by UNESCO in 1953. Chapter II of the monograph describes the various criteria of literacy used in the censuses of the different countries studied.

The United Nations Population Commission[11] at its third session (1948) recommended that literacy should be defined for census purposes as the " ability both to read and to write a simple message in any language ". The Commission also recommended that the census questions on this topic should cover at least the population 15 years old and over.

The Expert Committee on Standardization of Education Statistics,[12] convened by UNESCO in November 1951, recommended the following definitions for statistics of illiteracy:

> " A person is considered literate who can both read with understanding and write a short simple statement on his everyday life.
>
> " A person is considered semi-literate, who can read with understanding, but not write, a short simple statement on his everyday life."

The Expert Committee also suggested certain methods of measurement and classification and tabulation of statistics on literacy status.

[11] United Nations: *Report of the Population Commission (third session)*, document E/805.

[12] United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization: *Report of the Expert Committee on Standardization of Education Statistics*, document ST/R4/Rev.1.

TABLE 5

Progress of school enrolment

Territory	Year	Enrolment	Percentage of children of school age	Percentage of total population	Year	Enrolment	Percentage of children of school age	Percentage of total population	Increase expressed in percentages		
									Col. 7 in relation to col. 3	Col. 8 in relation to col. 4	Col. 9 in relation to col. 5
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)
Cyprus	1946	68,735	76.0	15.2	1951	77,419	90.0	15.7	12.6	18.4	3.3
Gibraltar	1946	2,328	...	11.0	1951	3,441	100.0	15.0	47.8	...	36.4
Morocco	1946	157,759	...	1.9	1951	264,018	...	3.1	67.3	...	63.2
Tunisia	1946	129,273	...	4.0	1951	194,528	...	5.5	50.5	...	37.5
French Equatorial Africa	1946	34,150	4.0	0.8	1951	93,516	10.8	2.16	173.8	170.0	170.0
French West Africa	1946	107,470	3.35	0.67	1951	179,203	5.2	1.04	66.7	55.2	55.2
Gambia	1946	2,788	...	1.1	1951	4,281	...	1.5	53.5	...	36.4
Gold Coast	1946	174,447	...	4.8	1951	281,177	42.0	6.5	61.2	...	35.4
Nigeria	1946	614,173	...	2.8	1951	999,350	20.0	4.1	67.7	...	43.0
Sierra Leone	1946	27,778	...	1.5	1950	37,775	9.0	2.0	36.0	...	33.3
British Somaliland	1946	533	0.5	0.1	1951	2,224	2.0	0.35	317.0	300.0	250.0
French Somaliland	1946	620	7.0	1.4	1951	1,530	14.0	2.8	146.7	100.0	100.0
Kenya	1946	270,382	26.0	5.2	1950	381,902	36.0	6.8	41.2	38.5	30.8
Uganda	1947	273,272	28.0	5.5	1951	346,333	33.3	6.7	26.7	18.9	21.8
Zanzibar	1946	7,991	...	3.1	1950	10,025	14.4	3.6	25.4	...	16.1
Basutoland	1946	87,516	...	15.8	1951	89,421	48.0	15.4	2.2	...	—2.5
Bechuanaland	1946	21,701	...	8.1	1951	18,536	30.0	6.2	—14.0	...	—23.0
Belgian Congo	1946	885,038	...	8.3	1951	982,220	46.5	8.4	11.0	...	1.2
Northern Rhodesia	1946	138,035	41.6	8.3	1951	170,259	...	8.7	23.3	...	4.8
Nyasaland	1946	215,299	40.0	9.6	1951	241,797	50.0	10.0	12.3	25.0	4.2
Swaziland	1946	11,758	30.0	6.3	1951	15,453	35.5	7.7	31.4	18.3	22.2
Comoro Archipelago	1947	1,809	...	1.18	1951	2,357	6.99	1.39	30.0	...	17.7
Madagascar	1946	187,820	22.0	4.4	1951	251,848	29.9	5.98	34.0	35.9	35.9
Mauritius	1946	51,735	53.8	12.1	1951	73,105	87.0	14.7	31.1	61.7	21.4
St. Helena	1946	1,142	91.0	24.0	1951	1,251	100.0	26.0	9.5	10.0	8.3
Seychelles	1946	3,841	55.0	10.9	1951	5,826	60.0	15.7	51.7	9.0	44.0
Aden Colony	1946	5,094	29.0	6.3	1951	6,630	...	6.6	30.1	...	5.0
Brunei	1946	2,180	...	4.5	1951	4,680	48.0	9.75	114.6	...	116.6
Federation of Malaya	1946	404,288	...	8.1	1951	720,000	43.2	13.4	78.0	...	65.4
Singapore	1946	77,720	55.0	8.0	1951	158,797	67.4	15.0	94.3	22.5	87.5
North Borneo	1946	10,292	...	3.4	1951	21,348	39.0	6.3	107.4	...	85.2
Sarawak	1946	28,177	38.0	5.6	1951	42,284	...	7.5	50.0	...	33.9
American Samoa	1946	4,068	90.6	23.8	1951	5,301	...	27.9	30.3	...	17.2
Cook Island	1946	3,514	...	23.7	1950	4,085	...	27.2	44.2	...	14.7
Fiji	1946	41,878	66.5	16.1	1951	54,845	78.0	18.9	30.9	17.2	17.3
Gilbert and Ellice Islands	1945	7,815	...	22.0	1950	8,108	...	20.7	3.7	...	—5.9
Guam	1946	7,594	95.0	32.8	1951	10,359	...	36.8	36.4	...	12.1
Hawaii	1945	98,871	...	19.0	1951	121,144	...	26.3	22.5	...	38.4
Bahamas	1946	13,047	...	16.1	1951	18,057	...	22.2	38.3	...	37.8
Barbados	1946	28,880	...	14.7	1951	36,195	...	16.9	25.3	...	14.9
Bermuda	1946	6,434	...	18.4	1951	7,632	...	20.0	18.6	...	8.7
British Guiana	1946	63,046	66.4	16.5	1951	80,528	73.8	18.6	27.7	11.1	12.7
British Honduras	1946	10,306	...	17.4	1951	13,879	...	19.8	34.6	...	13.7
Grenada	1946	17,882	...	24.7	1951	18,531	97.5	24.7	36.2	...	...
Falkland Islands	1946	210	95.0	9.4	1951	348	...	15.2	65.7	...	61.7
Dominica	1946	8,613	62.0	18.1	1951	10,201	...	18.5	18.4	...	2.2
Jamaica	1946	193,230	76.0	14.7	1950	218,627	78.0	15.5	13.1	2.6	5.4
Virgin Islands (U.K.)	1945	1,284	55.0	19.6	1951	1,740	97.7	26.7	35.5	77.6	36.2
Antigua	1945	6,735	60.0	16.1	1951	10,898	99.0	24.2	61.8	65.0	50.3
St. Kitts-Nevis	1945	8,856	72.0	19.1	1951	11,436	85.3	23.8	29.1	18.4	24.6
Montserrat	1945	3,244	81.0	22.6	1951	3,287	84.6	24.2	1.3	4.4	6.9
St. Lucia	1946	10,798	65.0	15.4	1950	13,837	...	17.5	28.2	...	13.9
St. Vincent	1946	12,762	67.0	20.2	1951	14,822	66.6	22.1	16.1	0.6	9.4
Trinidad and Tobago	1946	94,343	72.1	17.1	1950	131,278	85.0	20.9	39.1	17.8	22.2
Puerto Rico	1946	377,349	...	18.0	1951	482,319	64.4	21.3	20.7	...	18.3
Virgin Islands (U.S.)	1945	5,640	...	23.5	1951	7,202	...	27.0	27.6	...	14.9
Alaska	1946	5,500	...	6.1	1951	15,806	...	11.2	187.3	...	83.6
Greenland	1946	3,911	...	18.0	1951	4,268	...	18.5	9.1	...	2.7
Hong Kong	1946	89,992	57.0	5.6	1952	194,575	...	9.7	116.3	...	73.2

The UNESCO monograph on *Progress of literacy* consists in the main of 26 case studies dealing with countries which have published results on the literacy question in three or more censuses taken in 1900.

It is planned to extend this study to other countries and to various Non-Self-Governing Territories as the results of the censuses taken around 1950 become more generally available. Thus, a world-wide statistical survey of illiteracy may be possible with the data continuously collected by UNESCO from its Member States and other countries.

Another quantitative approach to the problem of literacy lies in the study of school-age population in 138 countries and Territories, available to the UNESCO Secretariat, as given in annex 2. Detailed figures on school enrolment are found in the 1951 edition of the *World Handbook of Educational Organization and Statistics*. This publication, covering 57 sovereign States, is being superseded by a second edition to be entitled *World Survey of Education*, which is now in press, and will include over 180 entries for sovereign States and Non-Self-Governing Territories. Thus, for the first time, brief descriptions of the educational systems of almost all Non-Self-Governing Territories of the world, with concise statistical tables on school enrolment, will be gathered in one volume.

Educational aspects of the problem

During 1952 UNESCO began a comparative study of methods for teaching reading and writing. Materials had been assembled for some time previously, and in October 1952 Dr. William Scott Gray of the University of Chicago undertook to survey the field and prepare a report on the prevailing methods of teaching reading and writing in the mother tongue to children and adults and on the success of these methods.

The first phase of the study was analytical : Dr. Gray established a pattern for analysing primers and text-books, and the co-operation of a number of national authorities and field workers was sought to secure analyses of representative teaching materials now being used in a wide range of languages. Authorities in the Non-Self-Governing Territories administered by France and the United Kingdom took part in this work by reporting on material in the Malagasy (Madagascar), Yoruba and Hausa (Nigeria) languages. On the basis of such data, and following visits to Paris, Brussels, Geneva, London, Rio de Janeiro and Havana, Dr. Gray prepared his report.

It wil be noted that the report carries the title "Preliminary Survey". In UNESCO's view, the question now needs to be studied intensively at the nation level; with the distribution of the Gray report, national commissions are being asked to further the study both by commenting on the report and by setting up experiments to secure evidence on the problem. When further information is available, during 1954, it is hoped that Dr. Gray will return to complete his study, and present the Organization with a document which will be printed.

The report falls into two parts. In the first, Dr. Gray surveys current theories and practices in teaching children and adults to read and write. He begins by examining the purposes for which reading and writing are taught. There has been a notable broadening of these objectives in all countries with some thirty years or more of experience in the matter; at the outset the idea of reading as a tool is dominant, but progressively the purposes of social living and individual comprehension are added. Consequently, there seems a reasonable hope of reaching international agreement on this basic issue. When he turns to the question of methods, Dr. Gray finds it difficult to provide a classification. He distinguishes two main approaches to the beginning of reading—a group of methods based on learning word elements, which are then combined into words or larger language units; and a second group of methods which use words, phrases, sentences or stories from the beginning. With the broadening of objectives, there has been a tendency towards using eclectic methods of teaching—that is, no matter what method is used for the first steps, the subsequent steps are taught by some method combining the elements of both types. Dr. Gray reports that not enough evidence is available to answer the question : what is the best method of teaching reading? Research findings do, however, suggest a number of factors which govern the choice of a method (goals to be reached, the language used, local conditions, age, individual capacities).

This introductory survey is followed by a detailed study of the several theoretical aspects of the question.

The second part of the Gray report deals with practice, and is designed as an interim handbook for teachers. It suggests "good methods" rather than "the method", and covers in successive chapters the teaching of reading and of writing to children and to adults.

Throughout the report the preliminary nature of the work is stressed. More evidence is needed on the effectiveness of certain known methods; more comparative evidence is required; and there are large gaps in the information pertaining to language teaching in non-Roman alphabets and in ideographic scripts. UNESCO views the report as an essential first step towards stimulating research and experimentation in the Member States.

Measures for establishing free and compulsory schooling

The interim report submitted last year by the UNESCO Secretariat[13] gave an account of the Organization's programme in this field. The complete eradication of illiteracy can only be assured by universal schooling and a growing importance is attached to this aspect in the UNESCO programme. Further comment is made in a separate paper on compulsory education.

[13] United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization : document A/AC.35/L.95.

Fundamental education

National Committees

The General Conference at its sixth session adopted a resolution, 1.211, inviting Member States "to form on a national basis, committees or associations ... for collaboration with UNESCO in this field". These committees can help Member States in planning and enlisting UNESCO's assistance, by screening candidates for fellowships or for posts in UNESCO's fundamental education project and by receiving and helping expert missions or field workers who may be sent to their countries. To date, such committees have been formed in 23 countries.

Associated Projects System

The General Conference of UNESCO at its third session authorized the Director-General to establish "a system of Associated Projects and Agencies, by which important activities in fundamental education in various parts of the world are linked up through the Clearing House". Since the establishment of the system, some 52 projects in seven countries have been accepted for inclusion in the system. Of this number, 12 are in Non-Self-Governing Territories.[14] These projects have continued to receive regular information on methods and techniques being developed in fundamental education by means notably of the *Fundamental Education Bulletin* published quarterly by UNESCO since January 1949. Further, within the limits of the budget provided for such assistance, specialists have been made available at the request of the States concerned to develop the methods and techniques of teaching adults to read and write. An account of such activities is given below.

Regional training centres

With the establishment of the Regional Training Centre for Latin America at Pátzcuaro, Mexico, in May 1951, and the Arab States Fundamental Education Centre at Sirs-el-Layyan, Egypt, in January 1953, UNESCO, in co-operation with the other specialized agencies, the governments concerned and the Organization of the American States, has concentrated its attention on the twin problems of training fundamental education leaders and the production of educational materials of all sorts for use in fundamental education. The leaders trained at these two centres, on their return home after completing their training, are to staff national training centres or significant national fundamental education projects.

In this programme of training, UNESCO is paying special attention to the improvement and testing of methods and materials, including special emphasis on the methods and materials of literacy teaching. In November 1952, the Latin American Centre graduated its first class of 46 students from the following countries: Bolivia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico and Peru. Latest reports indicate that all are now working as teams or in a few cases as individuals, in national training centres or fundamental education projects.

National fundamental education centres have been created in Haiti, Costa Rica and Honduras; similar centres are being planned in Mexico and Venezuela.

The training programme is of 19 months' duration, and is divided into three stages: theoretical-practical work in regularly constituted classes and in the production workshops (six months); intensive work in the communities and production workshops (ten months); and testing and revision (three months). Classroom work consists of short courses, round-table discussions, seminars, lectures and demonstrations. Field work is carried out directly in the 20 laboratory communities. The methods used in this phase are informal and flexible. The students are organized in teams of five—each having a different speciality and nationality—which are assigned to work in one or two of the 20 laboratory villages to awaken their minds through interest in community self-improvement in health, home life, economy, recreation and basic knowledge. The students work together as teams to carry out a plan which is based upon some needed change recognized by the community. The results, apart from training in the methods and materials of fundamental education, are specific and concrete, and may include, in addition to literary classes, such things as building a well or aqueduct to provide pure water, organizing a co-operative, building a road, installing electric lights, introducing new crops, vaccinating animals, organizing a community centre, or a combination of several of these things. In the production workshops, the students plan and prepare educational materials (films, filmstrips, posters, primers, readers, informational bulletins, plays, etc.) to meet the specific requirements of the various field activities developed in the communities by the student teams. In the production of materials, the goal is not the method or technique alone, but rather the application of the material in question to fundamental education.

Frequently, these materials are arranged in educational packages, which contain films, filmstrips, posters, wall newspapers, primers and readers all related to a single theme. Several of these are now being tested in the laboratory communities with a view to revision and publication in ample quantities for distribution in Latin America and other areas.

The programmes of the centres are quite similar and are of equal duration. The present enrolment at Pátzcuaro is 119 and at Sirs-el-Layyan 50.

While no students from Non-Self-Governing Territories have so far been enrolled as regular students at

[14] Community Development Schemes in Eastern Nigeria; Mass Literacy Schemes in Northern Nigeria; Community Development in Northern Nigeria; Mass Literacy Schemes in Southern Nigeria; Department of Extra-mural Studies, Ibadan; Mass Education Teams in the Gold Coast; Domasi Development Schemes in Nyasaland; Community Service Camps, Northern Rhodesia; Area Schools in Northern Rhodesia; Pare Hills Scheme, Tanganyika; Jamaica Social Welfare Commission; Department of Education, University of Malaya.

either of these centres, it is significant that several UNESCO fellows in fundamental education from Non-Self-Governing Territories in Africa have spent short periods of observation and training at Pátzcuaro.

Services rendered to Non-Self-Governing Territories

Documentation

UNESCO has continued the publication of documents, books and periodicals related to fundamental education and to the extension of compulsory schooling, in all of which the question of illiteracy finds its due place.

The quarterly bulletin *Fundamental and Adult Education*, carried in the October 1952 issue, a series of articles on literacy campaigns in Wales, U.S.S.R., Mexico, Peru and French West Africa.

The monthly document, *Education Abstracts*, reports regularly on material relating to literacy.

A recent document,[15] in the "Occasional Papers in Education" series describes the Delhi Public Library Project, where the role of the library in helping new-literates is explored. The latest book still at press in the series "Monographs on Fundamental Education" gives an account of the broad programme of fundamental education (including literacy) which is in operation in Jamaica.

Of the total number of copies of these publications distributed, about 20 per cent go to Non-Self-Governing Territories and a considerable number to Administering Member States.

In the field of compulsory education, some eleven titles have been issued by UNESCO so far. They are:

1951:

Raising the school-leaving age.
Child Labour in relation to Compulsory Education (an ILO report).
Compulsory Education in Australia.
Compulsory Education in Ecuador.
Compulsory Education in England.
Compulsory Education in France.
Compulsory Education in Iraq.
Compulsory Education in Thailand.

1952:

Compulsory Education in India.
Compulsory Education in the Philippines.
Compulsory Education in Thailand.

They have met with a ready welcome in the Member States administering Non-Self-Governing Territories.

France and the United Kingdom have set up national clearing houses for fundamental education, and the UNESCO Secretariat maintains close working relations with these bodies. The result has been an improvement in the supply of information to educators in Territories under French and British administration and an increase in the supply of data from these areas to UNESCO education clearing house.

One example of a documentation service may suffice. The Gray Report, described above, will be issued in English, French and Spanish, gratis, to some 5,000 agencies and individuals. In addition, the Secretariat has built up a "kit" or small reference collection of the best materials studied by Dr. Gray. Each "kit" comprises about 12 books on the theory and practice of teaching reading and over 60 primers and textbooks in 15 different languages, with an analysis in English or French or both. Fifty sets of the "kit" are being assembled, and these will be sent to leading field workers, a number of whom are in the Non-Self-Governing Territories.

Field operations

From 1 May to 31 October 1952, Miss Ella Griffin (United States) acted as field consultant to the Jamaica Welfare Commission advising on the preparation of reading materials for literacy programmes and teaching local staff in the production of such materials.

Dr. Hans Wolff (United States) was sent to Nigeria in February 1953 to develop scripts and orthographies for vernacular languages so that these languages may be codified for use in education. Dr. Wolff will be in Nigeria until mid-January 1954 on this assignment.

In June 1953, Mr. Don Sugathapala (Ceylon) was sent to the Gold Coast on a six-month assignment to train local staff of the mass-education teams in the methods of preparing written materials for use in literacy teaching and in fundamental education work.

UNESCO has entered into a contract with the University of Malaya to supply two experts from the United States for a period of 18 months to develop an experiment in the teaching of English as a second language. The experiment will start in October 1953.

[15] United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation: document No. 16.

CHAPTER III

COMPULSORY EDUCATION

Introduction

The principle of universal compulsory education is embodied in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, article 16 of which states that: "Everyone has the right to education. Education shall be free, at least in the elementary and fundamental stages. Elementary education shall be compulsory. Technical and professional education shall be made generally available and higher education shall be equally accessible to all on the basis of merit." Article 26 adds that: "Everyone has the right freely to participate in the cultural life of the community, to enjoy the arts and to share in scientific advancement and its benefits."

In order to foster the maximum development of every individual in his own and in the community's interest, it is necessary to provide high-grade education over a fairly long period of years. Thus compulsory education is not only a question of the enrolment in primary schools of all the children of a given age group, but also of the prolongation of the compulsory school attendance period in countries where compulsory education is already fully applied. The application of compulsory education interests not only the countries where a certain proportion of the children of school age do not enjoy the benefit of schooling, but also those more advanced countries which have already made it possible for every child to attend school for a minimum number of years. Thus the problem of compulsory education, which is in the final analysis that of providing adequate schooling for all children, is world-wide. It is also vast and complex.

The vastness and complexity of the problem are due to the numerous economic, social and linguistic, political and general factors which hinder both the adoption and the enforcement of compulsory education laws or measures.

The more important factors may be summarized as follows: the insufficiency of financial resources available for education; rising costs of school buildings, supplies and equipment; rising salary levels; new educational services such as school meals; the economic conditions or status of the population, and the agricultural or largely agricultural character of the economy of these Territories, which are largely responsible for premature employment of children on home or farm duties and financial difficulties of many parents in paying for books and other supplies and in meeting other expenses involved in sending their children to school.

Some of the social and linguistic factors may be listed as follows: attitude of parents, migrant labour and shifting agriculture (in Africa particularly), and diversity of peoples, religion and languages.

The general factors may be listed as follows: widely scattered population in some areas; frequent rains or long rainy seasons, with disruption of communications; insufficient and inadequate accommodations leading to overcrowding, retardation and wastage, particularly in the lower grades; insufficient supply of trained teachers and training difficulties; attitude of attendance or enforcement officers. A last factor results generally from the existence of a number of adverse conditions like overcrowding, disrepair, drab school buildings, inadequate playgrounds, shortage of textbooks, poor quality of teaching, inadaptation of curriculum to local needs.

The consequence is indifference among the children and parents. The children lose interest and play truant. They leave school, causing wastage, or, when forced to remain, make no progress and repeat classes, blocking the way for the admission of new pupils in regions where there is a shortage of accommodation. As for the parents, the lack of adaptation of the curriculum to the needs of the community coupled with lack of educational leadership among the teachers and school authorities, may discourage them from continuing to make the necessary efforts to send their children to school.

The background of political or philosophical thinking may also be of importance. Compulsory education is, to a large extent, associated with the principle of education as a duty of the State. Not long ago, however, education in general was regarded as entirely the concern of philanthropy and of voluntary and private enterprises. While that concept has been discarded in the countries where it originated, its effects can still be traced in countries whose educational and cultural traditions stem from the former. Furthermore, the attitude of leaders and their willingness or reluctance to appropriate a larger share of the budget to education are political factors to be taken into account when considering the problem of compulsory education. When available revenues are insufficient to guarantee universal education under existing conditions, the determination of the percentage of revenue to be devoted to the education of the people or of certain groups of the population may be influenced directly or indirectly by socio-political considerations.

Educational programmes may also be affected by certain principles or views which govern planning for social and economic development. It may be decided, for instance, that the introduction of univers

education should receive first priority in a development plan on the theory that the education of the people is the foundation of economic progress; or the opposite view may be held, that universal education without a corresponding economic development is a cause of dissatisfaction and possible unrest.

Without minimizing the social, political and general factors whose importance varies from country to country, it may be stated that the economic implications of the implementation of a system of compulsory education are overriding. In many countries the problem is not how to compel the children of school age to enrol but how to accommodate them and to maintain a reasonably high standard of instruction.

Besides the erection of sufficient school buildings with adequate equipment and the training of an adequate supply of teachers, a compulsory system to be genuine, calls for the establishment of free education, covering exemption of fees and provision for free textbooks and other school materials; since neither free schooling nor the threat of penalties is sufficient to secure wholly satisfactory school attendance, other material encouragement may have to be given in the form of free or low cost meals, transportation, dental and medical services, and perhaps provision for clothing.

Provision of scholarship aids has been proposed in many countries, and in some of the countries where the system of family allowances has been established, the allowances are payable as long as the child is subject to compulsory school attendance.

In the light of this background of the world-wide problem of compulsory education, this study presents a brief summary of the present organization of primary education in a number of Non-Self-Governing Territories a summary of developments in regard to adoption and enforcement of compulsory education legislation and of measures taken to encourage school enrolment and attendance. The study is limited to the following Territories: Barbados, Belgian Congo, British Guiana, British Honduras, Federation of Malaya, Fiji, French Equatorial Africa, French West Africa, Gold Coast, Greenland, Hawaii, Jamaica, Kenya, Morocco, Nigeria, Northern Rhodesia, Nyasaland, Puerto Rico, Sierra Leone, Singapore, Trinidad, Tunisia, Uganda and the U.S. Virgin Islands.

Present structure and extent of primary education

Structural organization

In a number of Non-Self-Governing Territories, most of the educational facilities are managed by voluntary agencies. In many cases, schools for the indigenous population were started by the Missions, Catholic and Protestant, before the governments began to take a serious hand in education. For instance, in Uganda, a department of education was not established until 1924, when the educational system had already been created by the Missions in co-operation with African chiefs.[1] In Nyasaland, the first Mission was founded in 1861, and by 1904 different Missions were well established in the Territory and had adopted a common education code. It was only in 1908 that government took its first step to assist the Missions financially, and it was not before 1926 that a government education department was established.[2]

Not only were the Missions the first to organize schools for the indigenous populations in many of the Non-Self-Governing Territories, but their participation in education has contributed to alleviate the financial burden of the territorial governments for education. However, the trends over a number of years have been toward the assumption by the territorial governments of an increasing share of financial responsibility with a corresponding increase in control over educational matters. Through grants-in-aid to schools owned by voluntary agencies, the governments have been able to set standards as conditions for receiving aid.

In some Territories, particularly in the Carribbean, the majority of the schools operated by voluntary agencies are fully aided by government grants and the greater part of the remainder receive some form of assistance. In a number of African Territories, where Local Authorities operate, the tendency in more recent years has been to increase their financial participation in education, thus favouring a degree of local responsibility. In addition, the metropolitan Governments, particularly since the Second World War, have been contributing to educational development through special grants.[3]

While there are features common to most Non-Self-Governing Territories in regard to education, the development, structure, and efficiency of primary education, as well as the degree and level of literacy, vary from one region to another or even from Territory to Territory in the same region. Moreover, in some Territories there are often two or three types of primary education not only for children of different racial origin or religious or cultural background,[4] but also for children of the same race living in different locations.

Africa

In the Territories of the United Kingdom, the form and duration of primary education vary from Territory to Territory, the main differences in general distinguishing West from East and Central Africa.

In the Gold Coast, the primary school system consists of a basic six-year primary course (from 6 to 12 years of age). This is followed by a four-year senior course which, although not strictly primary in character, is an essential preliminary to selection for a secondary school.

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[1] Uganda: *Annual Report of the Education Department for the year ended 31st December 1947*, Entebbe, 1949, p. 2.

[2] Nyasaland: *Annual Report of the Department of Education for the year 1951*, Zomba, 1952, p. 3.

[3] See: "Financing of Education", Chapter XI of this volume.

[4] See: "Equal Treatment in matters relating to Education", chapter VII of this volume.

In Nigeria, there is a basic course of four years (junior primary) followed by a senior primary course of four years. In the Western and Eastern Regions, the junior and senior courses are for children of 5 to 14 years, while in the Northern Region the junior course is for children of 8 to 12 years and the senior course for pupils of up to 19 years of age. In Sierra Leone, there is a four-standard primary course, age range 7 to 12, preceded by two infant classes, covering an age range of 5 to 7 years.

In Uganda, Kenya, Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland, there are separate school systems for different groups in the populations organized as follows:

In Uganda, the full primary course for Africans covers six years; within this range of six years there are "sub-grade" schools with two classes, primary "vernacular" schools (four years) and full primary schools (five or six classes). Children are admitted at the age of 6. For Asians, the primary course is of six years' duration, the entrance age being 6. For Europeans, primary school covers seven years of school life, the age range of pupils being from 6 to 15 years.

In Kenya, African education is organized as a four-year primary course. This may be followed by a four-year intermediate course, leading to four years of secondary education. For Europeans and Indians, the primary course is of seven years' duration, the age range being 6 to 12 years.

In Northern Rhodesia, primary education for Africans is divided into elementary (four years), middle (two years) and upper (three years). The approved age ranges for the elementary and the middle courses are from 7 to 11 years and 12 to 14 years respectively.[5] For Europeans, primary education covers a period of seven years usually preceded by a kindergarten or reception class.[6] The approximate age of pupils is 5 to 7 in the infant section, and 8 to 12 in the junior section. The structure of primary education for Asians and Eurafricans is about the same as for Europeans.

In Nyasaland, the organization of primary education for Africans provides for village or elementary vernacular schools with a two-year course (sub-standard A and B, excluding kindergarten), junior primary courses up to and including standard III, and senior primary courses of three years (standards IV to VI) inclusive.

The age ranges mentioned for African primary school pupils indicate the ages which the primary courses are designed to cover and not necessarily the actual average age range of pupils enrolled. The problem of over-age pupils is common in communities where educational traditions have not long been established and particularly where schools have been newly created. However, in a number of cases, age limits have been fixed for admission to certain grades. In Nyasaland, for instance, age limits governing admission to sub-standard A and standard IV of the primary course were introduced for the first time during the academic year 1948–1949.[7] No boy was allowed to enter sub-standard A of an assisted school if over 9 or to enter standard IV if more than 15 years old. These limits have now been lowered to under 8 and 14 years respectively.[8]

In the Belgian Congo, primary education for indigenous children is provided in three different types of schools: the lower primary schools (*écoles primaires du premier degré*) with two years of compulsory studies and a third year optional; the regular upper primary school (*écoles primaires du deuxième degré ordinaire*) with a three years' course following the completion of the lower primary course, and the "selected" upper primary schools for boys (*écoles primaires du deuxième degré sélectionné*) which cover four years. The entrance age to primary school is from 6 to 10 years, and the leaving age varies from 12 to 17 years.

The basic primary education in French Equatorial Africa and French West Africa is divided into three divisions of two years each: preparatory course, elementary and middle course. The entrance age is 6 years. Pupils completing primary school may go to superior schools or to secondary schools. The village schools in French Equatorial Africa and some schools in French West Africa provide only four or five years of schooling.

In Morocco, primary education is provided in European-type schools—based on the metropolitan pattern and to which Moroccans, Moslems and Jews have access—and in schools for Moslems and Jews. In addition there are, under the direct control of the educational delegate of the Grand Vizir, the reformed *msids*, which are schools giving religious and secular instruction in Arabic. A number of private unaided schools also exist. In Tunisia, primary education is provided in three main types of schools: the French primary schools, designed more particularly for non-Moslems and patterned after the metropolitan schools, in a number of which since 1950 spoken Arabic is taught; the Franco-Arabic public schools teaching and using both French and Arabic, with the length of studies in those schools, according to the 1949 information, from six to seven years; the private grant-aided modern Koranic schools modelled on the Franco-Arabic schools. In addition, there is a large number of private schools, the *kuttabs*, which are Koranic schools providing instruction in reading and writing and recitation of the Koran.

Asia and Pacific Territories

On the basis of the language of instruction, the structure of the educational system of the Federation of Malaya and of Singapore is divided into four types of schools: Chinese, English, Indian and Malay. With the exception of the English-speaking schools which are attended by children of all races, the different types

[5] Northern Rhodesia: *African Education, Annual Report for the year 1951*, Lusaka, 1952, p. 21.

[6] Northern Rhodesia: Department of European Education, *Annual Report for the year 1951*, Lusaka, 1952, p. 7.

[7] In unassisted schools, age limits do not apply.

[8] Nyasaland: *Colonial Annual Report, 1950*, London, H.M.S.O. 1951, p. 49.

of schools are based on the racial groups. However, an education ordinance adopted in the Federation of Malaya in November 1952 makes provision for national schools which will provide a six-year course with a Malayan orientation for pupils of all races. In Singapore, likewise, in the Ten-Year Progamme adopted in 1947, it is recognized that for the development of the general principles of the programme, the basis of all schools should be regional rather than racial.[9]

In the Federation of Malaya, the English primary schools are organized into five standards preceded by two primary classes, the entrance age being normally 6 years.

The Malay and Indian primary school course is divided into six standards, though every Malay school does not necessarily provide the full range which, assuming a normal progress, covers the ages of 6 to 12. The Chinese primary course is of six years' duration and is divided into a lower primary course of four years and a higher primary of two. In theory, the age range is 6 to 12, but "in fact, there is the widest imaginable age range in every primary class. That for the first year extends from 5 to 17 and that for the sixth year from 9 to 20".[10] In Singapore, the range of primary education in the Chinese and English schools is similar to that in the Federation of Malaya. The Indian and Malay primary education cover seven years with few children persevering to the seventh year.

In Fiji, there are separate European, Fijian, Indian and Chinese schools and schools for more than one race. An eight-year course is provided from classes I to VIII, for Fijians and Indians, but many schools are not really effective above class IV.

In Hawaii, the majority of pupils are enrolled in government schools, but private schools take a considerable number of children whose parents do not like unsegregated public schools.[11] The Hawaii school organization follows in the main the 6-3-3 system (six years of primary school, three of junior high school and three of senior high school), but some exceptions are allowed to meet local conditions.

Caribbean

In the United Kingdom Territories, primary education covers a period of eight to nine years with an age range of 5 or 6 to 14 or 15 years. This eight or nine years' primary range is usually divided into three divisions, the upper representing a senior primary course. As in most Territories, the age ranges are somewhat theoretical.

In Barbados, primary education is organized as follows: an infant division of two years (5 to 7 years age range), a junior division of four years (7 plus to 11 plus age groups), and a senior division of three years (11 plus to 14 plus age groups).[12] In British Guiana, elementary schools take in children from 6 to 14 years of age.[13] In British Honduras, the primary course covers eight years: a lower division of two years (substandard I and II), age range 5 to 7; a middle division of three years, age range 7 to 10, and an upper division of three years, age range 10-11 to 13 years. In Jamaica, education includes an infant course covering the ages 5 to 7, and an elementary education course proper, covering the ages 7 plus or 8 to 15 years, the last years of which are a senior primary course. In Trinidad, primary education covers seven years, after which the pupil may continue into the post-primary department of the primary school or enrol in a secondary school. The age range for primary school is 5 to 12 years. After attaining the age of 15, a pupil must leave the primary school.

In Puerto Rico and the United States Virgin Islands, the public school system follows the 6-3-3 plan of organization in which six years are spent in elementary, three years in junior high and three years in senior high schools.

Other regions

In Greenland, primary education covers seven years in all settlements, and in some is followed by a two-year post-primary course.

The structure of primary education in the various Territories as described above is summarized in table 6.

Enrolment

Table 7 shows the percentage of total enrolment and of primary enrolment to total population of school age. Separate figures—when available—on school population and enrolment in regard to each racial group are given only for the Territories where there are separate school systems for different races.

No close comparison can be made on the basis of these percentages. There are variations in the definitions of children of school age and the proportion of children of school age to total population, as well as in the degree of accuracy of the various calculations.

In a few cases there are detailed figures showing the school attendance. They could be examined with value only if full account could be taken of a number of local factors. In some instances the percentages of attendance given relate mainly to government and assisted schools. The percentage of attendance is usually given for the Territory as a whole, including both urban and outlying districts, and for all pupils enrolled in all grades. Within a given Territory, attendance may vary also according to the season and to the location of the schools. For instance, it is reported in the case of Fiji that "where children have to travel long distances over unroaded country or have to cross flooded creeks and rivers, attendance may be

[9] Singapore: *Education Policy, Ten-Years' Programme*, Singapore, 1948, pp. 5-7.

[10] Federation of Malaya: *Annual Report on Education for 1949*, Kuala Lumpur, 1950, p. 58.

[11] Hawaii: Department of Public Instruction, *Annual Report*, 1951, p. 4.

[12] Barbados: *Report of the Department of Education for the year ended 31 March 1947*, Bridgetown, (n.d.), p. 8.

[13] British Guiana: *Report of the Director of Education for 1950*, Georgetown, 1951, p. 5.

TABLE 6

Structure of primary education

Territory	*Basic primary course*	*Remarks on primary course*	*Age range for basic primary course*	*Medium of instruction in basic primary course*
AFRICA				
Gold Coast	6 years	There is a 4-year middle course not strictly primary in character	6 to 12	Vernacular used in the beginning and gradually replaced by English
Nigeria	4 years	Followed by a 4-year senior or middle course	5–9 in western and eastern regions; 8–12 in northern regions	Vernacular used. Above infant classes, English introduced as subject in basic course
Sierra Leone	6 years		5 to 12	English in the Colony schools. In the Protectorate vernacular used and gradually replaced by English
Uganda				
Africans	Three types: 2-year "sub-grade" schools 4-year vernacular schools 5 or 6 years' full primary		Entrance age is 6	Africans: vernacular except in special cases
Asians	6 years		Entrance age is 6	Asians: English in Goan schools; Gujarati and Urdu in other schools, English being taught as a subject in upper classes
Europeans	7 years		6 to 15	
Kenya				
Africans	4 years	Followed by a 4-year intermediate course		Vernacular in the basic course with Swahili as a second language in the third year
Asians	7 years		6 to 12	For Asians: vernaculars (Gujarati, Urdu, Hindi) in Standards I-V, with English taught as a subject. Transition to English as medium in Standard VI
Europeans	7 years		6 to 12	
Northern Rhodesia				
Africans	4 years	Followed by a 2-year middle course (12-14 years)	7 to 11	Vernacular used and English begun as a subject in the third year of school life
Europeans	7 years		5 to 12	
Nyasaland				
Africans	2-year village school 3-year central school	Followed by 3 years' senior primary course in station schools	Entrance age limit to first year village school set at 8	Vernacular in the village schools. In the central schools, English introduced as a subject in Standard I. English becomes language of instruction and examination in Standard VI
Belgian Congo				
Africans	2-year lower primary school (with a third year optional)	Followed by a 3-year "regular" upper primary course or a 4-year "selected" upper primary course	Entrance age: 6–12; leaving age: 12–17	In lower primary: vernacular with French optional in certain places; in upper primary: vernacular with French compulsory as a second language
Europeans	6 years			

TABLE 6 *(continued)*

Structure of primary education

Territory	*Basic primary course*	*Remarks on primary course*	*Age range for basic primary course*	*Medium of instruction in basic primary course*
French Equatorial Africa	Village school 4 or 5 years. Regional rural and urban schools 6 years	Followed by superior primary school	Entrance age: 6 years	French
French West Africa...	6 years	Followed by superior primary school	Entrance age: 6 years; leaving age: 14 years	French
Morocco				
European-type schools	(Metropolitan pattern) 8 years		6 to 14	French
Moslem schools	Modelled on European type schools (no precise information)			French and Arabic
Reformed *msids* ...	No information			Arabic (French often taught as a modern language)
Tunisia				
French schools	(Metropolitan pattern) 8 years		6 to 14	French (spoken Arabic taught as a subject)
Franco-Arab schools	6 to 7 years (1949 information)			French and Arabic
Modern Koranic schools	Modelled on Franco-Arab schools			
Kuttabs	No information			Arabic
PACIFIC ASIA				
Federation of Malaya				
English schools	7 years			In the future there will be 2 types of schools: English as medium; Malay as main medium (Chinese and Tamil taught in special cases)
Chinese schools	6 years			
Indian schools	6 years		6 to 12	
Malay schools	6 years	Not every school has full range	6 to 12	
Fiji	8 years	Many schools are not really effective above class IV		Fijian in the Fijian school replaced by English in 5th year; Hindustani in Indian schools up to class IV
Singapore				
English schools	7 years			English
Chinese schools	6 years			Mother tongue (Chinese, Indian, Malay vernaculars) is medium of instruction with English introduced as a subject in the beginning of the third year
Indian schools	7 years	Few children reach the 7th year	6 to 12	
Malay schools	7 years		6 to 12	
Hawaii	6 years		6 to 12	English
CARIBBEAN				
Barbados	6 years (infant and junior divisions)	Completed by a 3-year senior division (pupils of 12–14)	5 to 12	English

TABLE 6 *(concluded)*

Structure of primary education

Territory	*Basic primary course*	*Remarks on primary course*	*Age range for basic primary course*	*Medium of instruction in basic primary course*
British Guiana			6 to 14	English (Hindi taught in a few schools)
British Honduras	5 years (sub-standards I and II; Standards I–III)	Completed by an upper division of 3 years (pupils of 10–13 plus)	5 to 11	English (Spanish frequently used by teachers in districts where it is the vernacular)
Trinidad and Tobago..	7 years	Followed by a senior primary course	5 to 12	English, with Hindi taught in primary schools where majority of children are East Indians
Jamaica	6 years (2 years infant; 4 years elementary)	Completed by an upper division (pupils 12 to 15)	5 to 12	English
Virgin Islands	6 years		5 to 12	English
Puerto Rico	6 years		6 to 12	Spanish, with English taught as a subject
OTHER REGIONS				
Greenland	7 years	Followed in some settlements by a 2-year post-primary course	7 to 14	Vernacular except in the four largest towns where, from the third year, the schools are divided into two sections, the language of instruction being vernacular in one and Danish in the other

poor during the wet season, but the average attendance at most schools in towns and in areas where schools are conveniently located is remarkably good."[14] In another Territory without a compulsory law, attendance may vary from one region to another according to the attitude of the local Chief. For instance, the report of the Manager of Livingstonia schools in Nyasaland stated that: "Attendance in Standard I-III has been good especially where there is co-operation between the Headmaster and the Chief. Where such co-operation exists it is estimated that village school attendance could be brought to average about 90 per cent."[15]

Finally, global enrolment figures considered alone throw little light on the efficiency of the school system in providing an adequate education for the pupils attending school. For instance, in the case of Fiji, it is stated that "practically every Fijian child has access to a school of some kind though the efficiency of many of these leaves much to be desired."[16]

WASTAGE

An educational system can operate effectively only if there is reasonable assurance that a high proportion of the pupils entering each educational cycle will effectively complete that cycle. The most serious form of wastage is the loss of pupils, who, for various reasons, fail to complete a prescribed educational cycle or school course by premature withdrawal from school. These pupils do not remain in school long enough to learn anything or to acquire an education of lasting value. On the other hand, there is a form of wastage produced, not by premature withdrawal from school, but by failure, in certain cases, of the educational system to provide education beyond a certain grade. Pupils residing in certain regions or localities may thus have access to only a two- or three-year primary course, whereas six years are considered necessary to provide a primary education that has a chance to endure, and thus reduce to the minimum the possibility of relapse into illiteracy.

Table 8 shows the percentage of enrolment in each of the six years of primary education in most of the Territories covered in this study. Table 9 gives the percentage of enrolment in the first two years of primary education compared with the percentage in the fourth year. In eight out of fifteen Territories, more than 50 per cent of the pupils were enrolled in the first two years of primary schools; in twelve, there were more than 45 per cent of such pupils.

Heavy wastage is not registered only after the second year. Some Territories show an extremely high percentage of wastage between the first and the second year, suggesting that a considerable number of children spent only one year or less in school.

[14] Fiji: "Council Paper No. 33, Department of Education Report for the year 1950", *Journal of the Legislative Council*, Session of 1951, p. 14.

[15] Nyasaland: *Annual Report of the Department of Education for 1951*, p. 15.

[16] Fiji: *Colonial Annual Report, 1950*, London, H.M.S.O., 1951, p. 36.

Information on the Belgian Congo and on French Territories is not included in the tables. In the Belgian Congo, in 1950, out of a total of 450,789 pupils enrolled in the grant-aided primary schools, 334,774 or 74.27 per cent were in the two-year lower primary schools[17] and 116,015 in both types of upper primary schools. In the non-aided Catholic schools, out of 131,725 pupils reported enrolled in 1950, 131,563 or over 99 per cent were in the two-year lower primary schools. As concerns the French Territories, there are no available figures on enrolment by years, nor on the number of pupils reaching the last year of primary education. It is reported, however, for French West Africa, that out of a total enrolment of 131,406 in primary schools in 1949, 7,986[18] sat for the examination for the *certificat d'études primaires* at the end of the school year 1948-1949. In the case of Tunisia, 9,675 pupils entered the examination for the *certificat d'études primaires* at the end of the school year 1951-1952.[19] The primary enrolment for 1951 was 168,563.

In comparing enrolment in the first two years of school with that in the following years, account must be taken of the fact that any expansion of primary education may be first reflected in substantial increases in enrolment in the first years of school. Nevertheless, the indications are that the decreases recorded in the following tables are rather the result of wastage from the very first year of school enrolment.

Compulsory and free primary education

Compulsory education

Essential features of the legislation of various Territories

Of the twenty-four Non-Self-Governing Territories discussed in this study, thirteen—Kenya, Northern Rhodesia, French West Africa, Federation of Malaya, Fiji, Hawaii, British Guiana, British Honduras, Jamaica, Trinidad, Puerto Rico, the United States Virgin Islands, and Greenland—have a compulsory law of one form or another in operation. In Nyasaland, although there is no full compulsory education, Native Authorities have introduced rules governing the compulsory attendance of children voluntarily enrolled at assisted schools in many districts.[20]

Of the thirteen Territories, five—Puerto Rico, the Virgin Islands, Hawaii, the Federation of Malaya, and Greenland—have legislation with a character of universality, making it compulsory for all children of a given age to enrol in and attend school; in Puerto Rico, Hawaii and the Federation of Malaya, this is subject to the reservation that there is to be a school within a certain distance of the residence of the children concerned. The laws of British Honduras, Jamaica and Trinidad provide for compulsory education in areas proclaimed by the Governor to be compulsory school attendance areas, while the laws of Kenya and Fiji restrict the application of their provisions not only to sections of the Territory proclaimed by the Governor to be compulsory attendance areas but also to children of such sex, race or section of the community as the Governor may by proclamation prescribe. In Kenya, compulsion applies to European children in general, and (since 1941) to Indian boys in Kusumu, Mombasa and Nairobi. In Trinidad, the provisions of the compulsory Attendance Ordinance of 1931 were extended to the whole colony from early in 1945.[21] In Fiji, the section on compulsory education of the Education Ordinance has not been put into application, but Native Regulations require Fijian children between the ages of 6 and 14 to attend school where one is available within a three-mile radius.

In Northern Rhodesia, for Europeans, education is compulsory for every child of school age whose place of residence is situated not more than three miles from a government school, or whose place of residence, although situated more than three miles from a government school, is not more than one mile from any point on the route of any transport service which, in the opinion of the Director, is suitable.[22] For Africans, the regulations apply to "every African child over the apparent age of 12 years and under the apparent age of 16 years living within three miles of any of the schools enumerated in the Schedule (attached to the Regulations)".[23] In addition, a number of Native Authorities have made attendance compulsory for those voluntarily enrolled in their schools.

The Education Ordinance of 1876 of British Guiana, amended in 1900, provides that "it shall be the duty of the parent of every child to cause such child to receive efficient instruction in reading, writing and arithmetic", and that "if the parent of any child habitually and without reasonable excuse omits to provide efficient elementary instruction for his child" a magistrate, upon complaint from an educational officer or other authorized person, "shall make an order that the child do attend some school named in the order, being either such as the parent may select, or if he does not select any, then such Public Elementary School as the Magistrate may consider expedient...".

In French West Africa the Order (*arrêté*) of 8 August 1949[24] on compulsory education applies only in cases where the lower classes of the schools established in the various school districts (*circonscriptions*) are not attended to capacity. Whenever the number of pupils

[17] Belgian Congo: *Rapport sur l'administration de la Colonie, année 1950*, Brussels, 1951, pp. 139-140 (the figures on enrolment given here do not include kindergarten and preparatory classes).

[18] France: *Les Carnets d'outre-mer, l'A.O.F., La documentation française*, Présidence du Conseil, Secrétariat général du Gouvernement, Paris, 1951, p. 54.

[19] Tunisia: *Bulletin économique et social de la Tunisie*, No. 67, August 1952, Tunis, p. 57.

[20] Nyasaland: *Annual Report of the Department of Education for the year 1951*, p. 10.

[21] Trinidad and Tobago: Education Department, *Annual Report, 1949*, Port of Spain, 1950.

[22] Northern Rhodesia: *Laws of Northern Rhodesia*, Cap. 186, Vol. VI, 1951.

[23] Northern Rhodesia: *Laws of Northern Rhodesia*, The African Education (Compulsory School Attendance) Regulations, 1952.

[24] French West Africa: *Bulletin officiel de l'enseignement en A.O.F.*, nouvelle série, 39e année, 1949, No. 2, Dakar, p. 37.

TABLE 7

Enrolment

Territory	Population	Year	Children of school age	School enrolment	Enrolment in primary schools	Percentage of enrolment to children of school age	Percentage primary enrolment to children of school age
AFRICA							
Gold Coast	4,332,500	1951	5–15 years ... 675,000 5–11 years ... 405,000	281,177	5–15 years .. 271,445 5–11 years .. 211,994	42.0	Total ..... 40.2 5–11 years 52.3
Nigeria	24,800,000	1950	5,000,000	999,350	970,768	20.0	19.4
Sierra Leone	Total ..... 1,860,000 [a] Protectorate .. 1,733,618 [a] Colony 126,382	1950	Total 418,000	Total 37,775	Total ..... 34,520 Protectorate . 18,931 Colony 15,589	Total 9.0	Total ..... 8.26 Protectorate ... 5.0 Colony 69.0
Uganda	5,187,000	1951	Total .....1,037,400 Africans, over .1,000,000	Total ..... 346,333 Africans .... 337,083 [b] Asians ..... 8,852 Europeans .. 398	Total ..... 333,863 Africans .... 326,112 [b] Asians ..... 7,353 Europeans .. 398	Total ..... 33.38 Africans, about 33.0	Total ..... 32.10 Africans, near . 32.0
Kenya	Total ..... 5,635,000 Africans ..... 5,450,000 Asians ..... 147,000 Europeans 38,000	1950	Total .....1,055,108 [c] Africans .....1,024,000 [c]	Total ..... 381,902 Africans .... 348,672 Asians ..... 25,731 Europeans .. 5,798 Others 1,701	Total ..... 365,061 Africans .... 337,506 Asians ..... 22,176 Europeans .. 3,841 Others 1,538	Total ..... 36.2 [c] Africans 34.0	Total ..... 34.6 [c] Africans 33.0
Northern Rhodesia	Total ..... 1,945,842 Africans ..... 1,905,000 Asians ..... 2,529 Eurafricans ... 1,092 Europeans 37,221	1951	Total ..... 389,168 [d] Africans 381,000	Total ..... 170,259 Africans .... 163,016 Asians, Eurafricans 308 Europeans .. 6,935	Total ..... 168,948 Africans .... 161,948 Asians, Eurafricans 304 Europeans .. 6,016	Total ..... 43.7 Africans 42.7	Total ..... 43.4 Africans 42.5
Nyasaland	Total ..... 2,401,352 Africans ..... 2,392,031 Asians ..... 5,248 Europeans 4,073	1951	Total ..... 480,270 [d] Africans 478,406	Total ..... 241,797 Africans .... 240,794 Asians ..... 577 Eurafricans . 96 Europeans .. 330	Total ..... 240,799 Africans .... 239,796 Asians ..... 577 Eurafricans . 96 Europeans .. 330	Total ..... 50.34 Africans 50.33	Total ..... 50.13 Africans 50.12
Belgian Congo	Total .....11,662,698 Africans .....11,593,494 Non-Africans .. 69,204	1951	Total .....2,155,000 [e] Africans .....2,145,000 [e] Non-Africans.. 10,000 [e] (approx.)	Total ..... 982,220 [f] Africans .... 971,866 [f] Non-Africans. 10,354	Total ..... 951,011 Africans .... 943,087 Non-Africans. 7,924	Total ..... 45.6 Africans .... 45.3 Non-Africans. 100.0	Total ..... 45.0 Africans ..... 44.0 Non-Africans .. 80.0
French Equatorial Africa	4,305,000	1951	861,000	93,516	88,810	10.8	10.3
French West Africa	17,176,000	1951	3,435,000	179,203	170,378	5.2	4.96
Morocco	Total ..... 8,500,000 [g] Moroccans .... 8,136,646 Non-Moroccans 363,354 [g]	1951	Total .....1,700,000 [d] Moroccans ....1,627,000 [d]	Total ..... 262,438 [h] (excluding higher education) Moroccans .. 180,484 [h] Non-Moroccans 81,954	Total ..... 225,529 [h] Moroccans .. 166,284 [h] Non-Moroccans 59,245	Total ..... 15.43 Moroccans ... 11.0	Total ..... 13.26 Moroccans 10.22

Tunisia	*Total*	*3,800,000 a*	*1951*	*Total*	*700,000 a*	Total ..... (excluding higher education)	193,008	Total	128,586			
	Tunisians	*No figures available for 1951*				Tunisians ...	145,009	Tunisians ...	128,586			
	Non-Tunisians					Non-Tunisians	47,864	Non-Tunisians	80,977			
PACIFIC-ASIA												
Federation of Malaya.	Total	5,420,000	1951	Total	1,300,000 [f]	Total ..... (at the end of the year)	720,000	Separate information on enrolment in primary schools not available		Total	55.38	
	Malays	2,673,000										
	Chinese	2,069,000										
	Indians	602,000										
	Europeans, Eurasians	24,000										
	Others	54,000										
Singapore	Total	1,059,373	1951	Total	222,000	Total ..	158,797	Total	134,908	Total ..	71.53	Total 60.76
	Chinese ...	818,162		6-12 years .	153,000							6-12 years 85.8
	Malays	129,183										
	Indians, Pakistanis	77,929										
	Europeans, Eurasians	24,366										
	Others	9,683										
Fiji	Total	301,959	1951	Total	60,392 [d]	Total	54,845	Total	52,902	Total	90.8	Total 87.6
	Fijians	132,889										Fijians 92.6
	Indians	143,332										Indians 67.9
	Europeans, Eurasians	10,310										
	Chinese	3,581										
	Others	8,847										
Hawaii		459,521 [j]	1951		[k]		121,144		74,799	Probably above 98.0 per cent		
CARIBBEAN												
Barbados		213,000	1951		42,600 [d]		36,195		32,350		85.0	76.0
British Guiana		437,027	1951		108,983		80,528		77,988		73.2	71.6
British Honduras		70,000	1951		15,000		13,879		13,103		92.5	87.3
Jamaica		1,430,000 [l]	1951		286,000 [d]		216,696		208,592		75.76	73.0
Trinidad and Tobago.		643,446	1951		156,000		139,692		130,095		89.5	83.4
U.S. Virgin Islands ..		26,654	1951				7,202		5,796			About 97.0
Puerto Rico		2,254,000	1951	6-15 years ...	578,164		482,319		340,047		83.4	6-12 years 79.7
				6-12 years ...	426,211		(excluding University)					
OTHER REGIONS												
Greenland		23,000	1951				4,268		4,156	Near 100		Near 100

For footnotes, see page 26.

TABLE 8

Enrolment by years in the first six years of primary education
Percentage of enrolment by years to total enrolment in the six years

Territory	Year	1st class enrolment	Per cent	2nd class enrolment	Per cent	3rd class enrolment	Per cent	4th class enrolment	Per cent	5th class enrolment	Per cent	6th class enrolment	Per cent
AFRICA													
Gold Coast[a]	1951	50,566	23.86	34,553	16.30	32,348	15.26	33,768	15.92	31,298	14.76	29,461	13.90
Nigeria[b]	1951	284,543	32.12	184,839	20.84	148,299	16.74	120,648	13.62	79,691	8.99	68,076	7.69
Sierra Leone[c]	1950	6,687	28.34	4,409	18.68	3,593	15.23	3,188	13.51	3,117	13.21	2,603	11.03
Uganda[d e]	1951	90,450	37.82	65,413	27.35	32,659	13.66	24,284	10.15	15,314	6.40	11,025	4.62
Kenya[f e]	1950	127,280	38.64	70,413	21.38	50,036	15.19	36,552	11.09	28,089	8.52	17,072	5.18
North. Rhodesia[g e]	1951	54,475	38.74	30,837	21.94	24,103	17.15	16,588	11.80	8,190	5.83	6,380	4.54
Nyasaland[e h i]	1951	33,101	41.64	25,267	31.79	9,932	12.49	5,546	6.98	4,031	5.07	1,614	2.03
PACIFIC-ASIA													
Federation of Malaya[j] (all races): Government and Government-aided schools	1949	137,087	28.92	115,653	24.39	98,630	20.80	67,858	14.31	36,019	7.60	18,843	3.98
Non-aided schools	1949	18,996	32.76	14,111	24.33	11,923	20.56	7,477	12.89	3,584	6.18	1,905	3.28
Fiji (all races)	1950	13,428	28.12	9,809	20.54	8,813	18.45	8,150	17.06	4,648	9,73	2,913	6.10
Singapore[l m]	1951	19,495	21.87	19,205	21.55	16,307	18.29	13,867	15.16	11,882	13.33	8,382	9.40
CARIBBEAN													
Barbados[n]	1951	5,130	19.58	4,782	18.25	4,649	17.75	4,144	15.82	3,957	15.10	3,536	13.50
British Honduras[o]	1950	3,265	31.89	1,447	14.13	1,565	15.29	1,464	14.30	1,362	13.30	1,135	11.09
Jamaica[p]	1950	47,377	26.31	35,302	19.60	29,509	16.39	26,372	14.64	23,096	12.83	18,417	10.23
Trinidad[q]	1951	32,489	31.19	22,208	21.32	13,917	13.36	12,982	12.46	11,885	11.42	10,680	10.25
Puerto Rico[r]	1951	85,348	24.01	71,648	20.16	62,745	17.65	53,626	15.09	44,909	12.64	37,122	10.45

[a] Gold Coast: *Report on the Education Department for the year 1950–51*, Accra, 1952, p. 52.

[b] Nigeria: *Annual Report of the Department of Education*, Lagos, 1952, p. 78.

[c] Sierra Leone: *Annual Report of the Education Department for the year 1950*, Freetown, 1952, p. 62.

[d] Uganda: *Annual Report of the Education Department for the year ended 31st December 1951*, Entebbe, 1949 (the figures given include the pupils of only some of the unaided schools).

[e] Africans only.

[f] Kenya: Education Department, *Annual Report for 1950*, Nairobi, 1951, p. 53.

[g] Northern Rhodesia: *African Education, Annual Report for the year 1951*, Lusaka, 1952, p. 23.

[h] Nyasaland: *Annual Report of the Department of Education for the year 1951*, Zomba, 1952, p. 27.

[i] Figures only for pupils in schools maintained from colonial government funds or aided from colonial or local government funds.

[j] Federation of Malaya: *Annual Report on Education for 1949*, Kuala Lumpur, 1950, pp. 146 and 154.

[k] Fiji: "Council Paper No. 33, Department of Education Report for the year 1950", *Journal of the Legislative Council*, Session of 1951, pp. 36–37.

[l] Singapore: Department of Education, *Annual Report, 1951*, Singapore, 1952.

[m] Figures for pupils in all schools maintained or aided from colonial revenue or local public funds.

[n] Barbados: *Report of the Department of Education for the year ended on the 31st August 1951*, Bridgetown, 1951, p. 57.

[o] British Honduras: *Annual Report of the Education Department for the year 1950*, Belize (n.d.), p. 30.

[p] Jamaica: *Report of the Education Department for the year ended 31st December 1951*, Kingston, 1952, p. 26.

[q] Trinidad: 73 e information, 1951.

[r] Puerto Rico: *Annual Report of the Commissioner of Education 1950–51*, San Juan, 1951, pp. 151, 198, 201, 204.

Footnotes to Table

[a] 1949 figure.

[b] Of the African pupils, 86,967 were catechumens.

[c] The figures for Europeans and Asians are based on an enquiry made in 1948 and cannot, therefore, be considered as more than approximate as regards 1950. The figures for Africans are also approximate (Inf. 73 e, 1951). In addition to the approximate character of the figures given, account must be taken of over-age children.

[d] Rough estimation on the basis of 20 per cent of total population (computed by the Secretariat).

[e] The number of children of school age has been computed in the following way: The number of African children of school age for 1950 was given in the 1951 73 e information as 2,100,000; the African population was 11,331,793; the percentage of children of school age to total population was therefore 18.5; on this basis, the number of children of school age in 1951 was computed as 18.5 per cent of 11,593,494. The approximate percentage figure for non-Africans was reached on the same basis.

[f] Including 7,606 adults.

[g] United Nations: *Population and Vital Statistics Report*, April 1953, p. 6.

[h] Not including children enrolled in the private *écoles foraines* providing an elementary education free of charge by voluntary staff. In 1950 there were 405 of such classes attended by 13,259 pupils.

[i] Rough estimation on the basis of 24 per cent of the total population (computed by the Secretariat).

[j] Civilian population.

[k] Hawaiian education applies to children between 6 and 16 years.

[l] Central Office of Information, London, *R.2591* (27 April 1953, p. 1) (excluding dependencies).

TABLE 9

Enrolment in the first two years and in the fourth year of primary school

Territory	Year	Enrolment in first two years	Percentage to total enrolment in the six years	Enrolment in the fourth year	Percentage to total enrolment in the six years
AFRICA					
West Africa					
Gold Coast	1951	85,119	40.16	33,768	15.92
Sierra Leone	1950	11,096	47.02	3,188	13.51
Nigeria	1951	469,382	52.96	120,648	13.62
East and Central Africa					
Kenya	1950	197,700	60.02	36,552	11.09
Northern Rhodesia	1951	85,312	60.68	16,588	11.80
Uganda	1951	153,863	63.17	24,284	10.15
Nyasaland	1951	58,367	73.43	5,546	6.98
PACIFIC-ASIA					
Singapore	1951	38,700	43.66	13,867	15.56
Fiji	1950	23,237	48.66	8,150	17.06
Federation of Malaya:					
(a) Government and Government-aided schools	1949	252,740	53.31	67,858	14.31
(b) Unaided schools	1949	93,107	57.04	7,477	12.89
CARIBBEAN					
Barbados	1951	9,012	37.83	4,144	15.82
Puerto Rico	1951	156,996	44.77	53,626	15.09
Jamaica	1950	82,679	45.91	26,372	14.64
British Honduras	1950	4,712	46.02	1,464	14.30
Trinidad	1951	54,697	52.51	12,982	12.46

enrolled in those classes is inferior to the number of children that could be accommodated, a committee, instituted by the Order, shall meet to determine which of the children residing at a reasonable distance of the school—and not already enrolled—shall be made subject to compulsory attendance.

Nearly all these compulsory regulations provide for regularity of attendance besides compulsory enrolment. The laws in the United States Virgin Islands and Hawaii provide specifically that parents may fulfil the requirements of compulsory education by providing, under certain conditions, education at home; and the legislation in Fiji, the Federation of Malaya, Kenya, Northern Rhodesia, British Honduras and Greenland implies such a possibility.

All compulsory school regulations provide penalties for non-compliance. Such penalties normally take the form of a fine. In Hawaii the penalty is a fine or imprisonment; in French West Africa and Puerto Rico it is a fine or imprisonment, or both; in Jamaica and Northern Rhodesia imprisonment is imposed only in case of default of payment of fine.

Compulsory age

The basic compulsory school legislation in Fiji, Kenya, Jamaica and Trinidad has fixed no compulsory age period, but has empowered the governors of those Territories to do so by proclamation; while in the Federation of Malaya, Hawaii, Puerto Rico, the United States Virgin Islands and Northern Rhodesia (for Africans only) the compulsory ages are prescribed in the basic law. In French West Africa the decree of 8 August 1949 refers to "children of school age" without specifying what this age is.

The laws or regulations of certain Territories fix a minimum admission age or a maximum age for remaining in primary school or both. In Jamaica, for instance, the minimum age is 7 years and the maximum age for admission to a public elementary school is 15 years.[25] The law also provides that "no child shall be retained in any public elementary school after the completion of his fifteenth year of age or next following the completion of eight years from his first admission into a public elementary school not being an infant school, whichever date may be earlier..." In British Honduras the age limit for a child to attend primary school is 14 years. In Hawaii the minimum age is 6 years and the maximum ages for admission to the ninth and tenth grades of a public high school are, unless special permission is granted, 16 and 17 respectively. In Trinidad, after attaining the age of 15, a pupil must leave the primary school.

The basic school legislation of certain Territories emphasizes not only mere attendance during a given age period but also the necessity for the pupils to complete a certain course of study once they are enrolled. Thus the law of Puerto Rico provides, with certain exceptions, that "pupils enrolled in the public schools of Puerto Rico shall continue as members of

[25] Jamaica: *Laws of Jamaica*, Law No. 35, of 1914, Elementary Education Law, article 19, Vol. III, revised edition, 1938.

the public schools of Puerto Rico until they have completed the work of each grade of the course of study prescribed at the time of such enrolment for the system of schools to which their respective schools belong... ".[26] The law of the Federation of Malaya states that " where in pursuance of the obligation imposed by this Ordinance a child has entered a primary class in a school after his sixth birthday he shall continue to attend school for a period of six years from the date on which he entered the primary class or until he has completed the primary school course... ".[27] The Northern Rhodesia regulations applying to European children state that " it shall be the duty of the parent or guardian of every child of school age ... to cause such child to attend that school or another recognized school regularly ... until such child has completed the range of education available at that school... ". The law of Kenya provides that " it shall be the duty of the parent of every such child who has reached the age at which education ceases to be compulsory for such child, and who remains on the school roll, to cause such child to attend regularly ".[28]

The compulsory school attendance age in the various Territories is given in table 10. The compulsory age range fixed by law has a bearing on both the duration of schooling and the age at which the child may leave school; an early leaving age may affect adversely the proper timing between the end of primary education and the beginning of vocational education, since the age of 14 years is generally considered as the minimum age for beginning most types of vocational training.

[26] Puerto Rico: *The School Laws of Puerto Rico*, completed and revised, October 1945, San Juan, 1946, p. 54.

[27] Federation of Malaya: *Government Gazette*, Vol. V, No. 30, 30 December 1952, p. 3177.

[28] Kenya: *Laws of Kenya*, revised edition, 1948, Vol. II, Cap. 90, p. 1061.

Employment age of minors

Legislation on the employment of children and juveniles, when strictly enforced, to a certain extent facilitates school attendance in countries where there is no compulsory school attendance and helps to strengthen the enforcement of school attendance wherever regulations exist. Conversely, the application of child labour laws is more strictly enforced if control is supplemented under school attendance laws, provided that the age for leaving school is not lower than the minimum age for admission to employment. Practically all the Territories covered in this study have some legislation in regard to employment of children and young persons. In practically all cases the provisions for a general minimum age allow, explicitly or implicitly, for regulations permitting light work of an agricultural or domestic character to be performed for the parents or guardians of the children concerned. In almost all the Territories under consideration, where compulsory school regulations are in operation, the end of the compulsory period coincides with the legal minimum age for general employment.

Enforcement of compulsory regulations

A high percentage of school attendance in relation to enrolment is reported in Greenland, Hawaii and the Virgin Islands of the United States and in most districts of British Honduras. In Greenland, not only does the enrolment reach nearly 100 per cent but a large number of the children complete the seven-year course of primary education. For Hawaii it is reported that in 1950 absenteeism was 5.38 per cent in rural Oahu public schools, and 4.57 per cent for all territorial schools. This figure, which covers all children absent

TABLE 10

Compulsory age and minimum age of employment

Territory	*Approved age range for primary education*	*Compulsory age*	*Legal minimum age for general employment*
French West Africa ...	6–14		14
Kenya	Europeans, Asians: 6–12	Europeans, Asians: 7–15	15 [a] (industrial undertakings)
Northern Rhodesia	Europeans: 5–12	Europeans: 7–15	12 [a b] (industrial undertakings)
Federation of Malaya ..	Africans: 7–14 (primary and middle)	Africans: 6–12	
Fiji	6–12	6–12	12
Hawaii	6–14	6–14	15 (industry)
British Guiana	6–12	6–16	16 [c]
British Honduras	6–14	6–14	14
Jamaica	5–13 plus (including upper division)	6–14	12
Puerto Rico	5–12 (infant and elementary only)		12
Virgin Islands	6–12	8–14	16 [d]
Greenland	6–12	6–15 (excl.)	15
	7–14	7–14	14

[a] Prohibition of employment of minor under a certain age concerns only industrial undertakings.

[b] Employment of young persons under 16, however, is permitted only under certain conditions.

[c] Minors between 12 and 16 years of age may work when not legally required to attend school but not in any occupation prohibited by law.

[d] Minors between 14 and 16 may be employed outside class hours and during vacations, but not in a factory or any occupation prohibited by law.

for any reason such as illness and other justifiable cause, is considered as much lower than the percentage of absence in public schools of mainland communities of comparable size.[29] Among the United Kingdom Territories in the Caribbean, in British Honduras the percentages of both total enrolment and attendance are the highest.[30] Compulsory areas have been declared around all government and aided schools with the exception of one Indian school where the attendance is always approximately 100 per cent of enrolment. Enforcement is reported effective in Belize and in most districts, but in some places the police or other attendance officer may lack interest in his work. Most of the attendance officers rely more on personal influence and friendly advice than on legal action. It is further stated that as a rule "the ordinary British Honduras child living within reach of a school enrols as a matter of course and attends regularly, like the child in the United Kingdom, because it is the accepted thing to do".[31] In the United States Virgin Islands, although in 1950 the lack of adequate facilities was a limiting factor, in 1951 about 97 per cent of the children of school age were enrolled in primary schools; the average percentage of attendance in public schools was 92.80 in St. Thomas and St. John.[32]

Some difficulties have been reported from other Caribbean Territories having compulsory attendance regulations. In British Guiana, "nominally in force after the Education Ordinance was enacted in 1876, compulsion has not been fully effective until recent years and even now [1950] it is not successful in securing a higher average attendance than 75 per cent for the schools as a whole".[33] Irregular attendance and early leaving are among the main problems. Many more attendance officers would be needed to enforce the legal minimum attendance, but insufficient accommodation is a problem of such importance that the report of the director of education states that "more effective compulsion would create an impossible situation in the many schools which are already overcrowded".[34] In Jamaica, except in towns, school attendance is not compulsory and, for various reasons, including economic conditions and lack of accommodation, is not strictly enforced anywhere.[35] In regard to Trinidad, it is reported that in the absence of adequate accommodation, equipment and teaching staff, the measure extending to the whole Colony "proved largely ineffective, and efforts are chiefly directed to ensuring the regular attendance of pupils already enrolled".[36] Finally, in Puerto Rico in 1951 the compulsory law could not be fully enforced because facilities were insufficient.

In the African Territories, compulsory education, as has been noted, is limited to non-Africans or to restricted localities in Kenya and Northern Rhodesia. In these circumstances, the problem is rather that enforcement may be impracticable owing to more demand than facilities. In Kenya, it was reported as early as 1947 that nearly 100 per cent of the European children of school age were at school and the information transmitted has not mentioned any special problem of attendance. As regards the Indians, a report dated 1948 on *An Inquiry into Indian Education in East Africa* stated, in reference to the introduction of compulsory education for boys in Mombasa, Nairobi and Kisumu, that "due to the lack of accommodation in the existing schools practically no compulsion has been enforced ... there is terrible overcrowding even in the government schools necessitating the practice of allowing children of certain age limits to attend only for two and one-half hours a day. The keenness of the Indian parents to send their children to school is so great that actually no compulsion was needed... Perhaps in a few cases only some poor parents have not found it possible to send their children to school".[37] The figures contained in the information transmitted for 1950 indicate that nearly 100 per cent of the Asian children of school age were enrolled. The Education Department's *Annual Report for 1950* mentioned that "shortage of teachers and accommodations, continues to be acute".[38] In Northern Rhodesia, as will be recalled, compulsory education for Africans in the 12 to 16 years age-group was made applicable to children living within three miles of any school enumerated in a schedule attached to the regulations. The number of schools so scheduled was thirty-three, but in 1951, owing to shortage of accommodation, fifteen of these schools were removed from the schedule,[39] leaving only eighteen schools in areas where education is compulsory for Africans.

Provision of free primary education

Tuition

Where school attendance is compulsory, it is usually the case that facilities are made available free of cost to the individual family, at least in respect of tuition fees. Thus, in Greenland, Hawaii, Puerto Rico and the United States Virgin Islands free tuition is provided

[29] Hawaii: Department of Public Instruction, *Annual Report*, 1951, pp. 31-34.

[30] British Honduras: *Colonial Report, 1951*, London, H.M.S.O., 1952, p. 34.

[31] British Honduras: *Annual Report of the Education Department for the year 1951*, Belize, 1952, p. 2, para. 11.

[32] United States Virgin Islands: "Annual Report of the Department of Education (St. Thomas and St. John) for the year 1950-51", Charlotte-Amalie, 1952, p. 44.

[33] British Guiana: *Report of the Director of Education for the year 1950*, pp. 9-10.

[34] *Ibid.*, p. 10.

[35] United Nations: *Non-Self-Governing Territories, Summaries and Analyses of Information transmitted to the Secretary-General during 1951*, New York, 1952 (Sales No. 1952.VI.B.1. Vol. II), p. 310.

[36] Trinidad and Tobago: Education Department, *Report for 1950*, Trinidad, (n.d.), p. 6, para. 18.

[37] Kenya: *An Inquiry into Indian Education in East Africa*, by Ali Akbar Kazimi, Nairobi, 1948, p. 31.

[38] Kenya: Education Department, *Annual Report for 1950*, Nairobi, 1951, p. 20.

[39] Northern Rhodesia: *Supplement to the Northern Rhodesia Government Gazette*, 20 July 1951, Government Notice No. 174 of 1951, p. 201.

in public schools. The same is true of primary education in the United Kingdom Territories in the Caribbean. A theoretical exception is provided by British Honduras; fees of 5 cents are chargeable but not enforced in the majority of cases.[40] In the preparatory departments of secondary schools in Barbados fees are charged.[41]

Where school attendance is not compulsory, the charging of fees to the parents of those children who benefit is sometimes claimed as justified. However, in many of the Non-Self-Governing Territories, primary schooling is free of tuition costs even though compulsory attendance has not yet been finally established or is still far distant.

Among the African Territories under consideration, primary education, as concerns the payment of tuition fees, is free in French Equatorial Africa, French West Africa, Morocco and Tunisia in all public schools. In the Gold Coast primary education has been free in all government and government-aided schools since January 1952. In the Belgian Congo primary education is free for African children, and in Northern Rhodesia for both Europeans and Africans. In the other African Territories where education is not free, there are provisions for remission of fees up to total remission in cases of financial hardship.

In the Federation of Malaya, the Education Ordinance adopted in 1952 makes provision for a six years' course of free primary education. Up to now only the Malay and Indian vernacular schools have been free; Chinese vernacular schools and English schools have charged fees. However, liberal systems of remission existed. Malay pupils admitted to English schools by selection from Malay vernacular schools are treated as free scholars.[42] In 1950, primary education in seventeen Chinese schools, including the two government schools, was free.[43] In Singapore a free primary education scheme, which applies to all registered schools except those for European children, reached its third year of operation in 1951. Pupils born in Malaya and of correct ages for their standards receive a remission of fees in government schools, and in other schools are given a subsidy equal to the fee charged in government schools.[44] Under this scheme the total number of children in receipt of free education in Chinese primary schools in 1951 represented 20.4 per cent of the total enrolment of those schools, and the percentage of the total enrolment in the English schools receiving the same benefit was 39.7.[45] No fees have been charged in the Malay government schools under government management. In addition, there is in all government and aided schools, a " free place " system under whic fees are remitted in a number of cases.[46]

Where tuition fees are charged, their rates vary fro Territory to Territory, and within any Territory the different schools or sometimes according to t economic circumstances of the parents. In a numb of cases, as is indicated by table 11, tuition fees f indigenous pupils are apparently low. They ma nevertheless prove to be an obstacle in the developme of universal education or encourage parents to vie school education mainly as a means for more remun rative employment of their children. Thus it is report in the case of Nigeria that although it is not possib to know what proportion of the children not at scho fail to attend through the inability of the parents pay, there are undoubtedly cases of children failin to complete their primary schooling because the sour of school fees has dried up. It is also reported fro Nyasaland that the payment of fees presents a re difficulty in regard to girls' education, and from he and from Kenya the point is made that the fees pa for education are regarded by the parents as an inves ment from which they expect an economic return.

Boarding and travelling costs

The above information concerns payment of tuiti fees in day schools only. Provisions for free boardi and transportation are mentioned in the informati transmitted on some Territories. For the Belgi Congo the information transmitted in 1948 mention that African pupils admitted as boarders are fed a clothed without cost to them or their parents. system of scholarship for covering part of boardi and travel cost has been established on behalf European children residing in places where there a no adequate school facilities. In French Equatori Africa provisions exist for free boarding, includi clothing, for orphan African children from Moye Congo, for eldest children of large families and for oth non-orphan African children residing far from an urb or regional school. In Morocco budgetary allocatio for scholarships for both primary and secondar education totalled, for the fiscal year 1950, 88 milli francs of which 45 millions were for Moroccan Moslem In Northern Rhodesia, educational assistance is pr vided to European children in the form of grants f primary or secondary education in Southern Rhodesi Union of South Africa, the United Kingdom, or privat schools within Northern Rhodesia. The grants cov tuition fees as well as boarding fees and railway fa up to a certain sum.[47] In Nyasaland " educatio assistance allowances are paid in respect of Europe children over the age of ten years leaving the Territo for education of a standard which is not provided i Nyasaland. Europeans, Asians, Euro-Africans an Indo-Africans are also eligible for the award of bursari

[40] British Honduras: Education Department, *Annual Report, 1951*, p. 3.

[41] Barbados: *Report of the Department of Education for the year ended on the 31st August 1951*, Bridgetown, 1951, p. 9.

[42] Federation of Malaya: *Annual Report on Education for 1949*, p. 32.

[43] Federation of Malaya: *Colonial Annual Report, 1950*, London, H.M.S.O., 1951, pp. 106-107.

[44] Singapore: *Colonial Annual Report, 1951*, Singapore, 1952, p. 67.

[45] Singapore: Department of Education, *Annual Report, 1951*, Singapore, 1952, pp. 65 and 69.

[46] *Ibid.*, p. 41.

[47] Northern Rhodesia: Department of European Educati *Annual Report, 1951*, p. 7.

TABLE 11

Rates of fees

Territory	Year	Government	No specifications as to type of school	Voluntary agencies (aided or non-aided)
ICA				
igeria	1951	10 sh. to 20 sh. per year		£1.5.0 per year
erra Leone	1950		1 sh. per month (infant class) 2 sh. 6 d. per month (Standards V–VI)	
ganda:				
Africans	1951		All schools: 6-36 sh. per year	
Europeans	1951	63 sh. per term (in Kampala)		84 sh. per term in aided kindergarten and junior schools
enya:				
Africans	1951		1 sh. upward per year (according to economic circumstances of the neighbourhood)	
Arabs	1951	6 to 12 sh. per term (according to Standard)		
Asians	1951	12 sh. per term (Standards I and II); 24–36 sh. per term (above Standard II) for boys (according to Standard); 15–27 sh. per term for girls (according to Standard)		
Europeans	1951	60 sh. per term (Standards I–V); 150 sh. per term above Standard V		
Nyasaland:				
Africans	1951		3 sh. per year (lower classes or standards); 24 sh. per year (higher classes)	
Indians	1951			7 to 10 sh. per month
Europeans	1951		£3.3.0 per term	
IFIC-ASIA				
Federation of Malaya:				
Chinese schools....	1930		1.50–7 M$ per month	
English schools....	1951	Government and government-aided schools: 30 M$ (£3.10.0) per year		
Fiji	1951	10 sh. per term		Vary but often higher than 10 sh. per term
Singapore:				
English schools....	1951	Government and government-aided schools: 30 M$ per year		
MERICAN				
British Honduras ...	1951		All schools: 5c (8d.) per week	

recommended by the Scholarships and Bursaries Committee ".[48]

In Uganda, whence many European children go to Kenya to attend government or private schools, the government organizes and pays the cost of their transport between home and school, provides financial relief in necessitous cases and subsidizes the government of Kenya to the extent to which the cost to that government of educating Uganda children exceeds the fees payable by Uganda parents.[49]

In the Federation of Malaya, the new education ordinance makes provision for board, lodging, and transportation facilities for children and youths in appropriate cases. It provides also for the financial assistance, by means of scholarships and otherwise, of deserving pupils or groups of pupils.[50]

In Puerto Rico, the law provides for scholarships from municipal budgets, " to brilliant pupils of rural schools who have finished the course prescribed as the official course of study of the said schools, and who, for lack of resources, are unable to continue studies in the graded schools of any town, until they finish the elementary course ".[51]

Free supplies

Whether provided directly or covered by a system of grants, text-books and other supplies are usually furnished free of charge in government and government-aided primary schools of a number of territories, e.g., French Equatorial Africa, French West Africa, Greenland, Puerto Rico, the United Kingdom Caribbean Territories, Malay vernacular schools in the Federation of Malaya and in Singapore, and European schools in Northern Rhodesia. While the inadequacy of existing supplies, particularly in view of rising costs, is commented upon in several instances, it appears that the extension of free or subsidized supplies is an inevitable tendency as schooling becomes general.

In the Belgian Congo, religious missions providing African education receive subsidies for books and school supplies to the amount of 100 francs per pupil in the upper primary schools and of 80 francs in the lower primary schools, on the basis of average attendance.[52] As regards French West Africa, the information transmitted for 1951 states that grants to private schools cover expenses for personnel, equipment and school supplies. The budget of the Côte-d'Ivoire for 1947 contained an item of 2,000,000 francs for school materials (school supplies and text-books) for 80,000 pupils in primary schools.[53] On the other hand, in the United Kingdom Territories in Africa, pupils are normally expected to provide their own text-books and much of their own stationery.

In Fiji, pupils provide their own books and materials. In Hawaii, the law provides that, in case of needy pupils registered in grades 1 to 9 inclusive, text-books may be furnished free, but on loan, by the Department of Public Instruction. The law authorizes the Department to inaugurate a system of rentals in all of the public schools.[54]

In the United Kingdom Caribbean Territories essential text-books and supplies are provided free of charge in the primary schools, largely through grants from the Colonial Development and Welfare Fund. In British Guiana, the opinion was expressed in 1950 that the grants for school supplies, fixed in 1940, should be increased.[55] For Jamaica, it is reported that the demand from the schools is increasingly insistent and far in excess of the supply. " Teachers report that the supplies distributed do not measure up to the need because increasing economic pressure on parents makes it impossible for them to meet the considerably increased cost of all items of school books and stationery... It is apparent that the Scheme, the intention of which is the supplementing of parents' efforts and the relief of very necessitous cases, has come to be regarded largely as the operation of a government obligation to fill a general need.[56] "

School meals

A brief summary of school feeding schemes was placed before the Committee on Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories in 1952, in connexion with its consideration of social policy in Non-Self-Governing Territories.[57] The information transmitted indicates that in certain Territories under French administration school feeding programmes have been established on a broad basis and that the development is still wider in Territories under United States administration. In Tunisia 29,000,000 francs were allocated in 1950-1951 for school lunches and a total of 1,826,598 meals were distributed. In Morocco the budgetary allocation for 1951 was 100,000,000 francs, and a total of 43,700 pupils enrolled in Moslem and Jewish schools—all necessitous cases—received free meals during the year 1950–1951. In Puerto Rico, since the enactment of Act 328 of 1946, the Department of Education has assumed control of the school lunch programme in the island,[58] and since 1950, of the operation of milk stations for children from 2 to 10 years of age who are not participating in any other feeding programme. During

[48] Nyasaland: *Annual Report of the Department of Education, 1951*, p. 11.

[49] Uganda: *Annual Report of the Education Department for 1950*, Entebbe, 1952, p. 15.

[50] Federation of Malaya: *Government Gazette*, Vol. V., No. 30, 31 December 1952, pp. 3183-3186.

[51] Puerto Rico: *The School Laws of Puerto Rico*, p. 105.

[52] Belgian Congo: *Service de l'enseignement : Organisation de l'enseignement libre subsidié pour indigènes avec le concours des sociétés de missions chrétiennes*, Dispositions générales, 1948, p. 53.

[53] France: Gouvernement général de l'A.O.F., Côte-d'Ivoire, *Budget du Service local*, exercice 1947, Abidjan, 1947, p. 31.

[54] Hawaii: *General Laws*, Revised Laws, p. 279.

[55] British Guiana: *Report of the Director of Education for the year 1950*, p. 11, para. 11.

[56] Jamaica: *Report of the Education Department for 1950*, Kingston, 1952, p. 10.

[57] United Nations: *Non-Self-Governing Territories. Special Study on Social Conditions*, New York, 1953 (Sales No. 1953.VI.B.3), pp. 125-128.

[58] Puerto Rico: *Annual Report of the Commissioner of Education for the year 1949-50*, San Juan, 1951, p. 68.

the year 1950–1951, a total of 197,368 pupils (approximately 58 per cent of the school population) attended the lunchrooms daily.[59] The programme is financed by the Federal and Territorial governments. In the United States Virgin Islands, with Federal aid in cash grants and foodstuffs provided without charge by the United States Department of Agriculture, about 4,363 children, over 76 per cent of the primary school population, participated daily during the year 1951–1952 in the school lunch programme.[60] In Hawaii, during 1951 hot lunches were served daily in 150 cafeterias to 67 per cent of the total school population.[61]

In the United Kingdom Territories of the Caribbean, school refreshments are provided in a number of cases.

In Barbados, a nutrition scheme, started in November 1937, provides two food yeast biscuits and three-eighths of a pint of milk for each child attending the 124 public elementary schools and for all children under the age of 5 years who accompany older brothers and sisters to school.[62]

In British Guiana, undernourished children attending schools in certain localities are provided with a free mid-day meal at "Breakfast Centres"; in some cases a charge of 2 cents is made, which does not cover the cost—6 to 10 cents according to locality.[63]

In British Honduras, a school feeding programme for needy children operated by the Medical Department was expanded in 1950 with the assistance of UNICEF to serve about 4,000 children.[64]

In Jamaica, the government included in its annual budget for 1950 a sum of £35,000 to subsidize the cost of feeding school children throughout the island. The school lunch is generally limited to a one-course meal which costs approximately 3½ pence, to which the children are asked to contribute 1½ pence, in cash or kind. Lunches are distributed free in necessitous cases.[65]

In Trinidad, under a scheme administered by the Department of Education, fresh or powdered milk and food yeast are provided to school children. Approximately 10 per cent of the pupils in average attendance receive free milk and 5 per cent of the pupils in urban areas and certain other localities receive meals.[66]

In the Pacific–Asia region, the new education ordinance adopted in the Federation of Malaya in November 1952 provides that such arrangements as are reasonably practicable be made to furnish, in necessitous cases, meals and other refreshments to pupils in attendance at government and conforming schools.[67] A special feeding scheme for undernourished school children is operated by the Medical Department.[68] The information on Singapore states that the Department of Education does not supply any free meals to schools although a considerable number of school children receive free meals at the Children's Feeding Centres organized by the Social Welfare Department.[69]

In the African Territories under United Kingdom administration, the provision of free meals for day pupils by public authority is on a limited scale. In the Gold Coast, school feeding schemes have been introduced in the town of Sekondi and in other centres, and in the Northern Territories some Native Authorities provide meals free of charge.[70] In Kenya, school canteens are provided in the larger towns and free milk is supplied in special cases by some municipalities.[71] In Uganda, mid-day meals are provided in a few schools.[72] In Northern Rhodesia, in the European schools "half a pint of milk is supplied daily, when available, to each child, free".[73] An experimental meal service for African school children has been opened at one Copperbelt Centre; in the Western Province, a number of Native Authorities have made special provision in their estimates for free meals for children attending schools, and at Luanshya the Town Management Board provides mid-day meals for school children.[74]

Concluding note

All countries are vitally concerned with the improvement of the education of their citizens. Where not all children receive a basic education, permitting the exercise by them of their future public responsibilities, the establishment of universal primary schooling is normally one of the major objectives of national policy. In the Territories considered in this study, the achievement of universal primary education must similarly, for reasons of a social, economic and political nature, be one of the principal essentials of public policy.

In some cases, compulsory school attendance for the purposes of universal primary education has already been established in law and practice. In others,

[59] Puerto Rico: *Annual Report of the Commissioner of Education for the year 1950–51*, San Juan, 1951, pp. 81, 82.

[60] United States Virgin Islands: *Annual Report of the Governor of the Virgin Islands for the year ended 30 June 1952*, p. 17.

[61] Hawaii: Department of Public Instruction, *Annual Report*, 1951, p. 22.

[62] Barbados: *Report of the Department of Education for the year ended on the 31st August 1951*, p. 1.

[63] British Guiana: *Report of the Director of Education for the year 1950*, p. 12.

[64] United Nations: *Non-Self-Governing Territories. Special Study on Social Conditions*, pp. 125–128.

[65] Jamaica: *Report of the Education Department for 1950*, pp. 16 and 17.

[66] Trinidad and Tobago: Education Department, *Report for 1950*, p. 12.

[67] Federation of Malaya: *Government Gazette*, Vol. V, No. 30, 31 December 1952, p. 3183.

[68] Federation of Malaya: *Annual Report on the Federation of Malaya*, 1950, p. 117.

[69] Singapore: Department of Education, *Annual Report, 1951*, p. 45.

[70] United Nations: *Non-Self-Governing Territories. Special Study on Social Conditions*, p. 126.

[71] Kenya: *Annual Report of the Welfare Organisation, Kenya Colony 1949*, Nairobi, 1950, p. 4.

[72] Uganda: *Annual Report of the Education Department, 1949*, Kampala, 1951, p. 23.

[73] Northern Rhodesia: Department of European Education, *Annual Report for 1951*, p. 8.

[74] United Nations: *Non-Self-Governing Territories. Special Study on Social Conditions*, p. 126.

school attendance laws have been adopted, but existing difficulties prevent their full implementation. In yet other cases, target dates have been fixed with a view to the achievement of general primary education or of the attainment of definite stages in the advance towards that aim. For instance, the 1948 Ten-Year Plan for the Development of African Education in Kenya "recommended a scheme for the development of the system over a ten-year period to aim at producing a six-year primary course for *half* the child population".[75] Again, in the Gold Coast the principal objective of the Accelerated Development Plan for Education (1951) is declared to be to provide as soon as possible sound facilities for a six-year basic course of primary education for every child of school-going age, and it is believed that by the end of the decade the achievement of this objective will be within reach.

As has been seen, the problem of compulsory education in some of the Territories under consideration has been approached in five different manners: universal compulsory education, subject to the existence of schools within reasonable limits; compulsory education applied by zone (where there are facilities for primary education); the application of compulsory regulations to particular groups among the child population; compulsory education regulations applicable only where the schools are not filled to capacity; local regulations making school attendance compulsory for those voluntarily enrolled.

As indicated in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and as repeatedly stated in declarations of national policy, free and compulsory primary education is the objective sought and should be regarded as the basis for practical action. The information transmitted shows that, except in a few cases, enforcement of broad compulsory regulations is not very effective, attendance is often relatively low or wastage is widespread.

As concerns the Territories without compulsory legislation, a frequent argument is that adequate school facilities and staff should be established before compulsory measures are adopted. Yet, even where the population shows eagerness for education and school enrolment is relatively high, it has been found that, where school attendance is voluntary, efforts to ensure regular attendance and reduce wastage face a very difficult task. In the light of this consideration, it is both logical and practical to begin as early as possible and proceed by steps until universal compulsory education, with a reasonable compulsory period, can be adopted and enforced. Such steps would be: compulsory regular attendance for those already enrolled; minimum and maximum ages for admission to various grades; compulsory enrolment and attendance in regions where there are enough school facilities and staff; and universal compulsory education.

In the achievement of these aims, a number of problems arise, the solution of which requires the application of educational experience of a general character subject to such modifications as local conditions demand. One example is the determination of the minimum duration of the primary school course necessary for any worthwhile form of education. Given the problem of financial resources and the fact that in many areas only a proportion of the children can find room in the schools, it is important to ascertain the minimum length of schooling necessary for a national basis of education; yet, if the length is fixed at too low a period of years for the majority of children and, therefore, for the public authorities, the final result will be almost total waste.

Such a problem, however, and other problems of a pedagogical character—the most appropriate age for school entry (maximum as well as minimum age), teacher-training problems, the maximum number of pupils per teacher, etc.—will probably not arrest the attention of the Committee on Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories, which in 1950 laid down that it is in no sense a replica of UNESCO and that it is neither by its composition nor by its terms of reference qualified to enter into details of a technical nature. At the same time, the Committee may wish to bear in mind national experience and international discussions on such matters as contributing to the practical achievement of the purposes set forth in Article 73 of the Charter.

In this consideration it seems that in many cases further information is desirable on the structure of the population and on the economic and social factors affecting education. Initially it may be necessary to take further steps to collect the data by which a Territory may plan the development of its school facilities on the basis of the existing number of children of each year of age and on that of the demographic movement of the population. The establishment of target dates for the achievement of school facilities for given and rising percentages for each age-group may, as a result, be calculated with regard to all relevant financial, economic and social circumstances.

In this connexion, an interchange of experience would be of value on the broad economic and social consequences of the expansion of education. Where only a small proportion of the population has any basic school education, room can be found in the expanding needs of an evolving society to provide satisfaction for all those completing their education. On the other hand, where primary education is made universal and literacy becomes generalized, the ability to read and write no longer distinguishes an individual and ceases to give a claim to special privilege or special type of occupation. In the intermediary stages, difficulties may arise leading to the abandonment of village life by the young men, a division between education and manual labour, social frustration and a degree of economic waste.

A problem closely connected with the above is the manner in which educational policy should be linked to employment possibilities. This point is raised in the chapter on vocational training.[76] Examining this question in the broader light of the relationship

[75] Kenya: *African Education in Kenya: Report of a Committee appointed to inquire into the Scope, Content and Methods of African Education*, Nairobi, 1949, p. 11.

[76] See chapter IX of this volume, "Vocational Training".

between education and economic development, the apparent dilemma between the need for education as a basis for economic development and the lack of resources to promote education is lessened where the form of education, including primary education, is adapted to the economic and social needs of the communities concerned. Today, with the new type of education as illustrated by the concept of fundamental education and applied in various forms and under different names in some countries including Non-Self-Governing Territories, education has become a dynamic factor that not only prepares children to be useful in the future, but contributes immediately to improving existing methods of cultivation, of soil conservation, of marketing, etc. Consequently, at the level at which fundamental education and methods may be applied, at least part of the activities of the school can be designed to contribute directly to the improvement of both social and economic conditions of the community, and to produce results which, in a relatively short time, can be measured in economic terms.

In this connexion, the recommendations adopted by the XIVth International Conference on Public Education, which met in July 1951 on the invitation of UNESCO and the International Bureau of Education, should be noted. The letter convening this conference stressed its main task in the following terms:

"This Conference is of particular importance as the major topic of its deliberations will be that of the extension of compulsory education and the raising of the school-leaving age. UNESCO is especially interested in making the right to education, laid down in article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, more generally enforceable.

"As a means of furthering this end, UNESCO is launching a long-term programme in favour of compulsory education, through which attention will be focused on the subject. The main problems involved will be studied, the experience of more advanced countries will be brought to bear on the solution of these problems and some form of concrete national and international action may perhaps be evolved."[77]

The concluding recommendation on compulsory education and its prolongation adopted by the Conference reads as follows:

"The Conference:

"Submits to the United Nations Organisation and its Specialised Agencies and to the Inter-governmental Organisations the following recommendation:

"That the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation, in consultation with Member States concerned and appropriate United Nations Agencies and International Organisations, consider the possibility of formulating a programme for assistance to Member States who apply for such assistance, in introducing free and compulsory education according to national requirements, and in accordance with the Covenant of the United Nations; such a programme to co-ordinate all sources of assistance now available, explore the possibility of loans, and raise funds from voluntary contributions;

"That, in drawing up plans for technical assistance, priority be given those concerning the full enforcement of compulsory education;

"That such assistance be not only of a financial kind, but also include the efficient co-operation of the international bodies in the drawing up and execution of the plans for the full enforcement of compulsory education;

"That the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development consider the possibility of making long-term loans to countries requesting them, for the purpose of implementing the compulsory education enforcement plans, until the programme of economic development of these countries has advanced sufficiently to enable them to meet the necessary expenditure on compulsory education themselves;

"That the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation assist by the organisation of regional conferences on the adaptation of the principles put forward by the XIVth International Conference on Public Education to the particular conditions of each world region;

"That missions of experts be sent to countries so requesting, to make direct study of their special problems in connexion with the full enforcement of compulsory education, and that international scholarships be available for the experts of these countries, to enable them to study the problems of compulsory education in countries where it is already fully enforced;

"That the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation continue enquiries and research on compulsory education and its prolongation, and on school guidance and co-ordination of schools at secondary level, and that the results be published and brought to the knowledge of education authorities and educationists generally;

"That, through bilateral or multilateral agreements, and with a view to the full enforcement and the prolongation of compulsory education, exchanges of information, meetings of specialists, and possibly mutual assistance, be arranged."[78]

[77] United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization: XIVth International Conference on Public Education convened by UNESCO and the International Bureau of Education: Proceedings and Recommendations, Paris and Geneva, p. 5.

[78] United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization: *Ibid.*, pp. 136-137.

CHAPTER IV

ACTIVITIES OF THE UNITED NATIONS EDUCATIONAL, SCIENTIFIC AND CULTURAL ORGANIZATION IN THE FIELD OF FREE AND COMPULSORY EDUCATION

Introduction

The preceding chapter described the situation in a number of Non-Self-Governing Territories with regard to free and compulsory education. The present chapter will deal with the activities of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) in the field of free and compulsory education and with the main issues and problems involved in a programme of universal application of compulsory education, whether in sovereign States or in the Non-Self-Governing Territories. It will also indicate briefly what UNESCO might be able to do if called upon to assist in the development of free and compulsory education in Non-Self-Governing Territories.

The movement in favour of free and compulsory education

International conferences on public education

More than half of the world's population is still illiterate. In a large part of the world, more than half of the children are deprived of educational facilities and are growing up to be adult illiterates. UNESCO has attacked this problem on a double front.

For adult illiterates and for children who have missed school, it has sponsored a programme of fundamental education which attempts to provide a minimum of general and practical education designed to eliminate illiteracy and to raise the standard of living. This movement has met with positive response in sovereign States and in the Non-Self-Governing Territories.

It must be admitted, however, that fundamental education is a remedial measure which does not provide an ultimate solution to the problem of education for all. So long as there are millions of children for whom no schooling is provided, the problem of adult illiteracy will exist. The ultimate solution, therefore, lies in long-term planning for the purpose of putting every child of school age in school. It is this realization that has made UNESCO embark on world-wide promotion of the progressive application of free and compulsory education. The two programmes of fundamental education and of compulsory education thus complement and reinforce each other.

UNESCO inaugurated its programme in favour of free and compulsory education, in collaboration with the International Bureau of Education, at the XIVth International Conference on Public Education held at Geneva in July 1951. This conference attended by 93 delegates from 49 countries, adopted a recommendation (No. 32) on "Compulsory Education and its Prolongation", embodying the main principles upon which the extension of free and compulsory schooling can be undertaken. It stressed the importance of planning compulsory education schemes not only by educational authorities, but also in collaboration with other authorities of the State. It emphasizes the economic, social, geographical, political and linguistic factors that should be taken into account in such planning. In addition, it deals with the problem of financing compulsory education schemes and lays stress on co-operation between local and central authorities in financial matters. It recommends that the duration of compulsory education should be such as to enable the child to play his full part in the life of the community. It considers some of the conditions under which certain children can be exempted from schooling and recommends special provisions for handicapped children. It advocates that authorities should as far as possible provide aids that will facilitate the enforcement of compulsory education, such as free facilities for transport, meals, clothing, books and medical care. Other recommendations deal with staffing problems, school buildings, the prolongation of compulsory education and assistance from international organizations.

Among the comments received from Member States on recommendation 32, Australia, Belgium and the United Kingdom provided information with regard to compulsory education in the Non-Self-Governing Territories under their jurisdiction.

Australia reports that the education of both native and white children in Papua and New Guinea, where both private and public schools exist, is under the control of the Commonwealth Government. Attendance is not compulsory, but the Legislative Council recently passed an ordinance providing for the gradual introduction of compulsory education. In implementing this provision, the Administration will take into account the stage of advancement reached by the various villages.

Belgium drew attention to the many material difficulties involved in the application of compulsory education in the Belgian Congo, stating *inter alia :*

"It is not possible to foresee when primary education can be made compulsory. This remark applies equally to the bigger centres whose rapid and continuous growth presents a problem difficult to solve with regard to school buildings in spite of the magnitude of the achievements already made by all available means.

"It does not therefore seem opportune in the Belgian Congo to change a situation which is satisfactory. To act otherwise would mean discrimination between European and native children, because of the difficulties encountered in extending educational opportunities to the latter."

The United Kingdom reported that, as regards the colonial territories, the policy of the Secretary of State for the Colonies is in keeping with recommendation 32, especially as regards the recommendations that plans for extending compulsory education should be co-ordinated with plans for social and economic development and the financial resources available; that curricula and techniques should be adapted to children; that plans for adult education should accompany plans for the schooling of children; and that the supply of teachers should be adequate. All colonial governments would agree that attainment of universal compulsory education is one of the aims of their policy.

Colonial territories vary in the degree of their social and economic development; so the provision for compulsory education also varies. Some of the smaller territories have legislation to this effect. Certain others are carrying out plans made in accordance with the spirit of the recommendation. The Gold Coast, for example, provides for a six-year course for all children, though in certain parts this will not be reached very soon. Singapore plans to have a six-year course of universal primary education by 1956, and Northern Rhodesia hopes to put all children in school for a four-year course within the not very distant future. Factors which make for non-enforcement of compulsory education in some sovereign States occur also in British colonial territories. While universal compulsory education is one of the essential aims of educational policy, it is not the only one. The overriding aim of British educational policy is to prepare colonies for self-government. In order to be self-governing, the people must have their own administrators, technicians, etc. Therefore, secondary, university and higher technical training must be developed in proportion to primary education, and some of the available resources must be devoted to these other branches of education.

The text of recommendation 32 was well publicized in the United Kingdom, and the Colonial Office proposes to circulate it to the colonial territories.

At subsequent sessions of the International Conference on Public Education it is proposed to push further the study, on the international plane, of problems of compulsory education. In 1952, the main topic for that conference was the access of women to education, which presents some special problems. In 1953 the questions of the training of primary school teachers and the conditions of their employment were taken up. In the coming year the question of the training and status of secondary school teachers will be considered, a subject of importance to those countries where the compulsory school age covers part or the whole of the secondary education stage. In future years the administrative organization of education, expenditure on education and school buildings, and other questions related to compulsory education may be taken up.

Regional conferences

Having dealt with the problem of free and compulsory education in a general way at the XIVth International Conference on Public Education in 1951, UNESCO then took steps to discuss it in greater detail on a regional level. A ten-year programme was laid down for holding, at two-year intervals, regional conferences in South Asia and the Pacific, the Middle East, Latin America, Africa and the Far East.

The regional conference on free and compulsory education in South Asia and the Pacific was held at Bombay in December 1952. Eleven of the fourteen sovereign States of the region attended; these were : Afghanistan, Australia, Ceylon, India, Indonesia, Laos, New Zealand, Pakistan, Philippines, Thailand and Nepal. In addition, four Administering Powers of Non-Self-Governing Territories in the region, France, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom and the United States of America, sent delegates, and six States from outside the region sent observers. Other observers came from international non-governmental organizations. UNESCO invited four experts to guide the discussions. The conference divided itself into three commissions : one on administrative, financial and legal questions; another on teacher training, and the third on the curriculum of compulsory schools. After a week of study and discussion, the commissions presented some ninety recommendations to the plenary, where they were unanimously adopted after some modification.

Recommendations of the Bombay Conference

1. *Planning.* Basing itself on article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and noting that approximately 55 million children of primary school age in the region were still deprived of any educational facilities, the Conference recommended a series of practical measures to remedy the situation. It insisted on the necessity of laying down plans, both long-term and short-term, for the expansion of primary education. Planning was necessary, particularly to ensure that this expansion should provide for the increasing population of the region, in which the birth rate is very high. Plans should be drawn up in full co-operation between local and central authorities.

The Conference recommended immediate application of compulsory education in areas where facilities are adequate. Where facilities are unsatisfactory, the authorities might feel the necessity to reduce, temporarily, the number of years for schooling. In very retarded districts pilot projects in compulsory education might be started within limited areas in order to discover the problems involved and to try out various methods of solving them. Since compulsory education has many important social and economic aspects, plans for its application should be drawn up by the Ministry of Education in co-operation with other government departments dealing with economic and social affairs.

2. *Administration.* With regard to administration, the Conference recommended close co-operation between local and central education authorities, and more encouragement of local initiative. The collaboration of private organizations and individuals should also be enlisted for the provisions of schooling. This would help especially to arouse the interest of the local communities for education. A further advantage would be the assumption by local authorities and by private organizations of part of the cost of compulsory education, thus relieving the already strained budgets of central administrations. Measures should be taken to encourage school attendance, in particular, a full and up-to-date census of the children of school age for every locality should be made. The supervision of school attendance should be generally the responsibility of specially trained attendance officers and not that of headmasters. School meals should, whenever possible, be provided free or at low cost. Co-operation must be ensured between educational and labour authorities so that no children are prevented by a full-time occupation from attending school. School terms and school timetables should be so adjusted as to permit the part-time employment of needy children.

3. *Duration of compulsory schooling.* After considerable discussion, seven years was recommended as the minimum duration of compulsory education. Several States expressed themselves unable to bear the financial burden that the enforcement of such a measure would impose upon them. The Conference was therefore compelled to recommend that States might consider a shorter period of compulsory schooling as a provisional measure, the period to be lengthened progressively in due course. At the same time, it recommended the study of the problems of retardation of children and why so many drop out of school, so that remedies might be prescribed.

4. *Finance.* The Conference expressed the hope that States would consider expenditure on compulsory education as a first priority and that in cases of retrenchment, compulsory education would be the last item to suffer reduction in funds. All sources should be tapped, including central government allocations, local government allocations, supplementary and special education taxes, private sources, etc. In countries where plans are being made for economic development, part of the funds should be allocated for the development of compulsory education, especially for capital expenditure on school buildings and equipment.

5. *Training of teachers.* The Conference insisted that as part of the planning of compulsory education, there should be included adequate teacher training facilities. Such plans should also aim at raising the level of professional competence of teachers. Most of the countries of South Asia being rural, special attention should be paid to the training of the rural school teacher. He should be prepared to assume a position of leadership in the village community. He should be trained in social survey methods and should acquire practical skills in agriculture, handicrafts and health. Since there is a large number of one-teacher schools, the village teacher should also be trained in the technique of teaching several classes simultaneously. All means should be used to attract a good type of student teacher, particularly women, into the training colleges. For this reason, the granting of free tuition, free board and out-of-pocket expenses should be considered.

6. *Status of teachers.* The Conference made a number of explicit recommendations with regard to the status of primary school teachers, covering security of tenure, promotion and appointment by merit, salaries comparable to those received by other employees of similar qualifications, a single salary scale for both men and women teachers, special provision for married women teachers including maternity leave, special allowances and housing provisions for teachers living in remote districts.

7. *Curricula.* The Conference recommended that local authorities as well as individual schools and teachers should be allowed a sufficient amount of freedom in adapting curricula to their own needs. Curricula should develop the interests and energies of the pupils and should generally be "activity" curricula in which the participation of the pupils is encouraged to the full. On the other hand, curricula should be related to the needs of the environment and to the improvement of the standard of living and of community life. Community spirit among children should be stimulated. The work of the school among children and the work of fundamental education among adults should be related and directed towards the improvement of the community. Moral and religious values should be stressed. Instruction in the primary school should ordinarily be in the mother tongue.

8. *International assistance.* Finally, the Conference broached the subject of international assistance in the field of free and compulsory education. The Conference declared that while the development of free and compulsory education is primarily the responsibility of sovereign States and Powers administering Non-Self-Governing Territories, it is also of international concern and calls for co-operative regional and international action. The extent of the problem and the backwardness of the region of South Asia impose the recognition of this international duty of assistance. It was also stressed that free and compulsory educa-

tion is fundamental to all plans for economic development and should be given the requisite priority in any international and national planning for this development. Schemes for education and economic development must necessarily go hand in hand as they reinforce each other.

With this in view, the Conference recommended that States and Administering Powers of Non-Self-Governing Territories should, in 1953 and 1954, draw up detailed plans for the extension of compulsory education, which should be costed as closely as possible. These plans should include short-term schemes containing specific projects of high priority, the expenses of which cannot be met entirely from national budgets. Appreciation was expressed of all forms of technical assistance being offered by the United Nations and its specialized agencies, by other inter-governmental organizations and by some States, but unless some form of financial assistance in the form of grants or low-interest long-term loans is forthcoming, the Conference's hopes for the realization of free and compulsory education within a reasonable period of time would remain unfulfilled.

The Conference suggested the establishment of one or more bureaux for compulsory education to act as a clearing house for information and ideas, to encourage consultation between States and to conduct research on compulsory education. It called on Member States of the region to enter into bilateral and multilateral cultural agreements for the exchange of assistance, information, teachers, supplies and experts. UNESCO was requested to co-ordinate all such activities.

A brief report on the Bombay Conference embodying its recommendations was sent to Member States of the region, whether they attended the Conference or not, together with the following resolution adopted by the Executive Board of UNESCO at its 34th session in June 1953:

"The Executive Board,

"Having examined the Report of the Acting Director-General on the Regional Conference on Free and Compulsory Education in South Asia and the Pacific, held at Bombay, from 12 to 22 December 1952,[1]

"Bearing in mind Section 1.23 of the Programme for 1953–54,

"1. Expresses its appreciation of the co-operation given to UNESCO by the Government of India and the State of Bombay in the organization of this regional conference;

"2. Endorses the recommendation of the regional conference that countries within the region should prepare comprehensive, detailed and realistic plans of compulsory education as nearly as possible;

"Trusts that full information on such plans will be given by the Member States concerned in their forthcoming reports submitted to the Organization in pursuance of Article VIII of the Constitution;

"3. Recognizes that in view of the immense problems involved, the execution of these national plans requires efforts which those countries cannot carry through without large-scale and sustained international aid, technical and financial;

"Expresses its conviction that such aid is necessary to assure to these new States, which are among the most densely populated in the world, the basic requisites for economic and social progress;

"4. Instructs the Director-General:

"(*a*) To associate UNESCO actively with any efforts of the United Nations and the specialized agencies to supply such countries with increased technical and financial aid and by ensuring that in all schemes for providing such aid, due weight be given to the need for the development of free compulsory primary education;

"(*b*) And, in any event, to extend the full technical aid which the Organization is in a position to furnish to countries of South Asia and the Pacific region seeking to expand such education."

The report on the Regional Conference set down in some detail what Member States in the region can do in attempting to implement the recommendations of the Conference and set out types of assistance which UNESCO might be able to give in this field. Steps are now being taken to launch certain follow-up activities to the Bombay Conference by Member States and by UNESCO. Some of these activities will be mentioned later.

Studies

In preparation for the Geneva conferences, a world-wide enquiry on the present status of free and compulsory education in sovereign States was made by the International Bureau of Education. Forty-nine States responded to this enquiry, and the results appeared as a joint publication of the Bureau and UNESCO in *Compulsory Education and its Prolongation* (publication 133, Geneva, 1951).

At the same time, the Secretariat of UNESCO undertook a series of detailed national studies on compulsory education in a number of countries enumerated in chapter I.[2]

In addition, studies on compulsory education in Cambodia, Ceylon, Indonesia, Jordan, Laos, Pakistan and Viet-Nam have been prepared. Two other studies, also mentioned in chapter I, were prepared and published.

Information on the state of compulsory education, or at least of primary education in Mauritius, Dutch New Guinea and New Caledonia, were presented by the Administering Authorities at the Regional Conference in Bombay. UNESCO also published a prelimi-

[1] United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization: document 33 E/9.

[2] See chapter III of this volume.

nary statistical report on primary education in the world, containing data from 141 States and territories.[3]

Field missions and activities

UNESCO has sent and is sending out to Member States, at their request, a number of missions and experts on problems relating to the application of compulsory education and allied subjects. Some of these missions were sent on the regular, others on the Technical Assistance Programmes of UNESCO. A number of regular programme missions were later continued and developed on the Technical Assistance Programme so that the majority of the projects are now on the latter programme.

The following are some of the types of activities which UNESCO missions and experts have conducted in Member States :

Missions have made surveys of entire school systems and recommendations on possible lines of action.

Experts have assisted Member States in laying down plans for the extension of free and compulsory education. They have also assisted in carrying out those plans. Such activities include advice on administrative questions, on financing compulsory education schemes, on legislation and, in two cases, on ways of raising the school leaving age. Experts have also assisted governments in the application of recommendations of previous UNESCO missions. In one case, this involved suggestions for the reorganizing of a Ministry of Education.

Missions and experts assisted in the development of plans for the training of teachers, whether for the urban or rural areas. They have helped in reorganizing certain training colleges, in running demonstration and practice schools, and in holding seminars and workshops on teacher training.

Along with this, UNESCO experts have assisted in the development of services and laboratories of educational psychology and in the development of methods of psychological testing.

Missions have assisted in a revision of primary school curricula and in certain cases of curricula of other schools.

Experts or teams of experts have worked on the improvement of textbooks including both the techniques of writing and publishing such textbooks. They have also been instrumental in producing other printed educational materials.

Experts have assisted in the production of audio-visual aids for educational purposes, including films, filmstrips, charts, illustrations and the use of radio in education.

Experts have assisted in setting up pilot projects in rural education and in the development of community schools.

[3] United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization : *Statistics on Primary School Education*, ST/R/5, 1952.

In one Member State, experts have assisted in the development of the whole educational system of a limited area where the population is about 250,000. Here they are attempting to develop a complete programme of primary, secondary and vocational education, as well as teacher training for the area.

UNESCO also offers emergency educational assistance in collaboration with some United Nations agencies. In collaboration with the United Nations Relief and Works Agency (UNRWA), UNESCO is responsible for the technical administration of schools for Arab refugees involving, in 1952–1953, about 71,000 children. The programme also includes vocational education, fundamental education and the production of audio-visual aids for the schools. Upon the request of the United Nations Korean Reconstruction Agency, UNESCO sent a mission of five experts to survey the educational needs of Korea. This mission presented a detailed report suggesting 20 reconstruction projects which could be undertaken with the financial help of UNKRA.

Fellowships

From January 1951 until 1 September 1953, 218 study grants financed by UNESCO have been awarded in the field of education. Fifty-seven of these were fellowships granted under UNESCO's regular programme, and 161 were scholarships granted within the framework of the Technical Assistance Programme

	Regular programme fellowships	*Technical Assistance scholarships*
Compulsory education ...	5	—
Primary education	1	47
Secondary education ..		
Rural education	6	—
Youth education	1	—
Technical education	2	36
Fundamental education ..	31	64
Adult education	11	—
Special education services.	—	14

Nine of the above awards were granted to Non-Self-Governing Territories and distributed as follows :

Regular programme fellowships :

French West Africa (A.O.F.)	1	award to fundamental education
French Togoland ...	1	" " "
Gold Coast	2	" " "
Jamaica	2	"
British Togoland	2	" rural education

Technical Assistance scholarships :

Hong Kong ..... 1 award in special education services

In addition, fifty-eight study grants in education are still to be awarded. Twenty-nine of these are fellowships offered under UNESCO's regular programme to Member States, and twenty-nine are scholarships offered under the Technical Assistance Programme, of which twenty-seven are offered to Member States and two to the Gold Coast.

The following table shows the distribution of these fifty-eight grants by fields of interest:

	Regular programme fellowships	*Technical Assistance scholarships*
Compulsory education ...	3	—
Adult education	1	—
Technical education	1	4
Fundamental education ..	20	8
Educational psychology .	4	—
Special educational services	—	5
Primary education .... } Secondary education .. }	—	12

Problems, trends and policies

The introduction of the maximum degree of education that a country can afford for every child is beset with problems and difficulties, and often requires long, gradual and patient effort. Ideas have to be clarified, issues defined, policies agreed upon and financial, material and educational means found. It is the purpose of this section of the chapter to attempt a brief review of the problems, trends and policies involved in compulsory education.

Why compulsory education?

It must be acknowledged that free and compulsory education is for many countries and Territories a somewhat distant goal. It cannot therefore be dogmatically asserted that in the case of every Territory compulsory education shall be immediately instituted and enforced. Such a view is indeed unrealistic and experience has shown it to be on the whole an ineffective method of approach. There exist many examples of States which have declared education compulsory fifty, sixty or more years ago without having yet succeeded in fully applying the law precisely because they did not take adequate account of economic, social, linguistic, political and geographic factors.

This does not mean that the goal of compulsory education should be abandoned even temporarily in the more difficult cases. In many areas of the world, whether sovereign or non-self-governing, educational facilities are indeed expanding, but there is no assurance that this expansion is following a regular pace or policy. On the other hand, birth rates are high in most of the under-developed countries and Non-Self-Governing Territories. While in many of the advanced countries the age group 6 to 12 may hardly exceed 8 per cent of the population, it is sometimes double and even more in the under-developed countries and Territories. A slow rate of expansion of school facilities, therefore, risks running behind the birth rate or barely catching up with it, thus leading to a stalemate. If the ideal of education for all is to be realized, certain concepts have to be accepted and certain steps taken. Among these the following may be cited:

The acceptance of the principle of education for all and of free and compulsory education as a goal to be realized at some near or distant future;

A detailed and adequate study of the demographic, social, economic, racial, linguistic and other conditions which might hinder or assist in the development of education for all;

On the basis of this study, the development of short-term and long-term plans for the gradual extension of primary education at a pace that will keep ahead of the birth rate and will ultimately lead to education for all;

The co-ordination of plans for educational development with other plans for social and economic development.

Duration of compulsory education

Once the idea of compulsory education for all is accepted, the problem of its duration arises. This is a question that must be determined by educational as well as financial considerations. Any schooling for children must be long enough to ensure that their learning has taken firm root and that the children will not revert to illiteracy after leaving school. Further, their education must give them a minimum of useful knowledge, habits and skill which will help them in their lives as citizens as well as in their efforts to support themselves and their families. From the financial point of view, the length of compulsory education is conditioned by the resources of the country and the funds available for education. Too long a period of compulsory education may be so expensive as to preclude the possibility of its realization in certain countries.

Most of the countries of Europe and of North America have compulsory school systems extending over eight years, usually from the ages of 6 to 14 although the ages of entering and leaving school differ from one country to another. A few countries have raised their school leaving age to 15, 16, and sometimes 18 years, in the latter case mostly on a part-time basis.

Most under-developed countries are unable to support an eight-year programme. In certain parts of the world a three-year programme has been advocated. UNESCO had found itself obliged to oppose such a short period of compulsory education, since experience has shown that in these circumstances a large proportion of the children revert to illiteracy. Certain States started with a four-year cycle as a basis for their compulsory education schemes and later took steps to lengthen the course to six or seven years. A large number of the countries of South Asia, the Middle East, some of the Territories of Africa and most of the countries of South America have adopted a primary cycle of five or six years. The UNESCO Regional Conference at Bombay recommended seven years as the minimum duration of compulsory education. Recognizing that this may be beyond the financial means of some countries at the present time, it admitted as a provisional measure that a shorter period might be adopted, to be raised to the desired length as circumstances permit.

Wastage and retardation

Another problem which raises difficulties in countries where no effective system of compulsory education exists or where that system is in its initial stages is that of the premature dropping out of children from school, accompanied and to a certain extent caused by retardation of children and their repeating of classes. This phenomenon is characterized by the crowding of children in the lower classes, only a small fraction having graduated to the upper classes. A large proportion drop out after the first and second years and children finally completing the course are few compared with those who entered some years before. This naturally reduces the effectiveness of the school system and may partially explain why the rate of illiteracy in certain States has been slow to decline in spite of the increased enrolment in the schools. This wastage involves not only a considerable loss of effort and time but also an ineffective use of the funds allotted to education.

Along with the problem of wastage goes that of retardation, whereby children of less than average ability are obliged to repeat classes, as they cannot reach the standard required. Curricula mainly borrowed from western countries may be overloaded and out of line with the mental development of the children. Other contributing factors in certain Territories may be the teaching of children in a language not their own, poor teaching methods, and inefficient teachers. Other things being equal, one of the best indices of the efficiency or inefficiency of a school may indeed be the rate of retardation.

The language of instruction

This problem is intimately connected with that of compulsory education. It is most acute in countries and Territories where a number of native languages exist, sometimes unwritten and used by very few people. This raises grave difficulties from the standpoint of writing down the languages and producing textbooks and teaching materials in these languages in small quantities—a clearly uneconomical process. This has led certain States to adopt more widely-used languages or their own national languages. In many of the Non-Self-Governing Territories it has led to the use of the language of the Administering Authority as the language of instruction.

This latter course, however, is not without its own difficulties. A more widespread local or national language, while convenient on local and national grounds, may be but remotely connected with the child's native tongue, making it difficult for the children to understand what is being taught and to express their own ideas. A European language has the virtue of opening up new cultural vistas to the children, but it is subject to the same difficulties on psychological and pedagogical grounds.

In certain Non-Self-Governing Territories, the percentage of children of school age in school is comparatively small. It has been possible in some of these Territories to teach primary school children successfully in a European language. It is impossible to tell from the evidence at the disposal of the UNESCO Secretariat to what extent this has resulted in leading some children to abandon school because of the language barrier. Nor is it possible to foretell the success of such a policy when applied to a programme of universal education for children in towns as well as in remote villages and tribal communities and to children belonging not only to the ruling and business classes but to working and farming families.

Policies in primary school have varied from imposing one uniform language for multilingual States or Territories, whether the language of the national State or of the Administering Authority, to conducting primary education entirely in the native tongue, with or without the use of the national or foreign language at the primary stage. One compromise policy has also been used with some success: that of starting teaching in the native tongue and gradually transferring to the second language as the children become more proficient in it. It is difficult to recommend one single policy for all countries, but the implications for compulsory education are clear.

The curricula

The type of curriculum which prevails in most Non-Self-Governing Territories is, with a few notable exceptions, the traditional one introduced by the Administering Authorities, by missionaries and sometimes by indigenous students who have been trained abroad. Its content is largely bookish and verbal and is keyed up to the curricula of the metropolitan countries. There is no doubt that while such a curriculum may serve to introduce children to western civilization and western ways of life and may be useful for providing administrative personnel for the Territories, it cannot usually be said to fit the needs and conditions of the Territories or to assist materially in improving the standard of living of the people. In places where primary education is still a novelty, such a curriculum may have the effect of encouraging the children and their parents to turn away from productive work. While migration from the country to the cities is largely due to other economic and social factors, it is possible that this type of education and of curriculum may encourage it further, not only in Non-Self-Governing Territories, but in sovereign States as well.

The traditional curriculum often runs beyond the abilities of the average pupil, especially if taught in a language not his own. This leads to failure and retardation which in turn may, after a while, discourage parents and lead them to withdraw their children from school. On the other hand, the poorer parents in outlying districts may fail to see the value of a curriculum remote from their lives and therefore refuse to send their children to school.

All this argues for a curriculum adapted to the needs and conditions of the environment as well as to the aptitudes and interests of the pupils. In this way the school can serve the community and help to raise its

standards of living. Certain Non-Self-Governing Territories, however, have reported that parents are offering some resistance to the introduction of such a curriculum, partly because they are anxious that their children should have the chance of further education and of government employment, for which they feel the new curriculum does not prepare them, and partly because a practical curriculum sometimes arouses suspicions that it is intended to keep people away from intellectual pursuits and positions of leadership.

If it is intended, however, to put all children of all communities and classes in school, it is difficult to see how the traditional curriculum can contribute enough to the improvement of living conditions.

Relation to Fundamental Education

This raises the question of the relation of compulsory education to the emergency methods known as fundamental education. In most under-developed countries, as well as in most Non-Self-Governing Territories, the extension of compulsory education has to take place among predominantly illiterate communities. This has certain adverse influences on the compulsory primary school. Not only do ignorant parents sometimes fail to appreciate the importance of education for their children, but the fact that the children are educated while the parents remain illiterate creates a gap between the two generations. This may result in conflict and also reduces the value of the education received at school by the sheer weight of tradition and the old ways of living. For this reason, it is advisable that a programme of fundamental education should, as far as possible, accompany the extension of compulsory primary education, so that the two will reinforce each other. Such a programme, carried along the lines advocated by UNESCO, would have a beneficial influence on the primary schools, especially in the rural districts, and might facilitate the introduction of a curriculum based on the needs of the environment. It will make possible a double attack on the retarded conditions and low standards of living of the people, both young and old, including health conditions and economic production. Certain countries are experimenting on this type of approach. India, for example, has established a basic primary school, and has undertaken a large-scale programme of social education for adults. The Philippines is experimenting with a "community school" which is designed to help the community improve itself. Similar examples from the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan, from some of the Latin-American States and elsewhere may be cited.

Teachers

The extension of primary schooling at a pace rapid enough to ensure that all children shall ultimately be put in school requires that the training of teachers go hand in hand with the expansion of educational facilities, so that there will be a sufficient supply of trained teachers. Another problem is the result of the tendency to lay down more practical curricula and to cater for the needs of the adult population. This requires a new type of teacher, able to guide his pupils in a fresh approach to their studies and experience, which are directed towards the improvement of the community. The teacher himself becomes a community leader, especially in rural districts. This requires a different kind of training than hitherto provided in teachers' training colleges. There have been a number of promising experiments in this type of rural teacher training and in the training of fundamental education leaders, both in advanced and under-developed countries, and in Non-Self-Governing Territories.

Finance

Finally, there is the problem of financing compulsory education programmes and of expanding primary school systems. This, of course, is the most difficult obstacle to surmount. It is the more so in Non-Self-Governing Territories because most of them depend largely on an agricultural economy, which is often run on little more than a subsistence level and cannot support a full system of free and compulsory education. Both UNESCO conferences on compulsory education focused the attention of international organizations on this problem. They recommended that international low-interest loans or grants be made to help countries to establish compulsory education systems. Failing this, it was feared that hopes for the establishment of such systems within any reasonable time would be defeated.

The history of education in Europe in the last hundred years has demonstrated that there is a reciprocal relationship between economic development and the development of education. New methods in agriculture, industry and commerce depend on a more intelligent and enlightened farmer, worker and clerk. Economic development will occur only if the masses of the people are largely literate. This point may perhaps not be given sufficient weight in international schemes for economic development.

Funds for financing primary education may be drawn from the central budget of the Territory or from the central budget and local sources together. In a number of Non-Self-Governing Territories, the Administering Power also has provided funds for educational development. In addition, there is heavy reliance in certain Territories on the private initiative of missionaries who carry a major share of the educational burden with or without the financial assistance of the government.

One of the main issues is the question of fees. In almost all countries where effective systems of compulsory education have been established, the principle of free education at public expense has been accepted. This often entails not only free tuition, but also free books and stationery, free medical service, etc. Fees, on the contrary, are charged in primary schools in a number of the Non-Self-Governing Territories. This is justified on the grounds that, given a limited budget, the charging of fees enables the authorities to put a larger number of children in school. Such an attitude

appears reasonable where it is shown that a sufficiently high proportion of the budget of the Territory has already been earmarked for education and that it is impossible to extend the budget. This is undoubtedly the case in a few, though by no means in all, the Non-Self-Governing Territories; in others, the rate of public expenditure on education is comparatively low.

UNESCO's assistance in compulsory education

The activities of UNESCO in the field of free and compulsory education have been described in the first part of this chapter. Here we mention in brief the type of assistance which UNESCO might be able to offer, subject to budgetary limitations, to Member States and to Non-Self-Governing Territories in this field. In accordance with its Constitution, UNESCO acts within Member States, only at the request of the States concerned. So far, no Administering Authority has requested assistance from UNESCO in the field of primary compulsory education. UNESCO, however, is in a position to carry out one or more of the following activities in favour of compulsory education.

Conferences

In the regional conferences which have been and will be held by UNESCO, invitations are always sent to Member States administering Non-Self-Governing Territories in the regions concerned. The Regional Conference for Africa will, according to present UNESCO plans, be held in 1958. It is hoped that by that time considerable information on conditions of compulsory education in Africa will be available.

Studies

UNESCO will be ready to undertake studies by specialists in the problem of compulsory education in one or more of the Non-Self-Governing Territories.

Experts

If so requested, UNESCO will send to Non-Self-Governing Territories experts to give advice in one or more of the following subjects:

The development and execution of plans for compulsory education;

The administration, financing and legislation of compulsory education;

The pre-service and in-service training of teachers and legislation to improve the status of primary school teachers. Under certain circumstances, it may be possible to second professors to teacher training institutions;

The revision of primary school curricula;

The production of primary school textbooks and children's books;

The production of audio-visual aids and other materials of instruction;

School building programmes;

Assistance in holding national seminars or workshops on one or more of the above subjects, designed for the training of personnel able to apply compulsory education schemes or to take measures for the improvement of primary education, teacher training and the curricula.

Fellowships

A limited number of fellowships in the fields of compulsory education, teacher training, curriculum and allied fields may be made available to Non-Self-Governing Territories.

Information

The Secretariat is ready to provide, upon request, information on compulsory education and related topics to Member States and to educators in Non-Self-Governing Territories. Within budgetary limits, it may be possible to supply sample curricula and compulsory education laws from other parts of the world, as well as selected sets of sample primary school textbooks.

Needed information

The Secretariat attempts to collect information on primary education in all Non-Self-Governing Territories and on educational systems in general. The forthcoming second edition of the *World Handbook on Educational Organization and Statistics* will contain descriptive and statistical sections on education in nearly all the Non-Self-Governing Territories. In order to keep this *Handbook* up to date—it is revised once every three years—it is important that information be sent to the UNESCO Secretariat regularly by the Education Departments of the various Non-Self-Governing Territories. Materials such as the following are needed both for the *Handbook* and for tracing the development of free and compulsory education in the Non-Self-Governing Territories:

(*a*) Annual reports of Departments of Education;

(*b*) Statistical information on numbers of schools, teachers and pupils, and on national expenditure;

(*c*) Plans for the development of education, particularly of primary compulsory education;

(*d*) Educational laws and regulations, particularly those dealing with compulsory education;

(*e*) Curricula of primary schools;

(*f*) Sample textbooks and reading materials;

(*g*) Representative types of school building plans duly annotated, especially those that illustrate adaptation to terrain, climatic conditions and local building materials;

(*h*) Primary teacher training schemes and programmes; and legislation or regulations about the conditions of service of primary school teachers.

CHAPTER V

EDUCATION OF GIRLS

Introduction

In the great majority of Non-Self-Governing Territories, and particularly in Africa, the education of girls at all levels lags behind that of boys. In a report on higher education in West Africa it was stated: "We are deeply concerned about the backwardness of women's education, especially since all improvements in the homes and in the bringing up of children will be delayed until a great drive is made to educate women and girls... While the women and girls are uneducated, little or no progress can be made."[1]

Similar views are expressed in a *Memorandum on Educational Policy in Nigeria*: "... if men from primary or secondary schools marry wives who have had no schooling at all or none of any value, the educated fathers will have the greatest difficulty in passing on the benefits of their schooling to the children. It must be ensured that the resources expended in raising each generation a further stage shall have a cumulative effect on succeeding generations. This is not to be achieved without the education of women".[2] The same problem was the concern of the Second Conference of Directors of Education in the French Overseas Territories held in 1951 when it confirmed its previous recommendation that the question of the education of girls remain in the foreground of the preoccupations of the Chiefs of Territories.[3]

This lag in the education of girls is not equally serious in all the Non-Self-Governing Territories and varies from one region to another. For instance, the percentage of girls to total school enrolment is, on the whole, somewhat higher in South-East Asia and the Pacific than in Africa, as far as the indigenous population of the Territories listed in this study is concerned, while in the Caribbean area children of both sexes take advantage of educational facilities in approximately the same proportion. As the statistics in table 12 indicate, most of the African Territories show a great disparity between the enrolment of boys and girls. The exceptional situation in the three High Commission Territories, and particularly in Basutoland and Bechuanaland, which have an unusually high proportion of girls enrolled in primary schools, is explained by the fact that boys absent themselves or leave school to take care of cattle as herd boys. However, at the secondary level, due to a number of causes which are set out later, the position is reversed in favour of the boys in both Basutoland and Bechuanaland.

To grasp the full significance of the figures on percentage of girls to the total enrolment in a large number of Non-Self-Governing Territories, account must also be taken of the fact that in many of those Territories the total enrolment of boys and girls combined represents only a fraction of the children of school age.

The problem of the education of girls involves not only the question of total enrolment or of comparative enrolment of boys and girls, but also the quality and type of education offered to them and the adaptation of the curriculum to the paramount needs of the education of girls in each particular community. The present study, however, will be mostly confined to a brief review of the degree of access of women to various levels of education in a number of Non-Self-Governing Territories, and of the main factors which impede, in these Territories, their access to education. This will be followed by a brief summary of present trends and policies in the Territories concerned in regard to the education of women and girls.

Access of girls to education

General

In most of the Territories where education of girls lags behind that of boys, educational opportunity, as expressed by the facilities and sometimes the types and quality of education, is generally poorer for girls than for boys. The *Memorandum on Educational Policy in Nigeria* states: "The years of patient work by the voluntary agencies in the Southern Provinces bore fruit even before the outbreak of war and, during one of the recurring financial crises already mentioned, there arose a growing and insistent demand for more educational facilities for girls. This demand has in certain areas swelled to a clamour."[4]

In regard to Kenya, it was stated in 1946: "This objective [provision of a modest standard of literacy for the whole African child population as soon as practicable] postulates a marked expansion of facilities for the education of women and girls, because until now facilities have been largely, though not wholly, confined to boys."[5] The *Report on Education in the Federation*

[1] United Kingdom: Colonial Office, *Report of the Commission on Higher Education in West Africa*, Cmd. 6655, London, H.M.S.O., 1945, p. 28.

[2] Nigeria: *Memorandum on Educational Policy in Nigeria*, Lagos, 1947, p. 33.

[3] France: *Bulletin de l'Inspection générale de l'enseignement et de la jeunesse du Ministère de la France d'outre-mer*, Paris, April 1952, p. 14.

[4] Nigeria: *Op. cit.*, p. 31.

[5] Kenya: *Report of the Development Committee*, Nairobi, 1946, Vol. I, p. 32.

TABLE 12

Comparative enrolment of boys and girls in primary and general secondary schools

Territory	Year	Primary schools			Secondary schools		
		Boys	Girls	Percentage of girls to total enrolment	Boys	Girls	Percentage of girls to total enrolment
AFRICA							
Central							
French Equatorial Africa	1951	75,075	13,735	15.0	1,022	179	15.0
Northern Rhodesia	1951						
Africans		107,872	52,986	33.0	315	22	6.5
Asians and Eurafricans		175	129	42.0	4	—	—
Europeans		3,031	2,985	50.0	437	475	52.0
Nyasaland	1951						
Africans		142,630	96,675	40.4	163	7	4.0
Eurafricans		52	44	46.0	—	—	—
Asians		389	188	33.0	—	—	—
Europeans		135	195	60.0	—	—	—
East							
Kenya	1950						
Africans		249,244	88,262	26.0	9,135	1,316	12.6
Arabs		1,032	506	33.0	79	84	50.0
Asians		12,892	9,284	42.0	2,521	963	28.0
Europeans		2,040	1,801	47.0	942	1,003	51.0
Uganda	1951						
Africans		182,048	57,097	24.0	5,344	838	13.5
Asians		3,910	3,443	47.0	1,099	350	24.1
Europeans		182	216	54.0	—	—	—
South							
Basutoland	1950	29,038	58,748	67.0	476	250	34.4
Bechuanaland	1950	6,141	10,543	63.0	86	46	34.8
Swaziland	1951	6,953	8,084	53.8	166	185	52.7
West							
French West Africa	1951	142,836	27,542	16.0	3,674	1,008	21.5
Gambia	1949	1,472	324 [a]	18.0	184	175	48.7
Gold Coast	1950	202,981	68,964	25.0	5,386	709 [b]	11.6 [b]
Nigeria	1950	756,377	213,822	22.0	19,610	1,827	8.5
Sierra Leone	1950	24,381	10,139	29.3	1,908	896	32.0
INDIAN OCEAN							
Madagascar	1951	152,679	97,099	39.0	1,339	958	41.7
Mauritius	1951	39,743	27,738	41.0	3,789	1,691	30.8
MEDITERRANEAN							
Cyprus	1950	84,416	29,587	46.0	7,146	2,874	28.7
Morocco	1951						
Moroccans		122,977	43,307	26.0	5,313	1,051	16.5
Non-Moroccans		31,228	28,017	47.0	8,342	8,035	49.0
Tunisia	1951						
Moslems		96,277	23,556	20.0	4,330	405	8.7
Jews		6,319	5,800	48.0	911	672	42.4
French		14,893	14,804	50.0	2,884	3,121	52.0
Others		3,613	3,301	48.0	311	308	49.7
CARIBBEAN							
Barbados	1951	15,357 [c]	14,723 [c]	49.0	1,871	961	34.0
British Guiana	1950	38,612 [d]	35,541 [d]	48.0	500 [d]	381 [d]	43.2
British Honduras	1951	6,215	5,987	49.0	409	367	47.3
Jamaica	1950	100,985	107,607	51.5	2,651	3,187	60.0
Puerto Rico	1951	180,926	174,427	49.0	55,478	52,296	48.5
Trinidad and Tobago	1950	63,468	59,076	48.2	4,621	3,659	44.2
ASIA							
Federation of Malaya	1949						
All schools		394,415	187,269	32.2	17,663	6,418	26.6
English schools		47,962	24,944	34.2	14,220	5,411	27.6
Malay schools		179,422	92,487	34.0	—	—	—
Chinese schools		143,212	54,914	27.7	3,443	1,007	22.6
Indian schools		23,819	14,924	38.5	—	—	—
Hong Kong	1951	78,676	52,116	40.0	20,059	10,674	34.7
North Borneo	1951	14,544	6,194	30.0	506	120	19.2

TABLE 12 *(concluded)*

Comparative enrolment of boys and girls in primary and general secondary schools

Territory	Year	Primary schools			Secondary schools		
		Boys	Girls	Percentage of girls to total enrolment	Boys	Girls	Percentage of girls to total enrolment
Pacific							
American Samoa	1951	2,758	2,358	46.1	194	23	10.6
Fiji	1950						
Fijians		12,697	11,972	48.5	580	377	39.4
Indians		12,759	8,247	39.3	209	80	27.7
Europeans		941	883	48.4	60	83	58.6
Mixed		2,045	848	29.3	196	19	8.8

[a] Besides there were 1,678 children in mixed primary schools, but the number of girls in these schools is not available.

[b] Enrolment in the middle schools is included in the figures given for primary schools.

[c] Includes enrolment in the senior departments of primary schools, where education at secondary level is provided.

[d] Enrolment in Government and aided schools only; information for other schools not available.

Malaya for 1949 stated that, although co-education is not welcome in a Moslem community, the lack of girls' schools has compelled co-education because the demand for places for girls has been so great.[6]

The practice of co-education at the primary level in a very large number of Territories would seem to indicate that access is open equally to boys and girls in the mixed schools. However, the advantages that co-education presents in giving girls access to existing schools are often counterbalanced by certain circumstances. In some Territories, enrolment of girls may not always be encouraged in the mixed schools staffed by men teachers: "There is some difference of opinion about whether girls get as square a deal as boys when they are taught by men teachers. In classes where boys greatly outnumber the girls the odds are against an even rate of progress in education. We gather also that boys generally have prior claim on seats, books, slates and teachers' attention."[7] Furthermore, sometimes parents are not anxious for their girls to be taught by men teachers.[8]

Even where the schools are co-educational at the primary level, it is often the practice to separate the sexes in the senior grades. At that stage, the girls are likely to feel more than the boys the impact of the general lack of school facilities. From Trinidad it was reported that "it is becoming increasingly difficult to provide accommodation for many of the girls who seek admission to the intermediate schools".[9]

PRIMARY EDUCATION

Table 12 shows the extent to which girls in a number of Territories have access to primary education in comparison to boys, but not necessarily the extent of educational opportunity enjoyed by girls in proportion to the total number of those who are of school age. No attempt has been made to compare the number of girls' schools to that of boys, since primary schools are largely mixed in most Non-Self-Governing Territories.

In regard to the Belgian Congo, the information transmitted indicates that in 1951 the figures of enrolment for girls compared to that of boys, in the primary grant-aided Catholic schools only,[10] were as follows:

	Boys	Girls
Lower primary schools	306,938	27,765
Upper primary schools	87,603	13,765
Selected upper primary schools	9,879	—
Sixth year preparatory classes	1,728	519

In French Equatorial Africa, French West Africa, the Gold Coast, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland, education for girls at the primary level is largely provided in mixed schools, while in Gambia primary schools both in Bathurst and in the Protectorate are separate for girls and boys, except that in Bathurst infants' schools are co-educational.

In Kenya all African primary schools accept boys and girls, and in Uganda co-education is also favoured at the primary level; in Madagascar, junior primary schools (*écoles du premier degré*) are mixed, and in Cyprus and Mauritius most of the primary schools are mixed.

In the Pacific–Asia region, co-education is the rule in Hawaii and American Samoa public schools, and in Fiji the majority of primary schools are for both girls and boys. In Hong Kong co-educational establishments account for above 94 per cent of the total enrolment of primary schools. In Singapore a measure of co-education exists at present, but it is considered

[6] Federation of Malaya: *Report on Education for 1949*, Kuala Lumpur, 1950, p. 23.

[7] Nyasaland: *Report on the Education of Women and Girls in Nyasaland*, Zomba, 1948, p. 4.

[8] *Ibid.*

[9] Trinidad and Tobago: Education Department, *1950 Report*, Port of Spain, 1951, p. 28.

[10] Belgian Congo: *Rapport sur l'Administration de la colonie du Congo belge pour l'année 1951*, Brussels, 1952, pp. 137–139. Information on number of girls in other types of primary schools not available.

that the primary school system will in general be co-educational.[11]

In the Caribbean region the majority of the primary schools are co-educational. In Barbados only some elementary schools are co-educational, but the policy is to increase them.[12]

In Territories or regions with a predominantly Moslem population, co-education is not favoured and, as stated previously, in many of the Territories where co-education is generalized at the primary level, the tendency or the actual practice is to separate the sexes in the senior primary schools.

As regards standards of boys' and girls' education, where boys and girls are educated in separate schools, there are cases where girls are taught by women teachers who are inadequately trained or, at least, not always as well trained as the men teachers. In some cases, the teaching of the metropolitan language may receive more importance and emphasis in boys' schools than in girls' schools; in other cases, a certain type of primary course organized for boys is not provided for girls or may be provided for them on a limited basis. In the Belgian Congo, for instance, there is a type of four-year upper primary school (*école primaire du deuxième degré sélectionné*) which exists only for boys.

As concerns mixed schools, co-education would seem at first glance to ensure parity of standards for both sexes. However, as indicated previously, girls are often neglected in mixed schools taught by men teachers. In the second place, parity of standards does not necessarily mean identical curriculum, and in that respect co-education may sometimes work to the disadvantage of the girls. It is stated in the case of Cyprus, for instance: "Unfortunately, however, little consideration has yet been given to a form of education and a separate curriculum appropriate to girls, and most of them follow the same six-year curriculum as the boys.[13]" "... Schools have been slow to realize the necessity of a special curriculum and too many girls are still taught in mixed classes by men teachers."[14]

However, in a large number of Territories there is, in varying degrees and at some stage of primary education, a differentiation in the curriculum in order to meet the needs of girls. In these Territories, some form of housecraft has been introduced at a certain stage of primary education in the girls' schools and in some of the mixed schools. In the mixed schools staffed by men teachers, the tendency now is to use, whenever possible, women teachers to take the older girls for the first stage of housecraft. In some cases, housecraft may involve only needlework and in other cases other aspects of homemaking. In addition to special domestic science schools, mostly at the senior primary or secondary level, special arrangements are sometimes made for providing training in homemaking either for girls too old to continue their primary education or for girls who have completed the ordinary primary course. In the Belgian Congo, homemaking courses are organized after the first two years of lower primary education (*enseignement primaire du premier degré*) for girls too old for admission to the regular homemaking school after completion of their full primary education.[15] In Morocco, before leaving primary school, Moslem girls may enter a special ("Section C") class, which is a sort of continuation class (*classe de scolarité prolongée*), where they receive training in view of their future role as mothers and homemakers.[16]

In Tunisia the girls in the Franco-Arab schools, after the fourth year of primary schooling may, for the last three years of their primary studies, choose between a curriculum (type A), which is the same as that of the boys' schools, or a curriculum (type B), which is based on housecraft but also includes academic work.

In many Territories, the amount of education received by girls, and, to a certain extent, the type and quality of that education, is affected by a number of factors among which are the relatively short period of time the majority of girls remain in school and the fact that marriage—early marriage—is the vocation of practically every girl. The 1947 *Memorandum on Educational Policy in Nigeria* stated that: "The age of marriage, though rising, is still low and the unmarried woman is regarded as something of a curiosity."[17] In regard to Northern Rhodesia, it is stated: "Many girls come to school late and marry early... When girls come to school late, as they do in most rural areas, they marry immediately on leaving school, whether that is after one, two, three or four years' schooling. Even when they enter school at 9 or 10 years old and get as far as Standard IV by the age of 15 or 16, they are likely to marry at once, as only a very few go on to further education or training."[18]

In a large number of Non-Self-Governing Territories outside the Caribbean, the proportion of girls who withdraw from school after the second or third year of primary education is larger than that of boys. A report on the development of education in Sierra Leone indicated that in 1948, in the urban schools of the Colony, 43 per cent of the girls against 20 per cent of the boys left schools at the end of Standard IV, while the wastage between Standard IV and VI was 82 and 60 per cent respectively, the rates being higher in the rural schools.[19]

[11] Singapore: *Educational Policy in the Colony of Singapore, Ten-year Programme*, Singapore, 1948, p. 6.

[12] Barbados: *Report of the Department of Education for the year ended on the 31st August 1950*, Bridgetown, 1951, p. 15.

[13] Cyprus: *Report of the Department of Education for 1942–1945*, Nicosia, 1947, p. 14.

[14] Cyprus: *Report of the Department of Education for 1945–1947*, Nicosia, 1948, p. 15.

[15] Belgian Congo: *Organisation de l'enseignement libre subsidié pour indigènes avec le concours des Sociétés de missions chrétiennes. Dispositions générales*, 1948, p. 28.

[16] Morocco: Direction de l'instruction publique, *Bulletin de l'enseignement public du Maroc*, Rabat, 1952, No. 217, p. 22.

[17] Nigeria: *Memorandum on Educational Policy in Nigeria*, p. 3.

[18] Northern Rhodesia: *Report on the Education of Women and Girls in Northern Rhodesia*, Lusaka, 1948, p. 5.

[19] Sierra Leone: *Report on the Development of Education in Sierra Leone*, Freetown, 1948, p. 11.

TABLE 13

Percentage of girls enrolled in general secondary schools to total enrolment of girls in primary schools

Territory	Year	Number in primary schools	Number in secondary schools	Percentage
AFRICA				
Central				
French Equatorial Africa	1951	13,735	179	1.3
Northern Rhodesia:	1951			
Africans		52,986	22	0.04
Asians and Eurafricans		129	—	—
Europeans		2,985	475	15.9
Nyasaland [a]	1951	96,675	7	0.007
East				
Kenya	1950			
Africans		88,262	1,316	1.49
Arabs		506	84	1.66
Asians		9,284	963	10.37
Europeans		1,801	1,003	55.69
Uganda	1951			
Africans		57,007	838	1.46
Asians		3,443	350	10.0
Europeans		216	—	—
South				
Basutoland	1950	58,748	250	0.42
Bechuanaland	1950	10,545	46	0.43
Swaziland	1951	8,084	185	2.28
West				
French West Africa	1951	27,542	1,008	3.65
Gold Coast	1950	68,964	709 [b]	1.03 [b]
Nigeria	1950	213,822	1,827	0.85
Sierra Leone	1950	10,139	896	8.34
INDIAN OCEAN				
Madagascar	1951	97,099	958	0.98
Mauritius	1951	27,738	1,691	6.1
MEDITERRANEAN				
Cyprus	1950	29,587	2,874	9.71
Morocco	1951			
Moroccans		43,307	1,051	2.4
Non-Moroccans		28,017	8,035	28.6
Tunisia	1951			
Moslems		23,556	405	1.7
Jews		5,800	672	11.6
French		14,804	3,121	21.1
Others		3,301	308	9.2
CARIBBEAN				
Barbados	1951	14,723 [c]	961	6.5
British Guiana	1950	35,541	381	1.07
British Honduras	1951	5,987	367	6.1
Jamaica	1950	107,607	3,187	2.96
Puerto Rico	1951	174,427	52,296	30.0
Trinidad and Tobago	1950	59,076	3,659	6.19
ASIA				
Federation of Malaya	1949			
All schools		187,269	6,418	3.4
English schools		24,944	5,411	21.7
Malay schools		92,487	—	—
Chinese schools		54,914	1,007	1.8
Indian schools		14,924	—	—
Hong Kong	1951	52,116	10,674	20.5
North Borneo	1951	6,194	120	2.0
PACIFIC				
American Samoa	1951	2,358	23	1.0
Fiji	1950			
Fijians		11,972	377	3.1
Indians		8,247	80	1.0
Europeans		883	85	10.0
Mixed		848	19	2.2

[a] Africans only.
[b] Enrolment in the middle schools is included in the figures given for primary schools.
[c] Includes enrolment in the senior departments of primary schools, where education at secondary level is provided.

A comparison of the enrolment, in 1951, of boys and girls in each of the first six years of primary school in six Territories—Gold Coast, Nigeria, Nyasaland, Uganda, Singapore and the Federation of Malaya [20]—shows that the percentage of girls in the first two years of primary school to the total enrolment of girls in the first six years was higher than the corresponding percentage for boys. But the trend was sharply reversed after the second or third year.

POST-PRIMARY EDUCATION

Most of the training above the fifth or sixth grade of primary education received by girls in the majority of Non-Self-Governing Territories, does not go beyond the post-primary level, since in most of these Territories many of the secondary schools for girls do not provide a full secondary course, and most of the teacher-training institutions prepare only primary school teachers through courses that are on a post-primary level. The number of teacher-training institutions requiring the completion of a full secondary course as prerequisite for admission is still very limited.

In addition to the various factors militating against the education of girls, the high percentage of wastage among girls from the third and fourth grades of primary school and upward reduces considerably the supply of girls with sufficient preparation for admission to secondary schools, to teacher-training institutions and other forms of professional training. Table 13 shows the percentage of girls enrolled in general secondary schools to total enrolment of girls in primary schools in 1950 or 1951. In some Territories, the enrolment in general secondary courses represents less than 1 per cent of the total enrolment in primary schools. Computed on a regional basis, the percentage of the total number of girls enrolled in secondary schools, in each group of

[20] Year 1949 for the Federation of Malaya, and 1950 for Gold Coast and Nigeria.

Territories listed in table 13, to the total enrolment of girls in primary schools, in the same group of Territories, was 16.6 per cent for the Caribbean Territories, 6.5 per cent for those in the Pacific–Asia region, and 1 per cent in the African Territories south of the Sahara and Madagascar.

In considering those percentages, it must be taken into account, however, that the secondary schools do not represent the only post-primary form of education for girls, and that a number of the girls who have completed their primary course were enrolled in teacher-training institutions and in other courses for vocational training.

In regard to vocational and technical training, the development of this field of education for both sexes has lagged behind other forms of primary and post-primary education in almost all Non-Self-Governing Territories, and in some of them, as for example the Territories of East and Central Africa, technical education is in its infancy. As concerns the access of girls to various forms of vocational training, in a very large number, if not most, of the Non-Self-Governing Territories, this field of education has been, up to recently, regarded as mostly boys' education.

General secondary education

Although in most of the Territories listed in table 12 co-education is restricted at the secondary level, nearly all of them have at least one co-educational secondary school. In the case of Morocco, it is reported that, for the first time in 1945, Moroccan Moslem girls were admitted to the co-educational Lycée of Fez along with Moroccan and European boys and Jewish and European girls, and that since that time the number of Moslem girls has been increasing each year, passing from two in 1945 to thirty in 1951.[21] From Kenya, it was reported in 1950 that eighty-four Arab girls were enrolled in one co-educational Arab secondary school.[22]

In some Territories, the number of mixed secondary schools is larger than that of girls' secondary schools. However, owing to the attitude of parents concerning the teaching of girls by male teachers and their being in the company of older boys, in a certain number of Territories separate schools for girls will continue to be necessary.

As indicated before, in many Territories, only a very few out of several girls' and mixed secondary schools offer a complete secondary curriculum; in a few Territories secondary education for girls exists only at the junior stage. In Kenya, for instance, out of twenty-five secondary schools for girls listed in 1950,[23] only two were organized in 1951 and 1952 as full secondary schools leading to the school certificate examination.[24] In Uganda, out of nine secondary schools for girls, only three schools go beyond the junior stage, and not all of these provide the full secondary senior course.[25] In Northern Rhodesia, which has no co-educational secondary school, there is no full secondary school for girls.[26]

In many Territories, particularly in East and Central Africa, girls' education at the top of the primary school and in the intermediate or secondary schools is mainly based on housecraft and child care. Most of the girls' intermediate and secondary schools in a number of Territories, particularly in Africa, are mainly, and often entirely, boarding schools. Only the largest towns in these Territories have enough candidates for secondary education to fill a school of reasonable size. For the girls from rural areas, the boarding schools offer the only opportunity for a post-primary education.

Table 12 shows that, except for a few cases, the disparity between boys' and girls' enrolment—as concerns non-Europeans—is greater at the secondary than at the primary level. Even the Territories of Basutoland and Bechuanaland, which have a higher percentage of girls than boys enrolled in primary schools, show the reverse at the secondary level.

The rate of wastage is higher at the intermediate and secondary than at the primary level. For instance, whereas the percentages of enrolment of girls in the first and sixth year of primary schools [27] in Nigeria, Uganda, Singapore and Barbados, were respectively 37.75 and 5.94 per cent, 42.11 and 3.41 per cent, 23.07 and 9.38 per cent, 20.23 and 13.49 per cent, the percentages of enrolment of girls in the seventh and twelfth year of schooling for the same Territories were 47.86 and 2.11 per cent, 45.20 and 1.87 per cent, 43.82 and 1.03 per cent, and 37.79 and 3.94 per cent respectively. However, in regard to some Territories, account must be taken of the fact that a number of girls may have left the senior primary or the junior secondary schools after the first or second year to enter teacher-training institutions or other professional training.

Teacher-training and vocational education

Table 14 shows the respective number of boys and girls enrolled in teacher-training schools or centres in the Territories under consideration. The figures refer to students enrolled in institutions of primary, post-primary and post-secondary level. Except in the case of the Gold Coast, the enrolment figures do not include students who may be registered in the education institutes or departments of the university colleges established in some of the Territories concerned. Here again, there is on the whole a disparity between the enrolment of boys and that of girls, although there is a larger number of Territories, in the case of teacher-

[21] Morocco: Direction de l'instruction publique, *Bulletin de l'enseignement public du Maroc*, p. 40.

[22] Kenya: Education Department, *Annual Report, 1950*, Nairobi, 1951, pp. 47, 51.

[23] *Ibid.*, pp. 21, 47, 48.

[24] United Kingdom: *Commonwealth Survey—African Social Development in Kenya*, London, 10 April 1953, p. 51.

[25] Uganda: Education Department, *Report for 1951*, Entebbe, 1952, pp. 9, 70.

[26] Northern Rhodesia: African Education Department, *Report for 1951*, Lusaka, 1952, pp. 43–45.

[27] Computed on the basis of total enrolment in the first six years of primary education.

TABLE 14

Comparative enrolment of boys and girls in teacher-training and vocational schools

Territory	Year	Teacher-training		Vocational	
		Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
AFRICA					
Central					
French Equatorial Africa	1951	451	36	1,740	1,194
Northern Rhodesia	1951				
Africans		586	131	597	507
Asians and Eurafricans		—	—	—	—
Europeans		—	—	235	7
Nyasaland: Africans	1951	521	176	460	162
East					
Kenya	1950				
Africans		876	222	760	...
Arabs		—	—	..	—
Asians		35	36	..	—
Europeans		—	12	..	—
Uganda	1951				
Africans		1,499	720	1,991	579
Asians		—	—	25	25
Europeans		—	—	—	—
South					
Basutoland	1950	126	136	123	351
Bechuanaland	1950	25	31	14	15
Swaziland	1951	1	34	30	—
West					
French West Africa	1951	1,431	214	2,131	124
Gambia	1949	29 [a] / 7 [b]	—	—	—
Gold Coast	1950	1,334 [c]	580 [c]	938	72
Nigeria	1950	5,028	1,290	1,372	24
Sierra Leone	1950	248	68	19	—
INDIAN OCEAN					
Madagascar	1951	331	241	3,408	530
Mauritius	1951	53	61	30	—
MEDITERRANEAN					
Cyprus	1950	118	77	2,660	541
Morocco	1951				
Moroccans		2 [d]	—	3,846	3,926
Non-Moroccans		25 [d]	39 [d]	3,442	2,878
Tunisia	1951				
Moslems		213 [d]	189 [d]	3,103	2,597
Jews				324	775
French				1,893	1,788
Others				477	471
CARIBBEAN					
Barbados	1951	18	18	73	451
British Guiana	1950	24	16	863	713
British Honduras	1951	18	60	—	—
Jamaica	1950	100	196	1,532	602
Trinidad and Tobago	1950	100	107	194	—
ASIA					
Federation of Malaya	1949				
All schools		5,182	2,018	1,846	328
English schools		622	440	1,846	328
Malay schools		3,582	1,126	—	—
Chinese schools		434	379	—	—
Indian schools		544	73	—	—
Hong Kong	1951	87	87	5,313	1,535
North Borneo	1951	—	—	24	—
PACIFIC					
American Samoa	1951	20	—	235	—
Fiji	1950				
Fijians		—	—	86	20
Indians		—	—	—	—
Europeans		—	—	—	—
Mixed		146	42	5	—

[a] In the Territory.
[b] Outside the Territory.
[c] Out of 1,334 boys, 110 were studying at the Institute of Education of the University College of the Gold Coast, and out of 580 girls, 47 were enrolled at the same Institute.
[d] Normal schools only.

training than in the case of primary and secondary education, which show a higher enrolment of girls than boys in the existing institutions.

Except for a few Territories where separate schools are maintained for boys and girls, and a few others where there are only co-educational schools, the rest of the Territories listed in table 14 have both co-educational schools and schools exclusively reserved to girls.

Some Territories offer teacher-training courses on both primary and post-primary level, others have courses on post-primary and post-secondary level, while some others offer courses on all three levels. In some of the latter Territories, as late as 1951, only boys were enrolled in the schools offering teacher-training on a post-secondary level. However, steps were being taken in two of them to provide such training for girls. As a rule, in most of the Non-Self-Governing Territories, and in Africa particularly, there are very few women trained as secondary school teachers.

As concerns vocational training for girls, outside of nursing and teacher education, this is provided in many Territories in vocational domestic science schools and in other vocational schools or centres. The departments or schools of domestic science usually have a dual purpose: to prepare homemakers and to train girls to earn a living. The Domestic Science Department of the Kingston Technical School in Jamaica trains girls to be cooks, caterers, waitresses, institutional attendants and nurses. The scheme of work is also described as useful to those who will become wives and mothers.[28] In Madagascar, there are home economics schools on a primary level with two sections: a "homemaking section" (*section dite ménagère*) for the training of

[28] Jamaica: *Annual Report of the Education Department for the year ended 31 December 1950*, Kingston, 1952, p. 11.

homemakers who do not necessarily intend to be employed, and an "apprenticeship section" (*section dite des apprenties*) for the training of future workers for employment.

Training in weaving, spinning and other feminine crafts or trades is offered in vocational schools or centres in some Territories which have no vocational domestic science schools as well as in Territories which have them. Some other Territories, like Tunisia, Morocco, Madagascar, the Gold Coast, Barbados and Jamaica, have commercial training for girls.

The vocational schools existing in the Territories under consideration are on a primary or post-primary level, the commercial course being on a post-primary level.

Table 14 also shows the comparative enrolment of boys and girls in vocational schools in the Territories under consideration. However, it is not always possible to determine how many girls are in domestic science schools and how many are taking commercial education and other forms of vocational training.

TABLE 15

Comparative enrolment of male and female students in institutions of higher learning in the territories

Territory	*Year*	*Institution*	*Number of students*	
			Men	*Women*
AFRICA				
Central				
Belgian Congo	1950	Centre universitaire Lovanium	79	—
Nyassaland	1951	Makerere College, Uganda	1	—
East				
Kenya	1951	Makerere College, Uganda	85	1
Uganda	1950	Makerere College	234 [a]	
South				
Basutoland	1951	Catholic University College	18	4
West				
French West Africa	1951	Institut des hautes études à Dakar	135	
Gold Coast	1950	University College of the Gold Coast	308 [b]	82 [b]
Nigeria	1951	University College, Ibadan	313	14
Sierra Leone	1951	Fourah Bay College	117	11
INDIAN OCEAN				
Madagascar	1951	Cours de droit et cours scientifiques	169	37
Mauritius	1951	Royal College in Mauritius	103	1
MEDITERRANEAN				
Morocco	1951	Institut des hautes études marocaines		
Moroccans			278	25
Non-Moroccans			921	836
Tunisia	1951	Institut des hautes études, Cours de droit tunisien, Ecole des beaux-arts, Conservatoire de musique		
Moslems			747	17
Jews			99	59
French			393	230
Others			40	10
CARIBBEAN				
Barbados	1951	Codrington College (theological)	28	—
Jamaica	1952	University College of the West Indies, Jamaica	3	80 [c]
Trinidad	1950	University College of the West Indies	174 [c]	1
		Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture [d]	58	
ASIA				
Federation of Malaya	1951	University of Malaya	617	162
Hong Kong	1951	University of Hong Kong	607	243
Singapore	1951	University of Malaya	265 [e]	85 [e]

[a] Total number of students from all Territories at Makerere College, but not from Uganda only.

[b] As indicated already in table 14, in the figures given above are included 110 male and 47 female students enrolled in the Institute of Education.

[c] Approximate figures; the total number of students at the University of the West Indies was 254, which also includes students from other Territories.

[d] The figure on enrolment in this institution includes students from other countries and Territories.

[e] Included in total figure of students at the University of Malaya shown under "Federation of Malaya".

Higher education

Students in the Non-Self-Governing Territories receive higher education either locally and abroad or exclusively abroad, since many Territories do not have institutions of higher learning. At the level of higher education as at the lower levels, girls find themselves in a less favourable position than boys. The small proportion of girls who pass from primary to general secondary schools and the relatively small percentage of girls who complete a full course of secondary education contribute further to reduce the number of possible candidates for higher education, whether locally or abroad.

An attempt is made in table 15 to show, on the basis of the information available, the comparative number of boys and girls receiving higher education in the Territories. Statistics on students from Non-Self-Governing Territories receiving higher education in the metropolitan and other countries are given in the chapter on higher education. It is not possible in most cases to know how many of the total are girls. Furthermore, it is not always possible to determine in what field the students are receiving their training nor whether all those who are reported as studying abroad are necessarily enrolled in institutions of higher learning.

Factors impeding the development of the education of girls and women

Social factors

The development of girls' education is conditioned by numerous social factors involving the religious beliefs, attitudes, customs and cultural level of the populations concerned. In Territories with a predominantly Moslem population or with large Moslem communities, problems are reported as resulting from the status of women in society. The *Report of the Commission on Higher Education in West Africa*, discussing conditions in 1945 or earlier, states that the attitude of Islam "in West Africa towards women's education is an attitude of the greatest caution, not to say hostility... Meanwhile, the old conceptions act as a heavy brake upon the progress desired by the Moslem communities themselves".[29] The *Bulletin on Public Education in Morocco*, published by the Education Department, has stated that until recent years the Moroccan Moslem girls married early and led a secluded life in their parental homes, without being allowed to go out alone. Families who first took the initiative to send their girls to school were severely blamed by public opinion.[30] In the case of Tunisia it is stated that the education of European girls presents no difficulties, but that the education of Moslem girls has always been a delicate problem. However, although certain customs and traditions in Moslem communities constitute a real difficulty for the full development of girls' education, progress achieved in certain Moslem Territories, including recent progress recorded in Morocco and Tunisia, would tend to indicate that this problem is more social than religious.

Another natural aspect of the religious factor is that some parents are unwilling to send their children to schools operated by any religious group other than their own. It was reported from Nyasaland that "in some Yao districts, Moslem parents do not wish their daughters to attend Christian schools".[31]

In many Territories, and particularly where the tribal structure of society is still strong, certain attitudes, customs and tribal practices impede the development of girls' education. Among these factors are the rites of initiation and early marriage. Apprehension of the disruptive effects of educating women on social life and even on the morality of the girls has been reported from certain Territories.[32] From Nigeria it was reported in 1947 that, in certain rural areas, there exists among men a certain prejudice against the education of girls on the ground that educated women will not work.[33] Wherever such an attitude prevails, parents believe that education, or education beyond a certain level, would prejudice the girls' chance of marriage.

Persuasion is needed for those ignorant parents who appreciate only with great difficulty the values of education for their daughters, as the material advantages of girls' education are usually less obvious and immediate. In Nyasaland it was observed in 1948 that: "Many parents are still indifferent if not hostile to the idea of allowing their daughters to come to school, let alone sending them when they are young and seeing that they attend regularly."[34] From Uganda, the opinion had been expressed that progress in the appreciation of the values of education for girls must depend almost solely on an increase in the number of educated and enlightened parents.[35]

Economic factors

Associated with the social factors mentioned above are a number of economic factors, some of which arise from the nature of the agricultural economy based on family labour which characterizes the majority of the population of most Non-Self-Governing Territories.

In most parts of Africa south of the Sahara, women assume a heavy share in the agricultural work. Most girls are wanted by their mothers to help in household work, particularly in the rural areas, where the combination of domestic and field work puts a heavy burden on African women. Similarly in the Federation of Malaya, in Singapore and like Territories, mothers dislike losing the services of their daughters.

In these circumstances, parents consider sending their

[29] United Kingdom: Colonial Office, *Report of the Commission on Higher Education in West Africa*, pp. 13–14.

[30] Morocco: Direction de l'instruction publique, *Bulletin de l'enseignement public du Maroc*, No. 217, p. 5.

[31] Nyasaland: *Report on the Education of Women and Girls in Nyasaland*, p. 4.

[32] *Ibid.*, p. 14.

[33] Nigeria: *Memorandum on Educational Policy in Nigeria*, p. 30.

[34] Nyasaland: *Op. cit.*, p. 4.

[35] Uganda: *Annual Report of the Education Department for the year 1948*, Entebbe, 1950, p. 33.

daughters to school as an economic sacrifice. From the point of view of the men, educated wives are not viewed with much favour in certain rural communities in Africa on the ground that they are more demanding.[36]

The unwillingness of parents to send their daughters to schools or to keep them in school long enough is enhanced by lack of opportunity for remunerative employment for girls and, in some communities, by the payment of fees. In the case of Kenya, it was stated: "... African parents generally regard, or tend to regard, the fees paid for the education of their children as an investment on which they expect a cash return: in the case of girls, many fathers expect an enhanced bride-price on marriage; in the case of boys, and sometimes in the case of girls, they expect ready employment at a fairly high salary".[37] In the case of Nyasaland: "... Parents have told us that they are willing enough to let girls go to school, but where they have boys as well as girls to educate, the boys' claim has priority when fees have to be paid, because both they and their parents can see a direct economic gain from education. If there was an equally obvious economic advantage to be gained from girls' education, they would make the efforts to find the fees."[38]

Other factors

Factors such as lack of school facilities for girls, inequality, in many instances, of educational opportunity for girl students, non-adaptation, in many cases, of the curriculum to the needs of the girls, wastage and its consequences, etc., have already been briefly mentioned in previous sections of this study.

Shortage of trained women teachers is another factor, both educational and administrative, which impedes the development of girls' education. Such a shortage is not always due only to the small number of candidates with required academic background for admission to teacher-training institutions, nor to the large turnover due to marriage recorded, particularly in Africa, among the female teaching staff. In certain Territories the teaching profession may not be attractive enough for educated girls. In the case of Uganda it is stated: "Most educated girls prefer nursing, where they are usually more independent, slightly better paid, and much better housed... In fact, until we can make the women teachers' lives much more attractive, we shall only make very slow headway with girls' education."[39] Furthermore, there is the problem, particularly in Moslem communities, of the posting of unmarried women teachers to rural areas. It has been said, in regard to West Africa, that the "employment of Moslem women teachers is inevitably hedged about with every kind of restriction".[40]

It has been held that, in the past, the authorities have been overcautious at times in counteracting prejudices against girls' education or, in certain cases, have been slow in keeping pace with changes in the attitude of the population. This point is illustrated by the following statement from the *Memorandum on Educational Policy in Nigeria*: "To these [reasons for lag in girls' education] may be added the prejudice, now showing signs of abatement in certain areas, of African men against educated wives and the tendency of Colonial Governments, at first exclusively masculine, to ignore the claims of women to share in the benefits of education."[41] On the other hand, an example of what may be considered as a forthright stand in favour of girls' education is found in a statement from the Reconstruction and Development Plan for North Borneo: "In prewar years, there were practically no girls in any of the Government schools. On the other hand, 20 per cent of the children at the Chinese and Mission schools were girls. When the British Military Administration took over North Borneo, the policy was changed and every encouragement was given to the recruitment of girls in the Government schools, with the result that in 1946 there were 115 in Government schools out of a total of 1,660 receiving education throughout the country. It is proposed that this new policy of encouraging female education in Government establishments should be continued."[42]

Policies and trends

Significant changes in the attitude of the populations

In recent years, significant changes have taken place in the attitude toward the education of women and girls even among the people or among certain sections of the people which heretofore had shown reluctance or apathy towards such education. The report on the education of women and girls in Nyasaland said: "In every place we visited, there were a few women ready to speak about girls' education, about opportunities for women to take part in public life, and about the need for increased opportunities for economic independence. It was evident that much thought had been given to these problems, though so far there had been little chance of its finding expression."[43] The same report stated that "there is a general interest in education primarily among educated Africans, but in some areas also among Native Authorities".[44] It is further stated in the report that the majority of educated Africans interviewed were in favour of co-education mainly because they wanted girls educated to the same standards as boys, and they were doubtful whether the standard of teaching, especially by African women, is as good as that in boys' schools.

The Belgian Congo Ten-Year Plan stated that "for some time past, the educated Africans (*indigènes évoluants ou évolués*) have expressed the wish that

[36] Nyasaland: *Op. cit.*, p. 4; and Nigeria: *Op. cit.*, p. 30.

[37] Kenya: *African Education in Kenya*, Nairobi, 1949, p. 31.

[38] Nyasaland: *Op. cit.*, p. 4.

[39] Uganda: Education Department, *Report for 1951*, p. 18.

[40] United Kingdom: *Report of the Commission on Higher Education in West Africa*, p. 14.

[41] Nigeria: *Op. cit.*, p. 30, para. 5.

[42] North Borneo: *Reconstruction and Development Plan for North Borneo, 1948–1955*, p. 98.

[43] Nyasaland: *Op. cit.*, p. 5.

[44] *Ibid.*, p. 2.

schools offering a more advanced education for their girls be created".[45]

In Nigeria, the trend reported in 1947 continues to manifest itself: "In some Provinces, notably Bornu, Sokoto, Katsina and Niger, parents, spurred on by enlightened Native Administrations, good Visiting Teachers and hard-working Provincial Officers seem to be more concerned than they were in the education of girls; in other Provinces, such as Kano, Benue and parts of Zaria, girls' education is still very much neglected. It is obvious, however, that even in the most apathetic Provinces the touring of Provincial Women Education Officers is beginning to have some effect, and one sign of the growing interest in girls' schooling is the appointment of women to many Local Education Committees..."[46]

From Uganda it is reported that "girls' education in general has shown more liveliness in 1951 and there is cause for encouragement, though by no means for complacency. In the Upper Nile Diocese, the Native Anglican Church ruled that in their aided schools, which are almost co-educational, 25 per cent of the places in each Class I must be reserved for girls, and not filled unless girls were forthcoming".[47] In Cyprus, a large increase in the enrolment of girls since 1939 has been considered as a hopeful sign and as indicative of a profound social revolution accelerated during the war years. "One pleasing result, already evident, is the increased number of women offering for training as elementary school mistresses."[48] In Mauritius, a 1948 report on secondary education stated that Mauritian ideas about the education of girls, which have lagged behind those of other countries, were changing. "The old belief that a girl's future lies nowhere but in the home is breaking down. Tradition dies hard, but the war has shaken it severely, and the social bar on careers for girls in such fields as nursing, teaching and other social services is being relaxed."[49]

In Morocco also, considerable changes in attitude toward girls' education have been taking place during and since the Second World War. In the Federation of Malaya, where co-education is not favoured and reluctance to send girls to school had been prevalent in many communities, the growing demand for places for girls in recent years has led to a considerable increase in the number of girls in boys' schools.[50]

In practically all cases, the changes or trends that have been recorded are more marked in the urban than in rural areas.

[45] Belgian Congo: *Plan décennal pour le développement économique et social du Congo belge*. Editions de Visscher, Brussels, 1949, Vol. I, p. 89.

[46] Nigeria: *Annual Report for the Department of Education for the period 1st January 1950 to 31st March 1951*, Lagos, 1952, pp. 36–37.

[47] Uganda: *Education Department Report for 1951*, p. 17.

[48] Cyprus: *Report of the Department of Education for 1945–1947*, p. 25.

[49] Mauritius: *The Nichols Report on Secondary Education in Mauritius*, Port-Louis, 1948, p. 17.

[50] Federation of Malaya: *Report of the Committee on Education*, Kuala Lumpur, 1951, p. 2.

Policies and progress

The Governments responsible for the administration of Non-Self-Governing Territories recognize the importance of women's education and the need for improving and expanding it. Most of the development plans adopted for various Territories emphasized and made provision for the development of girls' education.

The Brazzaville Conference proclaimed, in regard to education in the French Overseas Territories, that "the importance given to girls' education should be equal to that attached to boys'".[51] As concerns Morocco, the Directorate of Public Instruction in that Territory stated that it attaches a primordial importance to the education of Moroccan Moslem girls.[52]

The report on African education in Kenya, which was adopted by the Legislative Council in 1950, stated that "the Committee has taken it as fundamental that boys' and girls' education should proceed side by side, and that the general principles apply with equal force to both".[53] A statement of policy on African education in Kenya declared that it was the intention of the Government to encourage the education of girls to the fullest extent.[54] In regard to the Indian population in Kenya, the Advisory Council on Indian Education has recommended that compulsory education should be applied to girls between the ages of 7 and 15.[55]

The *Memoranaum on Educational Policy in Nigeria* declared that it was vital for the development of the Northern Provinces that the education of women should be pressed forward without delay.[56] And in reference to the growing tendency towards the establishment of separate girls' schools at the senior primary stage, the *Nigeria Education Department Report* stated that this was desirable in order to avoid the subjection of the girls' interests to those of the boys, as in the case of provision for domestic science, physical training, and the like.[57] In Sierra Leone, the Board of Education adopted in 1948 a resolution welcoming the further attention devoted to the question of the advancement of female education in the Protectorate and recommended that all practical steps be taken to develop a satisfactory system of secondary education for girls.[58]

In the Federation of Malaya, the views expressed by the Committee on Malay Education referred, among other things, to equality between boys and girls in education, and to gradual replacement of men by women in primary school work as an object of policy.[59] The Education Ordinance of November 1952 provides

[51] France: *La Conférence africaine française de Brazzaville*, Paris, 1944, p. 44.

[52] Morocco: Direction de l'instruction publique, *Bulletin de l'enseignement public du Maroc*, p. 5.

[53] Kenya: *African Education in Kenya*, p. 73.

[54] Kenya: Education Department, *Report for 1950*, p. 41.

[55] Kenya: *Report of the Development Committee, Vol. II—Report of the Education Sub-Committee*, Nairobi, 1946, p. 106.

[56] Nigeria: *Memorandum on Educational Policy in Nigeria*, p. 33.

[57] Nigeria: *Education Department Report for 1950–1951*, p. 23.

[58] Sierra Leone: *Report on the Development of Education in Sierra Leone*, p. 16.

[59] Federation of Malaya: *Report of the Committee on Malay Education*, Kuala Lumpur, 1951, pp. 40–43.

TABLE 16

Progress in enrolment of girls in primary and secondary schools (1945-1951)

Territory	Primary schools 1945	Primary schools 1951	Secondary schools (junior and senior) 1945	Secondary schools (junior and senior) 1951
AFRICA				
Central				
French Equatorial Africa	2,214	13,735	62	179
Northern Rhodesia:				
Africans	28,780	52,986	—	22
Non-Africans	1,174	3,114	168	475
Nyasaland:				
Africans	82,921	96,675	—	7
Eurafricans	—	44	—	—
Asians	131	188	—	—
Europeans	66	195	—	—
East				
Kenya:				
Africans	70,546 [a]	88,262 [b]	—	1,316 [b]
Arabs	113	506	—	84
Asians	6,427	9,284	—	963
Europeans	1,478	1,801	—	1,003
Uganda:				
Africans	30,921	57,097	357	838
Asians	1,976	3,443	198	350
Europeans	77	216	—	—
South				
Basutoland	56,938	58,748 [b]	129	250 [b]
Bechuanaland	13,481	10,545 [b c]	25	46 [b]
Swaziland	6,493	8,084	145	185
West				
French West Africa	20,625	27,542	232	1,008
Gold Coast	43,448 [d]	68,964 [b d]	199 [d]	709 [b]
Nigeria	105,000	213,822	—	1,827 [d]
Sierra Leone	6,753 [e]	10,139 [b]	—	896
INDIAN OCEAN				
Madagascar	75,478	97,099	622	958
Mauritius	15,361 [f]	27,738	1,048 [f]	1,691
MEDITERRANEAN				
Cyprus	24,791	29,587 [b]	1,971	2,874 [b]
Morocco:				
Moroccans	24,388 [e]	43,307	331 [e]	1,051
Non-Moroccans	19,560	28,017	4,028	8,035
Tunisia:				
Moslems	9,745	23,556	66	405
Jews	6,145	5,800	257	672
French	10,304	14,804	1,528	3,121
Others	6,105	3,301	91	308
CARIBBEAN				
Barbados	14,323 [e]	14,723	904 [e]	961
British Guiana	29,093	35,541 [b]	320	381 [b]
British Honduras	5,270 [e]	5,987	285 [e]	367
Jamaica	91,761	107,607 [b]	2,377	3,187 [b]
Trinidad and Tobago	44,770	59,076 [b]	—	3,659 [b]
ASIA				
Federation of Malaya	16,786 [e]	187,269 [g]	2,858 [e]	6,418 [g]
Hong Kong	26,508 [e]	52,116	4,170 [e]	10,674
North Borneo	2,392 [e]	6,194	—	120
PACIFIC				
Fiji	17,569 [e]	21,950	99 [e]	561

for universal compulsory education; up to its adoption education in the Federation was compulsory only for Malay boys. In regard to Singapore, one of the general principles on which the educational policy was framed in 1947 was that equal educational opportunity should be afforded to the children—both boys and girls—of all races.[60]

The report on the colonial territories of the United Kingdom for 1952–1953 stated that it was particularly encouraging to note signs of increasing recognition of the importance of girls' education. It mentioned that, in Somaliland, for instance, the first government boarding school for girls was opened and that the first Fijian girls have been admitted to the Central Medical School for the Pacific.[61] Table 16 shows progress made in a number of Territories in respect of enrolment of girls in primary and secondary schools during the period 1945–1951. A number of Territories listed in the table, like French Equatorial Africa, Nigeria, Morocco, Tunisia, Uganda and others, show significant advance in the number of girls enrolled in primary schools, the outstanding cases being French Equatorial Africa, Nigeria and Tunisia (for Moslem girls). Considered on the basis of percentages, in many Territories the increase in enrolment is larger in secondary than in primary schools.

Concluding note

The question of educational opportunities for women is of universal interest. It forms part of the agenda of the United Nations Economic and Social Council's Commission on the Status of Women, and was one of the major topics discussed at the XVth International Conference on Public Education convened in 1952 jointly by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, and the International Bureau of Education.[62]

In regard to Non-Self-Governing Territories, this question is of particular importance. However, for a practical approach to its solution, it should be considered as an integral part of the general problem of the education and of the social and cultural evolution of

[60] Singapore: *Education Policy in the Colony of Singapore—Ten-year Programme*, p. 1.

[61] United Kingdom: *The Colonial Territories, 1952–53*, Cmd. 8856. London, H.M.S.O., 1953, p. 6, para. 26.

[62] United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization: *XVth International Conference on Public Education convened by UNESCO and the IBE: Proceedings and Recommendations*, Paris and Geneva.

Notes to Table 16:

[a] Girls on the roll in primary and post-primary schools.

[b] Figure for 1950.

[c] The explanation for the decline in numbers of girls enrolled in primary schools in 1950 is as follows: "Owing possibly to economic causes such as drought and foot-and-mouth disease and consequent preoccupations of both parents and children in the home, there has been a decrease in enrolment compared with previous years." (Bechuanaland: *Education Department Report for 1948*, p. 15.)

[d] The figures showing the enrolment of girls in primary schools in 1945 and 1950 include girls in senior primary or middle schools.

[e] Figure for 1946.

[f] Girls in government and government-aided schools only.

[g] Figure for 1949.

e inhabitants of those Territories. The solution of e problem of girls' education in the Non-Self-Governing erritories requires, therefore, direct and indirect action various domains and not only in the field of purely hool education.

Indirect action in the social field for the promotion f girls' education may be exercised to a certain degree hrough legislation aiming at the protection of women nd at the improvement of their status. Other measures -economic, administrative or social—may influence favourably the education of girls by creating or expand- g employment opportunities for women, by encour- ging the organization and development of women's ssociations, by appointing qualified women to educa- ional and civic committees.

However, it is primarily in the educational field that ost of the efforts must be made. The following xamples of measures that can be taken in that field re suggested by action already initiated or proposed n a number of Territories: increasing adoption of the olicy of free universal education and liberal provision f scholarships for girls, particularly for attendance t boarding senior primary, general secondary and ther post-primary and post-secondary institutions; n increase of the number of primary girls' schools, r of co-educational schools with appropriate differen- tiation of curriculum to meet the particular needs of girls, and reservation of a proportion of places for girls in co-educational schools located in areas where the percentage of girls' enrolment is low; increasing the number of senior primary and general secondary schools for girls; the provision of equal opportunities for vocational training for both sexes, account being taken of aptitudes and other particular circumstances; greater emphasis on the training of women teachers, from the point of view of both quantity and quality. An increase in the number of boarding schools at the upper primary and post-primary level, particularly for servicing rural areas, in order to have eventually a supply of female students emanating from rural areas which will be available for teacher-training, which will help in the future in solving the problem of posting women teachers, particularly unmarried ones, to rural areas; making the teaching profession more attractive for women by paying better salaries and improving working conditions; encouraging the appointment of married couples when both husband and wife are trained teachers, and consideration of the question of employment of married women teachers; organization or enlargement of educational opportunities for adult women as well as men side by side with the extension of school facilities for girls.

CHAPTER VI

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT AND EDUCATION

Introduction

The Committee on Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories, in its 1950 report on education, recorded the view that "education in its broadest sense is a necessary basis for progress in economic, social, cultural and political knowledge and responsibility" and that the extension of schooling and the raising of both literacy rates and the standard expressed by the term "literacy" are prerequisites for the raising of general conditions in all fields.

At its 1952 session in its report on social conditions, the Committee expressed the opinion that, in the major problems of social development, education in its broadest sense is the core of the solution. The Committee emphasized in particular the long-range objectives and constructive aspects of social policy. It held that new foundations are required on which the individual can build a new expression of his responsibility to his family and community, and that, in working towards this aim, a wholehearted support of the peoples, obtained by the stimulation of their own aspirations and their realization of their own needs, is indispensable. Action in this direction should not wait upon the slow erosion of ancient habits, but should take full account of the urgent necessity for the development of an integrated general social policy and a co-ordination of all efforts of social progress.[1]

The co-ordination of educational and social policies in Non-Self-Governing Territories, which has thus been repeatedly emphasized by the Committee, is particularly relevant in respect of fundamental education and the community development programmes. Information on initiatives undertaken in the Non-Self-Governing Territories has been placed before the Committee at previous sessions and, in particular, in 1952. In addition, under resolution 390 D (XIII) of the Economic and Social Council, adopted on 9 August 1951, a number of monographs have been published by the United Nations on community organization and development, some of them dealing exclusively with the dependent territories.[2] In the light of this information, the present study discusses the educational aspects of community development in relation to the school system and the general problem of social advancement considered both on the level of the local community and in its wider perspective.

Central problem of social development

The complex social situation, which underlies problems of social development in Non-Self-Governing Territories, is described in more detail in a study submitted to the Committee on Information in 1952 on "General Policies and Major Problems of Social Development".[3] That study stresses the difficult and critical phase of the transition period through which most Territories are passing. They have reached the stage where the sustaining forces of traditional social order have lost their efficacy and purpose, where economic change has satisfied some real wants, but also has created new problems of urban poverty, rural crisis, social disorganization and cultural loss, where the economic development, with the accompanying social changes, has given rise to new social aspirations, but has not produced enough material wealth to provide for the satisfaction of ever-increasing and multiplying social needs. The resulting task of reconstruction requires not only a broader and more secure economic foundation for the emerging society and a cure of numerous social malaises thwarting its growth, but also a general reform of production and social life, embracing the whole of the population and, above all, a development of a new social fabric indispensable for the creation and distribution of new wealth and for the assimilation and full enjoyment of the non-material benefits of civilization.

The programmes of economic and social development undertaken in the Territories are indicative of a policy trend towards the provision in the shortest time possible of the necessary means through which the task of reconstruction can be accomplished. The ultimate aim of these programmes is the evolution of the peoples in a society adequately equipped with the economic institutions, social services and cultural attributes which make possible higher standards of collective and individual life. Yet the attainment of this goal is beset with perplexing difficulties. Not only are many of the countries poor and primarily concerned with laying the economic foundations for future deve-

[1] United Nations: *Non-Self-Governing Territories. Summaries and analyses of information transmitted to the Secretary-General during 1950*, New York, 1951 (Sales No. 1951.VI.B.1.Vol.III), Vol. III, pp. 13 ff.; *Report of the Committee on Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories*, General Assembly Official Records: Seventh Session, Supplement No. 18, A/2219, New York, 1952, pp. 16, 17, 19.

[2] United Nations: *The United Nations Series on Community Organization and Development: France d'outre-mer*, December 1952; *Congo belge et Ruanda-Urundi*, March 1953; *United Kingdom Dependent Territories*, March 1953.

[3] United Nations: *Non-Self-Governing Territories. Special Study on Social Conditions in Non-Self-Governing Territories*, New York, 1953 (Sales No. 1953.VI.B.2), p. 30.

lopment; not only are they unable, in their present economic situation, to bear the cost of large-scale expansion of government-administered social services, but also—as stated in respect of the United Kingdom Territories[4]—"it is increasingly evident that this is not, by itself, sufficient to accomplish the full development of these communities. The nature and magnitude of the task are such that it is impossible of achievement without the active co-operation and the strenuous effort of the people themselves, guided and encouraged by their Governments".

In these circumstances, the task of building a new society cannot be accomplished merely by the expansion of production and of government-provided social services. It requires an immensely wider scope of active and creative participation of inhabitants on various levels and in various types of activities, through which progress can be achieved, reaching to the grassroots of the community, embracing all the local collectivities, urban and rural, and releasing the initiative and abilities of the people in diagnosing their problems and providing for their solution.[5] The paradox of the situation lies in the fact that the more those potentialities are circumscribed by endemic poverty, ignorance or ill-health and debilitated by maladjustments and disorganization, the more call has to be made on them. The development of human potentialities so as to make the dependent peoples, both as individuals and as collectivities, active, creative and efficient in building the new forms of their life, is the central problem of social and educational policy in the Non-Self-Governing Territories.

Social development and educational policy

Although in some Territories a fairly balanced and comprehensive educational system has advanced to a stage at which local educational problems have ceased to differ essentially from those of metropolitan areas, the majority of Non-Self-Governing Territories are confronted with a problem of an exceptional character. As stated in respect of Africa, "the problem of native education is peculiar because the circumstances of an undeveloped race are fundamentally different from those of a homogeneous and relatively stable modern community. In such a community the chief function of education is to maintain the continuity of culture by transmitting to successive generations not only accumulated knowledge but acquired standards of value; in Africa education is, and is intended to be, an instrument of change".[6] An intercultural situation exists, in which "an enduring, balanced and progressive transformation of native life"[7] is being sought through the institutions and media of an alien civilization. Not only is the content of school education part of an external culture, but the western school system itself is an institution alien to the indigenous community, absent in the original social structure, and functionally meaningless in the traditional system.

The absorption of school education thus depends largely upon the extent to which the school system has been assimilated by the native society as its own social institution. This, again, is intrinsically connected with the evolution of a new economic and social system of which the school becomes an integral part. The educational problem in Non-Self-Governing Territories is hence inseparable from the more general problem of the social development of the inhabitants.

In this situation, educational policy has to plan for a system of education which operates not only as an agency acculturating indigenous communities to the values of an external society, but also as a promoter of new social forms and a new type of civilization. It has to be oriented towards the future needs of the emerging society rather than towards the expectations of the immediate rewards which it may provide. It must work towards the fulfilment of native potentialities, so that the foreign influence may be absorbed without the loss of the cultural identity and social continuity of the dependent people.

The final aim of this policy implies the evolution of traditional non-literate societies into modern nations, fully equipped with the attributes and institutions of contemporary literary civilization, and able to benefit from them in their future and fuller development. Its success depends largely, as is frequently emphasized, upon the working of a school system, balanced to meet the rapidly growing occupational requirements of the expanding society, and extensive enough to provide for the education of the masses.

Generally, the response to the educational effort may be epitomized, as in the case of Kenya, by the "distance travelled from the technique of the digging stick, shifting cultivation and human transport", associated with "a view circumscribed by ignorance of alphabet, written numerals and the calendar", to a "horizon widened to include Makerere and University studies in the United Kingdom and the Dominions, all in the space of 50 years".[8]

The trend towards providing the Territories with a balanced school system has been on the increase, particularly in recent years. In many Territories, essential parts of the educational pyramid have been developed, at least in nuclear forms. Nevertheless, the weakness of the system generally lies in the narrowness and shallowness of its base. Despite unquestionable progress, the level of education, measured in terms of the percentage of children enrolled in primary schools and the corresponding average number of years of such enrolment, is still in most Territories very low. In a few Territories only, the primary school enrolment comprises 60 per cent or more of the 5–14 year old children. In most Territories, primary education is provided for

[4] United Kingdom: Central Office of Information, *Community Development in the United Kingdom Territories*, No. R.2437, London, 1952, p. 2.

[5] United Nations: Non-Self-Governing Territories. *Special Study on Social Conditions*, p. 39.

[6] Nigeria: *Memorandum on Educational Policy in Nigeria*, Lagos, 1947, p. 3.

[7] French West Africa: "Circulaire nº 107 E du Gouverneur général de l'A.O.F. en date du 8 avril 1933", *Journal officiel du Sénégal*, 1933, p. 345.

[8] Kenya: *African Education in Kenya*, Nairobi, 1949, p. 1.

only a fraction of the total school age population, and only for a part of the school age period.

No spectacular changes can be expected. Although it is generally recognized that nothing short of universal education can assure the efficacy and permanency of school influences in indigenous life, the fulfilment of this aim in the immediate future surpasses the unaided financial capacities of most Territories. Even with considerable increases in the educational budgets, and with the partial devolution of the financial responsibility for education on local authorities, it has indeed been claimed that "a full primary schooling for the generality, with secondary schooling for a substantial minority and higher education for the elite, would require expenditure that no government at present dare contemplate".[9]

The effects of schooling on children are further impaired by the divergence between the formative influences of the school and the traditional value systems of the home community. Such a divergence is bound to exist in any society where the school system comes from without. It becomes immensely magnified by the inter-cultural colonial situation where the school on the one hand and the community and the home on the other, constitute foci of two separate cultural worlds, different in kind and type, and frequently, as is illustrated by the statement below, opposed to each other:

> "Two environments, two forces acting simultaneously and initially antagonistic to each other. On the one side, the school, at its beginnings, supported by the authority of the conqueror; and on the other, the African family, conservative in every respect, closed and systematically opposed to all the penetration of civilization, refusing the schooling of children or admitting it reluctantly, and anxious, as in every society, to continue the transmission to the young generation of all its heritage of knowledge, habit, custom and rite. Hence the initial clash of these two forces, the new one, good or bad, being considered as a disturbing factor. African children, before they go to school and during the school period, receive from the social environment of the family and the clan an education totally different from that of the school, an education bordering on drill, with its multitude of 'categorical imperatives', its strict conformism, its initiation to various usages and customs, appealing vigorously to the child's imagination.... These children moving from one environment to another, pass through a long period of adaptation, during which there is in them a dichotomy of the dual world, the family on one side, and the school on the other. Beyond the family circle, there is a network of influences which come from the street, the quarter, the village, the religious authorities, and these impede the deposition of the segments brought by the school."[10]

The fact that in many cases the school remains "largely exotic in character and so often ... unable really to reflect and interpret the society which it is intended to serve",[11] is related not only to possible deficiencies of the curriculum, to an unfamiliar language of instruction, or to imperfectness of educational practice, but basically and essentially to the inability of the traditional society, as long as it remains unchanged and undesirous of change, to assimilate the school, with its external literary culture and the social implications of this culture, as its own social institution. In such a situation, "home and school either revolve each on its own axis independently of the other, or they pull in different directions ... with resulting confusion in the child ... and a tendency for the educational efforts of both to cancel out".[12]

The gap between the school and the community persists even where the original attitude of distrust gives way to a positive appreciation of school education and a growing popular demand for schools. Very generally, as the information indicates, the school has presented itself to the local communities not so much as an institution preparing the rising generations for life in the community and assisting its progress, but rather as a mechanism to place the members of the community in the outside world in a higher economic and social class. "It is the material side of European civilization that leaps to the uncritical eye: its ideals, more subtle and elusive, are harder to seize. Education, or even literacy, is at present sought by the African mainly on economic grounds."[13] In West Africa, parents "send their children to school in order that they may qualify for 'black-coated' jobs. In many areas the position has already been reached that there are not enough jobs of this sort to absorb more than a proportion of school-leavers. As farming is often regarded as neither a profession nor full-time occupation, parents feel that they should maintain their educated children in idleness until a suitable clerical job is found... This is now becoming a matter of grave concern since, in some areas, it is affecting the school enrolment".[14] The fact that "educationists and others have signally failed ... to impress upon the African the dignity and necessity of physical toil" is deplored in Uganda. "As education spreads, so the number of persons prepared to undertake any work with their own hands diminishes in inverse ratio... [This] is... particularly serious in a basically poor country... which is only now beginning to emerge from the primitive."[15] In Malaya, "no interest in education *per se*, no reverence for secular, as distinct from religious, education" is a common occurrence. Although many Malays "approve of sending their children to school

[9] Gambia: *Report of a Commission appointed to make Recommendations on the Aims, Scope, Contents and Methods of Education in the Gambia*, Bathurst, 1951, p. 32.

[10] France: "Antinomies pédagogiques africaines", *L'éducation africaine*, No. 14, Dakar, 1952, p. 17.

[11] United Kingdom: *Colonial Office, Mass Education in African Society*, Colonial No. 186, London, 1944, p. 6.

[12] Federation of Malaya: *Report of the Committee on Malay Education*, Kuala Lumpur, 1951, p. 15.

[13] Nigeria: *Memorandum on Educational Policy in Nigeria*, pp. 49 ff.

[14] United Kingdom: *African Education*, London, 1953, p. 16.

[15] Uganda: *A Development Plan for Uganda*, Entebbe, 1946, pp. xi ff.

so that they can become *gurus* (teachers), policemen, soldiers," yet "the normal reaction is that if a boy or a girl is to work *sawah* (in the fields), time spent in school is a waste".[16]

Thus, in cases such as the above, a school system has been instituted to introduce cultural and social changes, and yet the accomplishment of these changes is circumscribed by antecedent conditions without which the school would be unable to fulfil its function in the native society. This dilemma of educational and social policy has been made singularly acute, as is indicated in an excerpt quoted below, as a result of the rapid disintegration of the traditional system, which is not yet fully compensated by the formation and consolidation of institutions, value systems and moral forces of a new social order:

"The efficiency of the school in promoting the good life of the community depends on the extent to which it is able to co-operate with the moral forces in African society and to build on these as a foundation. Where ... economic forces have drastically disrupted social bonds, weakened traditional restraints and encouraged an unregulated individualism destructive of the best elements of communal life, the resulting social ferment creates an extremely difficult problem for administration and education alike: indeed it is analogous to that of the 'displaced persons' in the Europe of today with the added difficulty that an entirely new economy must be built up before a solution can be reached. Not only must the school be related to the traditions of society of which it is part, it must further social progress by interpreting the changes which are taking place in African society, by communicating the new knowledge and skill necessary to improve the life of the community, by supplying new motives and incentives to replace those which have ceased to be adequate and by fostering an intelligent interest in environment which will heighten for individual and community alike the enjoyment of life."[17]

Community development: aims and principles

In Non-Self-Governing Territories, community development is a trend of social policy of comparatively recent growth and in many cases it has not yet advanced beyond an initial experimental stage. Nevertheless, it has in the last decade made rapid strides so that in many Territories it may be considered to be a firmly established policy.

The trend has a long history. Its general objectives were implied in the concept of trusteeship for peoples "not yet able to stand by themselves under the strenuous conditions of the modern world" and in the principle of the paramountcy of native interests, interpreted in the sense "that the creation and preservation of a field for the full development of native life is a first charge on any territory, and that the Government having created this field in the establishment of an organized governmental administration of the modern type has the duty to devote its energies to assisting the natives to make the best possible use of the opportunities open to them".[18]

While numerous community development projects in Non-Self-Governing Territories have much in common with the similar undertakings in other underdeveloped areas, community development, as a social process and as a national or governmental policy, has in many a colonial society developed a number of approaches and functions which, although not exclusive to the colonial areas, are nonetheless of particular importance and significance to the problems of general social advancement and the progressive evolution of their peoples.

As a policy, community development (or "mass education" as it was originally named) originated in an appraisal of the critical situation created by the acceleration of economic and social changes with their disruptive influence, the mounting discontent of the peoples, and their helplessness to deal with the crisis within the collapsing framework of their traditional institutions. "The process of social adjustment required as a result of economic changes in a technological age—it has been pointed out[19]—lags behind the much swifter pace of economic change. That lag is sometimes accompanied by real danger of social upheaval. This strain is likely to be all the greater where the economic changes which necessitate adjustment are not understood and are often violent and fluctuating. The problems that are thus set out for mass education may acquire a special urgency."

Community development from the outset was conceived as a policy for the generation and mobilization of the social forces of the emerging society with a view to an overall social reconstruction and cultural reorganization. It was planned as a broad and penetrating action of developing the native potentialities by initiating and assisting a movement of social reform, based on the initiative and leadership emanating from the people.

Community development as a social movement

A definition of community development through mass education as generally understood in the Territories under the United Kingdom administration is condensed in the following description:[20]

"Mass Education is a movement designed to promote better living for the whole community, with the active participation and, if possible, on the initiative of the community, but if this initiative is not forthcoming spontaneously, by the use of techniques for arousing and stimulating it in order to secure its

[16] Federation of Malaya: *Op. cit.*, p. 14 ff.

[17] Nigeria: *Memorandum on Educational Policy in Nigeria*, pp. 17 ff.

[18] United Kingdom: *Memorandum on Native Policy in East Africa*, Cmd. 3573, London, H.M.S.O., 1930, p. 5.

[19] United Kingdom: *Mass Education in African Society*, p. 7.

[20] United Kingdom: *Mass Education Bulletin*, December 1949, Vol. 1, No. 1, p. 2.

active and enthusiastic response to the movement. Mass Education embraces all forms of betterment; it includes the whole range of development activities in the district, whether these are undertaken by Government or unofficial bodies; in the field of agriculture, by securing the adoption of better methods of soil conservation, better methods of farming and better care of livestock; in the field of health by promoting better sanitation and water supplies, proper measures of hygiene and infant and maternity welfare; and in the field of education by promoting literacy and adult education as well as by the extension and improvement of schools for children. Mass Education must make use of the co-operative movement and must be put into effect with the closest association with local government bodies."

The essence of the definition is the concept of " movement " and the reference to the participation and initiative of the community, and to the use of techniques for arousing this initiative. As numerous writings and reports on community development attest, the movement is conceived not as a sum total of activities on a local community level, but as a broad social movement, reverberating through the whole society and animated not only by local self-interest, but also by wider collective aspirations.

In French Territories " fundamental education ", corresponding to the British policy of community development, although still in a formative stage, is rapidly expanding. The following exposé of its principles and aims describes some of the essential functions of the mobile teams which are to be sent to outlying districts :[21]

" In the vast territories of Africa, all of mankind still lives withdrawn from civilization, in an intellectual and moral retreat, which paralyzes all real progress of the society. Civilization has reached these peoples only under its economic or administrative aspects...

" Fundamental education ... should be a dynamic element, acting upon adolescents and adults not as a nourishment, but as a ferment. Everywhere on their way, the mobile teams of fundamental education will bring suggestions, ideas, doubts, they will make minds to pose questions and try to create a new want : a desire to learn, to enlighten oneself, a taste for knowledge rather than knowledge itself. For the masses that are still asleep, fundamental education is but a bell of awakening... This human and moral function can, on a practical level, be supplemented by social and civil pre-education... It will lead to the inculcation of elementary notions of personal and social hygiene, of a whole stock of knowledge which, rudimentary as it is, can positively influence the social evolution of individuals...

" Based on such a concept, fundamental education may become a more economical and rapid means of fighting illiteracy than the school... It will assist in laying foundations for the civic life of the Africans of to-morrow, it will favour social improvements..."

[21] French West Africa : " L'éducation de base en A.O.F.", *L'éducation africaine*, No. 5, Dakar, 1950, pp. 6 ff.

Local basis and supra-local perspective

While in direct administrative practice the emphasis in community development is on the local community, it is realized that cultural changes and group-forming processes of a wider dimension are involved. In culturally homogeneous modern societies, the progress of local groups is facilitated by the established mechanisms of popular expansion. In a colonial society the situation may be incomparably more complex. The inspirations and designs for better living may come from an alien civilization and from a society of an entirely different type than the indigenous community.

The assimilation and local application of patterns and standards of the external culture is then hardly possible without a complete reorganization of the traditional structure and the re-integration of society on a new basis, able to absorb the new type of civilization. This involves not only the establishment and expansion of a nation-wide network of social institutions, but also the development of a new culture, accepted as the basis for social solidarity within a framework of a wider collectivity.

This conviction that community development policy, whatever its methods or immediate goals, is inevitably concerned with a major social reform, which transcends the local basis, is evident in the thinking of the Advisory Committee on African Education of 1944 :[22]

"The realization of citizenship begins in a small unit where common loyalty and common interests are expressed in daily activities and mutual service. Within these small units people hold tenaciously to what may appear as a narrow sectionalism, operating behind barriers which divide them from their fellows. Contact with the modern world is breaking down these barriers and expanding the social and political horizons of the people. But the conception of common citizenship is vastly wider ... intermediate behind the small sectional units and the all-embracing citizenship we shall have to envisage ... ' national units '."

The notion that progress of a local community comes not from itself but that it depends upon the operation, within its structure, of incentives and mechanisms of a wider collectivity and is hence inseparable from the growth and expansion of this collectivity, has received a still stronger emphasis in the interpretation given to the community development by the Colonial Office.[23] " The problem, broadly speaking, of social welfare among these units is to inspire a purpose for the broadening and adaptation ... of communal spirit to a wider

[22] United Kingdom : *Mass Education in African Society*, p. 8.

[23] United Kingdom : Colonial Office, *Social Welfare in the Colonies*, Colonial Memorandum No. 10, November 1946, London, p. 3; Read, Margaret, " Common Ground in Community Development Experiments ", *Community Development Bulletin*, June 1951, Vol. II, No. 3, pp. 41 ff.; Batten, T. R., " Community as Common Feelings ", *Community Development Bulletin*, March 1952, Vol. III, No. 2, pp. 21 ff.

sphere, in which small communities are not isolated, working for themselves within the family group, but working with a broader conception of responsibility to the national community as a whole, aiming as a larger unit, to achieve equal standards of health, efficiency and mutual responsibility with other groups."

The emergence of social and cultural leadership in the traditional groups is an essential part of the transformation of the traditional system. It is symptomatic of the new wants and aspirations of the people, and of the growth of a new community sense :[24]

"Guidance from above will be cold and ineffective unless it is able to inspire the wise leadership among the people themselves. Measures taken by authority must carry with them the active and understanding participation of the community itself. Success presupposes objectives with which the people can readily identify themselves so far as they can understand them, and it is for those who guide to secure that understanding so that the people may realize that the objectives are worth sustained effort. That understanding and that willingness to make and sustain an effort will be achieved only if the real co-operation of the people is secured. It can best be secured through the leadership from among the people themselves."

As the following excerpt emphasizes, the leadership sought should be conceived not as a phenomenon of a strictly local importance, but as a part of a more comprehensive and complex leadership structure functioning in a wider collectivity as a mechanism indispensable for the integration and expansion of a new cultural pattern :[25]

"Provision must be made for the initiative in planning and execution to come from the people themselves, as well as from those in the Government and voluntary organizations who normally direct educational and welfare schemes. Moreover the people, or at least the most energetic and progressive among them, must be prepared to take hold of the teaching and do it themselves as a piece of the public service of first importance... This popular movement must also be closely linked from the beginning with centres of higher learning from which we shall expect to draw some of the planners and chief leaders in this work. There should never at any time be a divorce between higher learning, village schools, adult literacy and welfare work, and it should be borne in mind that research and experiments of all kinds must be directed constantly towards maintaining a close link between them all."

Administrative organization

While nowhere has community development led to the institution of a new system of administration, a reorganization of the existing administrative structure and its adaptation to the purposes and requirements of the new policy constitutes almost a revolution in the dominant principles of colonial administrative practice.[26] This revolution is largely consequential upon the principle that the progress of a Territory is not an exclusive responsibility of the administration, but is a common task for the government and the people. The implications of this principle in the redefinition and reorientation of the government's function have been described in the case of Northern Rhodesia as meaning that from the very start the African must progress on his own feet and not be carried by the government.[27] When any tribe or social unit is prepared to make strenuous efforts to improve itself, the entire government organization should be available to help it, but nothing should be done for the people which they are capable of doing themselves. It follows that there must be a flow of ideas upward from the population as a whole. This upward flow of ideas from the African population will cover a much wider field than the economic or social service departments. It will include the whole process of evolution of African society and its government to meet the changing conditions. A few examples are improved African housing in rural areas, village organization and layout, co-operatives, community centres, organization of marketing of economic produce, rural industries of every kind, arts and crafts, hobbies and leisure-time activities, community enterprises such as grinding-mills or use of water-power, and the like. The government must have an organization which can discover where demand for schemes of this kind is strong or stimulate the demand where it is weak, and assist each community to achieve its stated objectives.

The transfer of the responsibility for community development to the people has led in the British African Territories to the formation, on a district or provincial level, of advisory and policy-making bodies, composed of officials, indigenous leaders and representatives of voluntary organizations and concerned with the planning and execution of the community development programmes in the area. In Sierra Leone, for instance, community development committees have been set up in each province, consisting of technical experts locally available who serve as official members, and of unofficial members drawn from the districts. The committees shape a policy of community development suited to the conditions in each province, study schemes submitted from districts, and put approved schemes into operation. "Great importance is attached to the stimulation and working out of ideas for district development at the district level in consultation with the District Councils. The object is that no scheme shall be excluded from consideration which has popular support, is calculated to improve village life, and is feasible."[28] In some Territories, similar functions are being performed by Native Authorities or by agencies

[24] United Kingdom : *Mass Education in African Society*, p. 9.
[25] *Ibid.*, p. 13.

[26] United Kingdom : Ratten, T. R., "The Community Development", *Corona, The Journal of His Majesty's Colonial Service*, September 1951, Vol. III, No. 9, pp. 330 ff.
[27] Northern Rhodesia : *Ten-Year Development Plan for Northern Rhodesia*, 1947, Lusaka, 1947, p. 51.
[28] United Kingdom : *The Colonial Territories, 1950–51*, Cmd. 8243, London, H.M.S.O., 1950, p. 115.

of the local government or of the municipal administration.

With these bodies operating for planning and general supervisory purposes, government "development teams" act as operational units of community development on the district and provincial levels. The teams provide means for the co-ordination of field work between the administrative officers and the heads and members of the professional and technical departments of the area. Community development is described as " essentially a particular kind of teamwork between the existing branches and departments of the Government machine, and between them and unofficial groups ".[29]

In this administrative machinery, the key personnel is provided by the " community development officers ", or other members of administration who act *ex officio* as the links between the administration and the community development movement.

A comprehensive description of the tasks and responsibilities of the community development officers has been given for Malaya.[30]

It is stated that a community development officer at headquarters will do his work mainly through properly trained subordinates in the localities. Local experience and a sound knowledge of local languages and customs are prime conditions of successful enterprise in mass education. Without this there can be no discovery or release of hidden energies and potential interests in the local community, nor any winning and holding of the local people's confidence. Hence community development officers at district level should be drawn themselves from the local people. Secondly, since the community development officer has to assist technically in making or remaking a human community, he needs skill in imparting an eager team-spirit to what often starts as a heterogeneous collection of persons enlisted for work on development projects. He has to keep wide open the traffic-routes between different administrative levels and between different administrative branches at the same levels, so that there may be free communication at all times up and down the whole chain of responsibility and along the laterals. If there is one thing more important than that the rank and file should know what is in the mind of higher authority, it is that higher authority should know what is in the mind of the rank and file. It is pointed out that the Community Development Officer, in the third place, prospects for social aspirations, hopes and needs as the geologist prospects for minerals. He is the trained person possessing the techniques for tapping and channelling the deep-lying motives of popular movements; and he will guide other members of the development teams in applying these techniques. He should combine sympathy and gentle feeling towards groups he does not himself belong to, with enough of the equipment of the social scientist to be able to marshal relevant social data with accuracy, and to give a diagnosis and a prognosis of a social situation. Above all, he is not to be afraid of tensions in the community, or to suppose that he is making a success of his job only when the local people can be pictured as one big happy family. Tensions are the very medium in which his particular art must work. Tensions are evidence of needs, and needs are motives, and motives are the driving power without which social building can neither start nor keep going.

" In all human action, energies awaiting an outlet break through certain barriers at certain points. The C.D.O.'s business is to identify blocked energies and to help remove the relevant barriers, and to do this in such a way that the achievement of each popular satisfaction leads to a new series of popular needs (i.e., tensions of motives or dissatisfactions) spaced out along a rising gradient of welfare."

The work of the group organizer in Puerto Rico is similarly described[31] as meaning that even during his period of training he learns that the eventual success or failure of the objectives of the Division of Community Education is measured by the growth of democratic participation within the communities as the people work toward the solution of their common problems. From direct contact with representatives of many federal and insular agencies he learns also of the community developments already under way in a number of localities and he understands fully that his role must be one of co-operating rather than competing with such efforts. Furthermore, before he goes to the field he has studied various ways in which his actions might be of disservice. Thus in any community with which he later comes to be identified in terms of helping the people examine a problem and work toward its solution, he is alert to a few fundamental points that guide his actions.

These points are :

" 1. That the community must seek him out and draw him into a more intensive relationship with them rather than the other way round.

" 2. That the need for his help must be felt by the community as a whole rather than a single person.

" 3. That from the first any methods used to discuss, plan, and resolve a community problem are those which guarantee maximum possible opportunity for the participation of all members of the community.

" 4. That the forces at work to bring the community to the full realization of the existence of the problem and the ways to go about solving it are forces at work within the community and are based on sound democratic educational principles.

" 5. That no previously made plans are brought to the community with the intention of having them carried out by the community."

The assumption underlying this approach is that the people themselves have important actual or potential resources of ideas, ideals, manpower and loyalties. These constitute enormous forces which, if liberated and integrated, can bring about substantial increases in

[29] Federation of Malaya: *Report of the Committee on Malay Education*, p. 64; United Kingdom: *Community Development in the United Kingdom Dependencies*, pp. 2 ff.

[30] *Ibid.*, pp. 63 ff.

[31] Puerto Rico: *Annual Report of the Commissioner of Education 1950–1951*, San Juan, 1952, pp. 73 ff.

their living standards. The corollary of this assumption is that measures undertaken on a self-help basis with extensive participation by the people concerned must, as a rule, be activities having meaning and significance to them. There are involved, therefore, in the community development approach, certain built-in automatic controls which decrease the possibility of using this approach to undertake activities not in harmony with the interests and aspirations of the people concerned.

Educational component

In its early stages, community development was planned and conceived largely as a phase of general educational policy, by which education extended its scope from the preoccupation with the school system to a broad field of informal education, encompassing all groups and communities. This aspect is stressed in the following summary of the objectives of community development:[32]

"1. The wide extension of schooling for children with the goal of universal school within a measurable time.

"2. The spread of literacy among adults, together with a widespread development of literature and libraries without which there is little hope of making literacy permanent.

"3. The planning of mass education of the community as a movement of the community itself, involving the active support of the local community from the start.

"4. The effective co-ordination of welfare plans and mass education plans so that they form a comprehensive and balanced whole."

The educational component of community development at the local level, it has been suggested, is by no means limited to a subordinate task of giving "as many people as possible rudimentary training so that they could get to work in the villages themselves". Community development is "basically an educational concept and the alternative term mass education is a useful reminder of this... It is a matter of education, inasmuch as that means putting ideas across, getting the people to have ideas for themselves, striking a relationship of understanding between those in authority and those not. The success of the movement will depend more on the methods and techniques of winning support than on material results achieved... What is of first importance is breaking down the barrier of inertia and so unleashing the hidden potentialities of the community".[33]

Mass education, as an integral part of community development, is essentially concerned with the cultivation and development of the human potentialities. Its long-term objectives are inseparable from the general purposes of all education in Non-Self-Governing Territories summarized in the following statement:[34]

"In this matter, as in so many others, the Colonial peoples are setting themselves the task of passing in one generation through a development over which the leading nations of the West have spent two by no means leisurely centuries... In this period of rapid transition, education becomes of greater importance and urgency than ever before, and must aim at fulfilling the special needs created by the social and political changes. It is not enough to train patient and skillful and reliable farmers, artisans, clerks, and minor-grade employees; it is not enough even to train professional men, technicians, and men capable of assuming responsibility in managerial and administrative positions. We have to go further and train men and women as responsible citizens of a free country. Constitutional advance, culminating in responsible self-government, is a necessary consequence of advances in general education. It is a question of improving the education provided so as to give a conscious preparation for citizenship, of passing on to the Colonial peoples as much as may be possible of our own political experience, in order that government of the Colonial peoples by the people and for the people may be a real thing. The advance towards the political freedom will not and must not be delayed. But if political freedom is to benefit all the people and not merely the favoured few, then all the people must be guided to use it for the common good. This is the task of education."

Educational aspects of community development

The educational frontiers of community development are circumscribed, on the one hand, by the needs for social education of different types of communities and different segments of the population, and, on the other, by the necessity of fostering the growth of new structural forms and new social forces through which education can be absorbed as an autonomous function of the emerging society.

In the first place, there is a vast field of welfare education, in the widest sense of the word, required by rural communities and areas, where the reform of agricultural techniques is unlikely to succeed without a simultaneous reform in the social life and the cultural standards of the people. Education for rural welfare is of long standing in the Non-Self-Governing Territories. It is an important part of the routine activities of the agricultural, public health and welfare services and is also implicit in the work of the village schools. Most community development and mass education projects actually carried out in Non-Self-Governing Territories are, in fact, concerned with the rural areas, and education is part of the general raising of economic and social conditions.[35]

[32] United Kingdom: *Mass Education in African Society*, p. 10.

[33] Webber, F. D., "Community Development—Some Reminders", *Community Development Bulletin*, June 1952, Vol. III, No. 3, pp. 44 ff.

[34] United Kingdom: Colonial Office, *Education for Citizenship in Africa*, Colonial No. 216, London, H.M.S.O., 1948, p. 6.

[35] United Nations: *Non-Self-Governing Territories. Summaries and Analyses of Information transmitted to the Secretary-General during 1951*, New York, 1952 (Sales No. 1952.VI.B.1), Vol. I, pp. 39 ff.; *Special Study on Economic Conditions and Development in Non-Self-Governing Territories*, New York, 1952 (Sales No. 1952.VI.B.2), pp. 272 ff.; *Special Study on Social Conditions in Non-Self-Governing Territories*, pp. 137 ff.

Urban and industrial areas, particularly those of recent growth, constitute another situation where there is an urgent need " to correct the disequilibria between the customary ways of life and the conditions of progress and to facilitate the adaptation of the native society to these conditions by an educational action ".[36]

Common to both rural and urban areas, as a special task for social education, are the problems of family and child welfare. With the progressing disintegration of the traditional family system and the increasingly urgent need for its reintegration on new foundations, this comprises not only the inculcation of new health habits and child-rearing techniques, but—also and above all—the propagation of new concepts of parental responsibilities and of new patterns of home life so as to render it emotionally satisfactory and culturally inspiring to all the members of the group. While family education is necessarily concerned with the family group as a whole, it is sometimes maintained that the approach to this problem should, in the first instance, be made through the educational action among the women and girls. " All improvements in the homes and in the bringing up of children will be delayed until a great drive is made to educate the women and girls... The health and hygiene of the masses ... are largely in the hands of the women. While women and girls are uneducated, little or no progress can be made." [37]

Finally, there is a problem of the masses of children, both in towns and villages, who acquire in schools new cultural interests and aspirations, but are unable to cultivate or even retain them when exposed, after leaving school, to the influences of conditions which have lost their force and validity or to the inducements of the disorganized environment of a city slum. The problems of mass education among those are summarized in the following excerpt: [38]

> " As long as the governing consideration is that a child's school life is likely to be limited to a very few years ... the question of what can be done to keep alive and extend the work of the school afterwards is of paramount importance... In what ways can a continuing system of informal education be mobilized ... to take over where the school has had to leave off? ... It seems that the informal system can be employed to make up for the deficiencies... The Literature Bureaux have a vital part to play in the provision of suitable reading material and, most urgently perhaps at this stage, in promoting periodicals or other literature specially written to meet the needs of adolescents who have finished their few years of formal schooling. Community development and other forms of practical adult activities aim at the improvement of material conditions through anti-erosion measures, compost making, poultry keeping, co-operative buying and many other means whereby the average peasant may improve his standard of living. Social welfare can provide more interest in life through wireless, films, libraries, discussion groups, etc. Perhaps there is much to be learned from recent developments in the United Kingdom, both in rural education and rural welfare, and in the efforts to provide satisfying leisure activities in the towns."

Literacy and mass education

Literacy campaigns [39] are more revolutionary and more complex in their results than suggested by the eradication of illiteracy. Directly and indirectly, they are concerned with the reorganization of traditional non-literate societies in the form of a new type of civilization, the very essence of which is a literate culture. The aim is not so much to introduce the people to the techniques of literacy as to make them receptive, individually and collectively, to the values, systems, ideas, norms and standards of a wider collectivity. Community improvement, conceived as a single operation with limited and simple practical objectives, can also be improvised and carried out successfully in completely non-literate groups. But the condition of a dynamic movement of the people to achieve and maintain progress in their communities rests largely with their full " functional literacy ", i.e., a literacy through which the formative influence of a new environment can become active in the life of the local group.[40]

> " In focusing attention upon the whole community as a unit to be educated, we are aiming at getting people everywhere to be aware of, to understand and take part in, and ultimately to control the social and economic changes which are taking place among them... The people who can least understand these changes, and who therefore sometimes obstruct them, are as a rule those who are still living and thinking in the traditional manner of their forefathers. The demands of the modern world upon these people and their country necessitate some widening of their horizon, some adjustment to new conditions. So far ... we have acted on the assumption that people would eventually adopt improved methods of agriculture, a more nutritious diet, hygienic surroundings and western medical ideas without learning to read and write. The evidence ... is overwhelmingly strong on the importance of adult literacy, as an essential means of achieving all-round progress. We endorse that view and therefore place adult literacy in the forefront of the mass education programme."

Territorial experiences in mass education suggest that where the people have had little vital education, literacy in a broad sense needs to be viewed as essential in stimulating and sustaining mass participation in the betterment action on the community level.

[36] United Nations: *Série de publications des Nations Unies relative à l'organisation et au développement général des collectivités : France d'outre-mer*, December 1952, p. 3. Cf. also *Special Study on Social Conditions in Non-Self-Governing Territories*, pp. 81 ff.

[37] United Kingdom: *Report of the Commission on Higher Education in West Africa*, Cmd. 6655, London, H.M.S.O., 1945, p. 28.

[38] United Kingdom: Colonial Office, *Study of Educational Policy and Practice in British Tropical Africa*, London, H.M.S.O. (n.d.), p. 5.

[39] Read, Margaret: " Some Aspects of Adult Education ", *Community Development Bulletin*, September 1952, Vol. III, No. 4, pp. 62 ff.

[40] United Kingdom: *Mass Education in African Society*, pp. 14 ff.

The institution of literate culture in a non-literate society, convinced that literacy is useful for careers in the outside world, can hardly be achieved without a re-orientation of the people as to the nature and potential significance of education in their own life, and without a simultaneous development of a literature able to reach the people and to impregnate their newly awakened interests with wider meanings. A promising attempt at making formal and informal education of direct significance is the co-ordination of the literacy campaigns with the community development action under the wider concept of "mass education" or "fundamental education". The policy and its guiding principles are summarized in the following excerpt:[41]

"Prominent in a mass education must be attack on illiteracy, but mass education for community development is something more than this. It is an attack on ignorance, apathy and prejudice, on poverty, disease and isolation—on all the difficulties which hinder the progress of a community. It is an education which is designed to teach people, not merely how to read, but how to live. Passive reception of ideals or information is not enough; every programme should be designed through the stimulation of initiative or the encouragement of local self-help to lead to action either by individuals or by the community or both... What is most needed in the village people ... is ... knowledge of their own potentialities, of their village's possibilities and of their country's place in the world. Ignorance can be attacked and knowledge brought to the village by a determined and widespread mass education effort of which the spearhead should be an assault on illiteracy. But ... literacy is not an end in itself, or the sole method of proceeding; it is the means to an end, to progress in the farm, in the home and in the village; a means to further education of adults, to the strengthening and securing full advantage from the formal education of children and to development of local government."

The importance attached to the development of the literate culture is shown in many Territories by the promotion of periodicals and other publications in the indigenous and metropolitan languages. Some of these publications are in popular demand and have reached considerable circulation. The work of the African literature bureaux should be mentioned. Their purpose is not mainly to provide "follow-up literature" after literacy campaigns, but to assist in the all-around development of the peoples of the Territories.[42]

The social implications of indigenous literature, or of other means of artistic expression and communication, are perceived in areas outside Africa. In the Federation of Malaya "the writing of technical, historical, educational and other books ... for the Malay student and for the general reader of Malay" is—as the following excerpt indicates[43]—considered to be only the first step towards a further development:

"We hope for a further consequence also; namely, that there might vibrate through the Malay people a renewed impulse to spontaneous authorship. In them a novel kind of group-consciousness is visibly struggling into life; so far, it has found an outlet and a form mainly in new types of social and political activity. The time is ripe for this movement to develop on the artistic as well as on the practical side, and in its search for fulfilment to bring about a creative renaissance in literature and the arts. There are already signs that a movement of this kind is beginning. Some far-seeing Malays evidently feel that, if their people are to become the masters and not merely the victims of all that is going on inside them, they will need ... the emergence of such a literature."

Problems of indigenous leadership

Indigenous leadership is, as is stressed in the statement below,[44] the central problem of community development on all its levels and in all its phases.

"The problem of African society, as of all other societies, is rooted in the need for leadership and training in that social responsibility without which the expenditure of large sums on development of all kinds will not produce a workable constitution or a better society. Administrative and constitutional changes will demand not only knowledge and skill but a high degree of integrity. The intellectual arrogance ... which overlooks the importance of so delegating its powers that leadership is a positive and active force in smaller communities, is not only dangerous but carries within it the germ of decay.

"It is not sufficient to plan a democratic state if the skills and attitudes that make for success are lacking. It is of fundamental importance that the planning of social change shall be a collaborative effort in which the task is to discover and construct new common interests out of conflicting ones. Moreover, the work of planning must be educational for all participants. The real test of goodness of new institutions and practices is the extent to which they contribute to the well-being of all members of the community, and all such planning must be regarded as experimental so that it is productive of constant endeavour after still more improvement."

Mass education, as a function of the community development movement, is in the first instance concerned with the development of popular leadership on the local community level. The problem differs considerably according to the area. Where society is culturally fairly homogeneous and cultural or social leadership typical of the modern society is already a component part of the existing social structure, the

[41] Gold Coast: *Plan for Mass Literacy and Mass Education*, Accra, 1952, p. 6.

[42] Wilson, G. H., "The Northern Rhodesia-Nyasaland Joint Publications Bureaux", *Africa*, Vol. XX, 1950, pp. 60 ff.

[43] Federation of Malaya: *Report of the Committee on Malay Education*, p. 23.

[44] United Kingdom: *African Education*, pp. 17 ff.

main concern is, on the one hand, the integration of institutional leadership, exercised by the clergy, teachers, politicians and civil servants, with the community processes and, on the other hand, the promotion of popular leadership representative of the peasant people.[45]

Elsewhere the problem may be much more difficult and complex, because popular leadership of the type needed for initiating and maintaining a dynamic development movement may be a function absent in the traditional society and its emergence and consolidation in the transitional groups is sometimes a slow and haphazard process. In the transitional societies, torn between the attachments to local tradition and the inducements of the western ways of life, a potential local leader has to have a rare quality of belonging to the two worlds and seeing the ways through which the contradictions between them can be reconciled. The traditional leader may lack the wider outlook and experience necessary to make his leadership creative, while the product of the employment-oriented school education may measure the progress of his people not by the achievements of his native community, but by the degree to which he has become detached from it by the promotion to " white-collar " jobs and educated *élites* of the colonial society. Thus, the lack of volunteers coming forward from among the educated to accept the responsibilities of leadership in community development actions is deplored in many reports as a factor retarding the progress of indigenous community.

Training programmes of varying duration and type for traditional chiefs, institutional leaders, voluntary community workers and auxiliary social workers are of long standing in many Territories. Some have been described in the study on the training of social workers submitted to the Committee on Information [46] in 1950. Since then, there has been in general a marked expansion of the programmes and facilities concerned in particular with the training of local leaders and oriented towards the personnel requirements of the community development and mass education movement.

Social centres

The long-range aims of leadership training programmes are, however, concerned not so much with the recruitment and formation of potential leaders as with a reorganization of the communities that will make them capable of generating social leadership any time a situation may call for a new action. The consolidation of cultural leadership into a permanent institution of the community depends, in the last analysis, upon the development of a new social framework through which a community may constantly be kept alert as to its needs and potentialities and able to foster latent leadership through the stimulation and support given individual initiative by organized groups. Literacy, in so far as it makes the local group open to the stimulating cultural influences of a wider world, is one of the component parts of this new fabric. Two others are social centres and voluntary associations.

The promotion of social centres of various kinds is, in the Territories, a common feature of the community development policy, particularly in the urban areas.[47] " The social and educational purposes of the centre (which may not always and perhaps should not be differentiated) are not served merely by separate activities in classes and groups, but should be measured by the growth of understanding in personal relations, the development of interest and in a sense of responsibility for community life. These are best fostered by encouraging those who make use of the centre to take a greater share in the choice and organization of the activities, and to accept an increasing measure of responsibility for the management of the centre itself, possibly in the larger centres under the guidance and advice of a specially trained officer." [48]

In the rural areas, the formation of the " social centres ", formally organized and established on their own premises, or evolving around some of the existing village institutions such as a school, a co-operative shop, a village council, etc., or else consisting simply of loose informal groups composed of individuals engaged in community work, is inseparable from the general development movement in the community. It means more than a simple addition of one more element to a cluster of existing village institutions. It should be indicative of the crystallization of the community process, initiated by the development action, into a new pattern of village organization. The essential feature is the growth of a new community sense in which subservience to the precepts of local custom is superseded by orientation towards the ideal of a progressive village. It is associated with the reintegration of the collectivity around its social leaders and with teams of sponsors and followers. The formation of these new foci of village life is of great educational and social significance for the community. It provides a basis through which the members of the community are continuously being trained in new social responsibilities and through which the practice of social leadership is likely to be established as a permanent function in village life.

While generally such a reorganization of the traditional community is a long process, it may be accelerated by the assistance given the local community by the administration and by a concentrated educational action, particularly if the community is undergoing

[45] United Nations: *Report of the Mission on Rural Community Organization and Development in the Caribbean Area and Mexico*, New York, 1953, pp. 89 ff.; Puerto Rico: *Annual Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1950–51*, pp. 73 ff.

[46] United Nations: *Non-Self-Governing Territories. Summaries and analyses of information transmitted to the Secretary-General during 1950*, Vol. III, pp. 300 ff.

[47] For a more detailed account of the community centres in the dependent Territories, see: United Nations: *Special Study on Social Conditions in Non-Self-Governing Territories*, pp. 84 ff.; *The United Nations Series on Community Organization and Development: United Kingdom Dependent Territories*, March 1953; *France d'outre-mer*, December 1952, pp. 6 ff.; *Congo belge et Ruanda-Urundi*, March 1953, pp. 7 ff.

[48] United Nations: *The United Nations Series on Community Organization and Development: United Kingdom Dependent Territories*, p. 70.

major changes in its modes of existence. Such a case is described in the following account of the working of the Area Education Centre in a Papuan community: [49]

"The Centre established there is not quite the same as the normal organization of the Area Education Centre... It represents a concentration of the activities of a number of Departments of Administration, especially Health and Education, under the co-ordinating leadership of an officer of District Services and Native Affairs. While Saiho will become a permanent and fairly large settlement, it is organized to serve the needs of the people of other villages in the area, who have a common language and culture. The Native people as a whole are participating actively in the establishment and work of this new Centre which has already become the focal point of their rehabilitation and the radiating centre of their welfare and development. Infant Welfare work, taken right into the villages served from Saiho, is a special feature of the programme. A Higher Village school has been established at Saiho itself, as well as a Women's Interest Centre under the guidance of a woman Welfare Officer of the Department of Education. A special weekly broadcast session is provided as part of the regular Native People's Session, which is directly related to the life of the people and the activities of the Centre. A woman Education Officer is making special provision for the adolescent female Natives, and development of Native handicrafts is a feature of the programme. The whole organization represents a more comprehensive plan of community development than the other centres... Native leaders are participating actively in the administration of the Centre, as a likely lead towards the establishment of a properly constituted Village or Area Council. In this case, the principles underlying community development, as now practised in many parts of the Colonial world, have been applied with marked success to the urgent and challenging problem of the rehabilitation and actual resettlement of a large number of people whose earlier mode of life has been completely disrupted by the volcanic disaster."

Voluntary associations

The part which can be played by voluntary associations is widely recognized. Any local branch of a voluntary association organizes its members in a two-fold role: as members of the local community and as participants in the activities of a wider collectivity. As a link between the two groups, it provides a mechanism through which the culture components of the local group may be conveyed to, and assimilated by, the wider community, and vice versa. Where this wider collectivity is still in *statu nascendi*, promotion of its growth through the formation and expansion of voluntary associations is recognized as a cornerstone of the social welfare policy and organizations. A United Kingdom statement on mass education in African society points out that without the various organizations which originally began by the voluntary co-operation of people with common interests and aspirations, the full value of established institutions would not be reaped and that the established customs of society by which either standards are being achieved would largely fall into disuse or chaos. In Non-Self-Governing Territories where institutions on the metropolitan pattern are being introduced and lead to the profound modification or replacement of traditional customs, a planned welfare organization to fit into the framework of general planned development work is of vital importance. Its aim is to inspire the indigenous populations with the will to adapt themselves to the measures introduced. It is thus claimed that welfare organization is particularly important in backward Territories to help in the weaving of what to many communities is an entirely new fabric or society.[50]

In this new social fabric, two potential agencies for mass education are seen in the co-operative societies and trade unions: [51]

> "They are organizations which depend for their existence on the initiative and effort and community spirit of their members. They have therefore one of the fundamental conditions of success in mass education. Though their immediate aim may be co-operative thrift, or marketing, or uniting a body of workers, they are creating by such activities strong units which can become a community, and setting public advantage before private gains. In areas where old community ties have broken down or hardly existed, such groupings for a common purpose, with a certain order and discipline in their organization, have an importance out of proportion to their size."

The same, however, may be said of other associations which are taking root. Many of these are capable of being turned into dynamic social reform movements through which individualistic motivations or sectional interests are harnessed for wider collective purposes. An example [52] of an association which started with limited recreational objectives to develop into an expanding social reform and adult education movement may be given in respect of Uganda.[53] It is stated that there are no true community associations in the sense of unions of different societies and individuals drawn from one neighbourhood and combined together for the purpose of providing facilities for members. Federations of local sporting bodies fulfil some of these functions.

[49] Papua: "Area Education Centres in the Territory of Papua and New Guinea", *Community Development Bulletin*, June 1952, Vol. III, No. 3, p. 53.

[50] United Kingdom: *Social Welfare in the Colonies*, p. 1.

[51] United Kingdom: *Mass Education in African Society*, pp. 26 ff.

[52] For an account of the activities of various types of voluntary associations in rural and urban areas, see: United Nations: *Non-Self-Governing Territories. Summaries and analyses of information transmitted to the Secretary-General during 1951*, Vol. I, p. 47; *Special Study on Social Conditions, in Non-Self-Governing Territories*, pp. 87 ff.; *Série des publications des Nations Unies relative à l'organisation et au développement général des collectivités : Congo belge et Ruanda-Urundi*, pp. 14, 20.

[53] Uganda: *Annual Report of the Public Relations and Social Welfare for the Year ended 31 December 1951*, Entebbe, 1952, p. 8.

" Whatever the purist view of the nature of a community association, the Acholi Association certainly deserves to be mentioned in this context. This body is organized as a members' club and has its main club-house at the Acholi District headquarters. It aims at embracing most of the social welfare activities of the Acholi tribe within its scope. It receives an annual grant from the Acholi African Local Government. The Social Welfare Section assists it by seconding to it a Welfare Assistant to act as its organizing secretary. The Association runs football competitions and athletic sports, and sponsors numerous dances—mainly in the local tribal tradition—and occasional concerts. Its educational activities include the publication and sale of books, lectures, debates and adult classes. It maintains libraries. This Association has founded four branch centres in the Acholi District at places where the number of members of the association is high. When membership at any particular place reaches the required level, the central committee approves the formation of a branch centre and may vote money towards the building of a club-house. Classes in reading, writing, arithmetic, English, knitting and needlework were instituted at the Palabek branch centre during the year. Two Welfare Assistants spend part of their time aiding in the organization of two of these branch centres. The general responsibility for supervising the activities of the Association lies with the Provincial Administration, but the Welfare Officer posted at Lima maintains a close liaison with the Provincial Administration in Acholi Association affairs, and tenders advice and assistance. The projection of the Acholi Association into the rural areas of the district is a development big with promise. The association may prove to be the main agency for the promotion of community life, voluntary service, and adult education in the district."

Another example of a successful adult education programme, evolved and carried out by a women's organization, comes from Basutoland, where the Homemakers' Association " seems to be establishing itself firmly as a national movement ... not only in Basutoland but ... also [everywhere] where Basutos from Basutoland are found ". In 1950 the association numbered 125 active clubs with a membership of 3,000. It holds an annual conference and a training course in home economics, home nursing, child care, homemaking and feminine crafts, to which clubs all over the country and from abroad send delegates. " Delegates go back to their clubs after a week's training, and their duty is to pass on the knowledge gained... to their clubs in the village." The association edits a quarterly bulletin " in an effort to keep up the interest of the clubs, particularly those in lonely areas where contact is most difficult. It is hoped soon to publish a handbook which should be of great help in the work of organization ".[54]

[54] Basutoland: *Annual Report by the Director of Education for 1950*, Basutoland (n.d.), pp. 39 ff.

Voluntary associations are not only great potential consumers of education; they also provide a medium through which educational efforts of the authorities and the public can be integrated into a popular self-enlightenment movement. The task of education for citizenship, it has been stressed in relation to Africa,[55] " is too large to be left to one section only of the government organization or of the European or educated colonial public. It is a task so large and so urgent that everyone will be needed if the Colonies are to be helped to assume their responsibilities in the modern world. One of the most urgent tasks facing Colonial governments is to rally to their aid all people of any race in their territories who are able to contribute in this high endeavour ".

The Gold Coast mass education campaign of 1952 may be mentioned as an example of such an integrated popular self-enlightenment movement.[56] The campaign was planned and organized by the government as " a great national adventure in social service ", with a view to making the attainment of literacy in the vernacular possible to everybody. The whole society was mobilized for the drive: religious and secular organizations, political parties, betterment societies, educational associations, schools, teachers, local government authorities, local leaders and voluntary workers. The motto of the campaign was: " We shall prove to the world that we are capable of giving our services freely and willingly in order to create a dynamic, forward-moving country."[57]

Community development and the school

Mass education originated in Non-Self-Governing Territories largely in the search for a solution to the shortcomings of the school system. It has not been planned as a substitute for school education, but as a separate and autonomous area of education. The intrinsic connexion between school and mass education, as understood under the community development policy, lies in the fact that mass education is not only complementary to the working of the school system, but it is also vital for its performance. " The school, before it can take root, expand and bring results, presupposes a maturity that covers a whole complex of economic, social and moral conditions."[58] Utilitarian, employment-oriented, examination-centred schools are largely an outcome of the impaired functioning of school education in a society not yet evolved to a stage at which the school as a social institution ceases to be external to the total social structure. The school is essentially an institution of a wider supra-local com-

[55] United Kingdom: *Education for Citizenship in Africa*, p. 35.

[56] Another example is the formation in Singapore of the Council for Adult Education, described as " an alliance of all unofficial non-profit making associations working in the field of adult education ". See " Recent Developments in Adult Education in Singapore ", *Community Development Bulletin*, September 1952. Vol. III, No. 4, pp. 82 ff.

[57] Gold Coast: *Department of Social Welfare and Community Development, Literacy Campaign—1952*, Accra, 1953, pp. 9 ff.

[58] Morocco: *L'enseignement public du Maroc*, Rabat, 1952, p. 1.

munity and of a cultural régime based on literary civilization. Only in such a community can the school system be developed to its full capacity and become functionally related to the family, to the household economy and local community, to the industrial system, and to the whole complex social structure of the collectivity. As long as local communities remain outside this modern social structure and its cultural systems, the school placed in such communities is bound to fail in some of its essential purposes. Education *per se* exists in traditional groups *per se*. It needs no schools of a modern type to be exercised or perfected. Only in so far as the traditional local group becomes switched into a circuit of the non-customary culture of a wider supra-local community and develops local institutions and systems which make for its participation in the processes of this wider collectivity, can the contradiction between the school culture and the local custom be removed and the school restored fully to its intended functions of preparing the rising generations, through a single educational process, for life in the local group and citizenship in a larger society.

Community development, as a social movement, contributes to a transformation of the local traditional groups in which the essential structural components of the wider collectivity become incorporated into the social fabric and the routine activities of the local group. This reorganization of the local community establishes permanent channels of communication between the members of the local group and their wider social and cultural environment and makes them participate in the value systems, cultural standards and social ideals of a larger society. Hence, it makes room for the local school to function as an institution of the local community and, at the same time, as a part of the general educational system of the wider collectivity.

The problem of the adaption of the educational process to this twofold function is—in the colonial intercultural situation—not only a matter of the content of school education and the methods of school instruction. It is—as the following statement indicates[8]—a part of a more fundamental issue : the contribution which an educational system in general has to make to the processes of cultural growth and social reintegration of the emerging societies, and of the ways and means through which this contribution can be effected :

"If education is to be effective, it must be based partly at least on local cultural foundations. This has been for many years one of the basic principles of British Colonial education policy. We believe that the principle is sound : that an alien culture can be most successfully propagated by being grafted on to a vigorous native stock. That is what British educationists have in mind when they utter the elliptical and often misunderstood statement that they wish the educated African, however highly educated, to remain an African. They do not mean that they desire him to concentrate on his African culture to such an extent that he is unable to assimilate as much as he wishes of European culture... We need not emphasize the importance of beginning the education of little children in their mother-tongue and with the material of native folk-lore, music, games, and living conditions. We feel it almost equally important that, long after the pupil has passed over to the medium of English and has set himself assiduously to study English literature and European art, music, history of thought of all kinds, he should, in this alien field, continue to draw inspiration from his native heritage of thought—in whatever forms, such as music, visual arts and crafts, proverbial wisdom, historical traditions, or social institutions, the thought of his people has expressed itself in the past or can be hoped to express itself in the future. We recognize that in some areas, where there are many languages and perhaps many cultures, it will be difficult to apply this principle, but such difficulties do not lessen its importance. We believe it to be of the highest importance that the feeling of spiritual continuity between one generation and another should be maintained; and we see no other way than this of maintaining it. This, in our view, is the answer to the doubt that is sometimes expressed whether native languages and cultures are educationally worth retaining : whether it would not be better to let them die and concentrate on European culture... The question ... is whether without these things a people can preserve its contact with the past; whether its further growth will continue to be nourished from its ancient roots. A culture once dead cannot be resuscitated; let us therefore beware of lightly allowing a culture to die."

[8] United Kingdom : *Education for Citizenship in Africa*, pp. 7 ff.

Concluding note

Taking into account the abundant documentation that exists on community development policy in Non-Self-Governing Territories and the wide use made of this documentation in international publications, the present study endeavours to seek the educational principles underlying the various activities described. It also attempts to indicate how community development complements and broadens forms of school education.

Community development policy is essentially concerned with the human and social aspects of development. Its objectives do not differ from those of public policies in general, the ultimate aim of which is the evolution of the peoples of the Non-Self-Governing Territories into a modern society, adequately equipped with corresponding economic institutions, social services and cultural attributes. Its specific feature is the emphasis placed on the participation of the inhabitants in the policies and activities aiming at social, economic and cultural advancement.

The policy originated in an appraisal of the critical situation created in Non-Self-Governing Territories by the acceleration of economic and social change, by the

disruptive influences of these changes on the native society, by the mounting discontent of the people with their present conditions, and by their helplessness to deal with the crisis within the collapsing framework of their traditional institutions. It has been prompted by the awareness of the fact that the task of building a new society cannot be accomplished by merely the expansion of production and government-provided social services, but that it requires an immensely wider scope of active and creative participation of the inhabitants, on various levels and in various types of activities.

Community development was conceived as a policy, the aim of which is the generation and mobilization of the social forces of the emerging society so as to direct them towards social reconstruction and cultural reorganization. It has been planned as a broad penetrating action of developing the native potentialities by initiating or assisting a popular movement of social reform and cultural expansion, based on initiative emanating from the people.

The concept of movement is basic to all facets of community development policy. It defines its broader purposes, delimits the areas of action, determines its methods and techniques, and is reflected in the structure of its administrative machinery. Related to the concept of movement is a dual perspective from which community development is viewed. While in a direct administrative practice the emphasis is on the local community, development on any such local level involves cultural changes and group-forming processes of a wider dimension.

In culturally homogeneous modern societies, the progress of local groups depends essentially upon the interaction between them and a wider "national" collectivity. It is facilitated by the mechanism of popular expansion. In the colonial society the situation is more complex. The national collectivity does not exist as a cultural and social entity. The aspirations and designs for better living are influenced by an alien civilization or by reaction against that civilization. The assimilation and local application of the external culture are hardly possible without a reorganization of the traditional structure and the reintegration of society on a new basis, able to absorb and support the new type of civilization. This involves the establishment and expansion of a new nation-wide network of social institutions and services, and also the development of new cultural universals. The progress of the local community, through local action, and the emergence and crystallization of supra-local community animated by a sense of cultural identity and social solidarity, are in the colonial societies two complementary and inseparable phases of the same process.

Community development, as a national policy, is oriented towards the two phases of social development: the local and the supra-local. The underlying assumption is that the solution of the local problems is contingent upon the attainment of a much broader task: the development in the transitional society of a new social fabric and a new institutional structure, depending for its emergence and perpetuation upon a wider collectivity than the local group.

It is in this supra-local dimension of community development that the educational component of the policy comes to the forefront. Community development, since its early stages, has been planned and conceived largely as a phase of general educational policy, extending its scope from the preoccupation with the system of formal education to a broad field of informal education programmes, encompassing all groups and local communities. It has not been intended as a substitute for school education, although it has been considered to be complementary to the school system and vital for its performance. Its aim, merging with that of the general educational policy, is to provide means and channels through which new interests and aspirations can be geared to the local cultural foundations and collective purposes, so as to lead to the emergence and consolidation of constructive social forces, indispensable for the creation of a society which is new, yet "faithful to its own genius and traditions".

In the transitional groups, where the aim is not only to correct or modify some components of the existing culture pattern, but to develop a new group organization and a new institutional framework, indispensable for the assimilation of new designs for collective and individual life, the educational process is inseparable from the social process in all its ramifications. It is circumscribed, on the one hand, by the more specific needs for social education of the different types of communities and different segments of population, and on the other, by the recognized necessity of fostering the growth of new structural forms and new social forces through which the school can be absorbed as a vital part of the emerging society.

The education component of community development is by no means limited to a subordinate task of giving the people rudimentary instruction which might be helpful in solving some of their local problems. It is concerned with much more fundamental changes in the society and the people: the institution, among the transitional groups, on as wide a basis as possible, of those social and cultural attributes of the contemporary society which permeate this society from top to bottom and account for its creative and expansive faculties.

It is the broad task of mass education to provide the inspirations and incentives which would work in this direction. The crux of the matter is the widening of the horizon of the people by their participation in a richer cultural universe than that circumscribed by local custom and tradition. "Mass education", it is said,[60] "is much more than a means of spreading amenities among local groups. It is community development in the term's amplest meaning, springing from the faith that even the humblest has something of his

[60] Federation of Malaya: *Report of the Committee on Malay Education*, p. 64.

own to put into the pool of social well-being, and that what he puts in will in fact increase in value in proportion as he has been brought to understand how and why his fellows cannot do without it. As long as people feel themselves to be strangers, and (worse still) scared and frustrated strangers, in an unintelligible world in whose building they have had no share, so long will their conduct remain puerile and inept. Conversely, people grow up straight to their fullest stature, in a word, become educated, in so far as they make or remake the world they live in and see themselves as responsible for the shape it takes."

CHAPTER VII

EQUAL TREATMENT IN MATTERS RELATING TO EDUCATION

Introduction

In 1950, after studying the question of equal treatment in matters relating to education in Non-Self-Governing Territories, the Committee on Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories recorded its view that:

"In the field of education, no principle is more important than that of equality of opportunity for all racial, religious and cultural groups of the population.

"Respect should be paid to the wishes of any group desiring to establish particular educational facilities for its members, but this should be subject to the over-riding consideration that the general welfare of the whole community is not thereby prejudiced and that the practical operation of any system of differentiation does not lead to discrimination against any group.

"While programmes and organizations of different types of schools may properly be designed to meet the needs of different groups of pupils, it should be accepted as a general principle that no school should exclude pupils on grounds of race, religion, or social status.

"Differentiation in school facilities and programmes should not militate against the development of mutual sympathy and a feeling of common citizenship among the inhabitants of the Territory.

"Where separate systems exist, each group in the community should be given a fair share of the public funds used for educational purposes."[1]

Views expressed by the Committee on other aspects of education, as in the case of the choice of the languages to be used in schools and the participation of the inhabitants in educational policy and school administration, by implication stressed the principle of equality of opportunity for all groups of the population. Again with respect to higher education, the Committee stated that:

"In general, the demand of the peoples in Non-Self-Governing Territories for education should be fostered. All who can profit by it should have equal opportunity for access to higher education without distinctions of an arbitrary character in order that a spirit of service to the community may be created as a basis for responsible citizenship."[2]

[1] United Nations: *Non-Self-Governing Territories. Summaries and Analyses of Information transmitted to the Secretary-General during 1950* (1951.VI.B.1.Vol.III), New York, 1951, Vol. III, p. 20.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 25.

The problems considered by the Committee in 1950 were mainly those arising in the case of a comparatively small number of Territories where separate school systems are maintained for the different groups of the population. Account was also taken of situations where the curriculum or language of instruction in different schools tends to bring together pupils of particular racial, linguistic or religious groups. The Territories covered were limited to those of North, East and Central Africa.[3]

The present study is designed to supplement the information placed before the Committee in 1950 in the light of information received since. In addition, information is briefly given on separate school systems in Malaya, Singapore, Fiji and Bermuda.

Wherever possible, statistics are given summarizing the number of schools and of pupils in the population groups and showing the relative costs of the various school systems. General Assembly resolution 328 (IV) of 1949 invited the Administering Members, in cases where, for exceptional reasons, educational facilities of a separate character are provided for the different communities, to include in the information transmitted under Article 73 e full data on the costs and methods of financing the separate groups of educational institutions. In some cases such information has been furnished and in other cases it has been indicated that a comparative analysis of this kind is not possible owing to the structure of the school system.

Important factors in the practical problem of providing equal facilities for different groups of pupils are the number and the quality of the teachers serving the different groups of institutions. Considerable information has been provided on the numbers, qualifications and training of school teachers in most Non-Self-Governing Territories. It is, however, only in a few cases that it is possible to make full use of such information when examining the problems arising out of the administration of separate school systems. Accordingly, reference is made to the relevant situations in the case of a few Territories only.

General developments

In some of the Territories under consideration, there has, in recent years, been a marked tendency towards the strengthening of those parts of the school systems

[3] Belgian Congo, Morocco, Tunisia, French Equatorial Africa, Northern Rhodesia, Swaziland, Kenya, Uganda, Nyasaland and Madagascar.

which, in practice as well as theory, are attended by pupils from the different groups in the communities. In French Equatorial Africa, the division of the educational system into Franco-Native schools, on the one hand, and the European or metropolitan type of schools, on the other, has been replaced by a single system including primary, secondary, vocational and teacher-training schools attended by pupils of all races. In Madagascar, under an order issued with the approval of the Representative Assembly, provision has been made for the co-ordination of the metropolitan and indigenous types of schools as a result of which it is hoped to raise the standards of Malagasy education in the elementary grades so as to facilitate the access of pupils to education of a broader type in the later stages of their schooling. In the Federation of Malaya, the Education Ordinance of December 1952 established "national schools" providing for children of all races a six-year course of free primary education with a Malayan orientation, using either Malay or English as the main medium of instruction. To meet this development, in addition to the strengthening of facilities for local training, a college has been opened in the United Kingdom for the training of teachers of all races serving in Malaya.

In other Territories, separate school systems remain characteristic, but it is indicated that more school facilities have been provided for the indigenous peoples and in certain cases, particularly at the senior levels, the principle of inter-racial education has been strengthened or introduced. In Kenya, for example, the Legislative Council in August 1950, approved a report on African education which contains a detailed plan for the reorganization and expansion of African education and, in particular, the rapid expansion of secondary schools, improvements in teacher-training and an increase in the inspectorial and supervisory staff. A development of possibly great significance for East Africa as a whole is the decision taken by the University College of East Africa (Makerere) to provide for the admission in 1952 of five students who were to be neither Africans nor Zanzibar Arabs.

In respect of higher education, it may also be noted that an agreement was reached in 1950 between the Government and a University Committee in Belgium whereby the "Congolese University Centre Lovanium" is to be subsidized subject to a number of stipulations, including the provision that studies shall be open "to any indigenous student from the Belgian Congo or from Ruanda-Urundi who requests admission without regard to his creed, and even if he does not belong to any creed". The two separate school systems in the case of Alaska serve separate geographic areas, the metropolitan Government providing specifically Native Schools in remote areas where no other schools exist until such time as territorial schools are established. On the other hand, in Zanzibar, the Legislative Council passed a Bill in 1951, the purpose being "to impose a tax on Europeans resident in the Protectorate to meet the cost of the assistance provided by the Government, in the absence of European schools, towards the education of Europeans".

Territorial information

Belgian Congo

The total population on 31 December 1951 was as follows:[4]

Indigenous population

Adults	6,820,971
Children (under 18)	4,772,523
Total...	11,593,494

Non-indigenous population

Europeans	66,078
Asians	929

As in 1950, separate school systems exist for pupils of European and for pupils of indigenous status. No legal bar, however, prevents the admission of Africans into European schools. In 1948 it was specifically provided that Eurafrican children whose general background was European would be admitted to European schools; two special schools cater for such children.

In 1951, the total number of European children under 18 years of age was 9,369. As the following figures show, the school enrolment of European children of school age is practically universal:

	Schools	*Pupils*
Government schools	14	4,407
Subsidized European schools	28	4,160
Non-subsidized schools	11	389
Subsidized schools for Eurafricans	2	80
Total...	55	9,036

Native schools in 1951 totalled 25,796, distributed as follows:

Government schools	43
Subsidized schools	9,420
Non-subsidized schools	16,333

The average attendance for Native schools in 1951 was 971,865, representing about 50 per cent of the children of school age. For very similar figures in 1950, the distribution of pupils among the various types of schools was as follows:

	Government schools	*Subsidized schools*	*Non-subsidized schools*	
Kindergarten and preparatory	365	13,571	31,953	45,889
Primary	4,733	452,122	440,750	897,605
Secondary or post-primary:				
(*a*) For lay pupils	523	3,345	3,058	6,926
(*b*) For clerics	—	—	3,086	3,086
Vocational	491	1,534	1,757	3,782
Teacher training	—	4,828	300	5,128
Preparation to higher education at Lovanium Centre	—	79	—	79
Higher education for clergy	—	—	317	317
Total...	6,112	475,479	481,221	962,812

[4] Belgian Congo: *Rapport sur l'administration de la colonie du Congo belge pour l'année 1951, présenté aux Chambres législatives*, Brussels, 1952, pp. 17, 30, 69.

The Native school population compares with 923,386 in 1949.

The teaching staff in the European and Eurafrican schools numbered 685 in 1951 and rose to 796 by the beginning of the 1951–1952 school year. In the Native schools in 1951 there were 2,443 European teachers and 36,879 African teachers. In previous years the number of teachers was as follows:

	Europeans	*Africans*	*Total*
European schools			
1947	350	—	350
1948	517	—	517
Indigenous schools			
1947	1,800	37,000	38,800
1948	1,800	33,300	35,100
1950	2,479	37,032	39,511

The expenditure on education in 1951 was as follows (in 1,000 Belgian Congo francs):

	European schools	*Native schools*
Recurrent expenditure	83,522	201,500
Capital expenditure...	91,133 [a] (estimate)	207,573
TOTAL ...	174,655	409,073

[a] Belgique: Ministère des Colonies, *La situation économique du Congo belge en 1951*, La Louvière, 1952, p. 120.

In 1950, statistics submitted to the Committee suggested that the ratio between the per capita cost of education for European and that for African children was approximately 8 to 1 in favour of the former. The representative of Belgium on the Committee, however, pointed out that the missions contributed fully as much to the education of African children as the Government. Furthermore, in particular years, the cost of education of European children is inflated as a result of capital expenditure. Finally, the European children lived in large urban centres where the cost of education was generally higher than in rural areas. The representative of Belgium therefore suggested that, while there was still considerable disparity in the relative costs of education, this should be evaluated at more than 2 to 1 but less than 5 to 1 in favour of the European group.

MOROCCO

The total population, according to the 1951–1952 census, was 8,003,985, distributed as follows: [b]

Moroccans	
Moslems	7,442,015
Jews	199,156
Non-Moroccans	
Europeans	362,814

It was reported in 1950 that public education in Morocco provided for three different types of schools. However, as a consequence of the social evolution in Morocco, there was a tendency towards overlapping and fusion of the various school populations with a growing number of Moroccan children attending the European schools under the same conditions as the French. While there has been no fundamental change in structure, the former European type of school is now called Franco-Moroccan, and the Moslem primary and secondary as well as the Jewish primary schools are referred to as the Moroccan type of education. Public higher and technical education retained its unitary character without divisions as to religious or ethnic origin.

[b] Morocco: *La Conjoncture économique marocaine, année 1952*, Rabat, 1953 (Le recensement général de la population de 1951-52).

The relationship between the number of children of school age and school enrolment cannot be determined from the information available. The enrolment and distribution of pupils in the so-called European schools over the years 1950–1952 were as follows:

	1950 [a]	*1951*	*1952*
Public primary and post-primary schools	49,297	53,000	56,057
Secondary schools	11,033	14,722	14,678
Technical and vocational	3,456	4,697	4,875
Higher education	846	1,277	...

[a] Morocco: *La Conjoncture économique marocaine*, Rabat, 1950, p. 4.

The number of pupils enrolled in the Moroccan public education system was as follows:

Moroccan education
(Including vocational courses)

	1950	*1951*	*1952*
Moslem primary schools	118,414	138,325	161,374
Moslem secondary schools	1,912	2,192	4,648
Jewish schools	27,617	28,762	31,029

The distribution by origin of pupils attending public and private schools was as follows:

	1951		*1952*	
	Moroccans	*Non-Moroccans*	*Moroccans*	*Non-Moroccans*
Public education:				
Primary	163,797	53,000	191,575	56,178
Secondary	6,340	14,722	7,483	12,218
Technical	7,305	4,707	8,069	5,463
Teacher training	2	64	37	70
Higher education (in Morocco)	303	1,277	307	1,073
Private education:				
Primary	2,487	6,245	4,568	10,568
Secondary	24	1,655	...	...
Technical	467	1,623	333	1,183
Modernized Koranic schools	...	—	24,700	—
Other Koranic schools	...	—	200,000 [a]	—

[a] Approximately.

The total budgetary expenditure on education in 1952 was 7,814,000,000 francs. In addition 3,400,000,000 francs were allocated for educational development from the Investement Fund. The di-

tribution of these sums among the various school systems on main items of expenditure was as follows:

	Budgetary expenditure (francs)	*Investment Fund (francs)*
Franco-Moroccan education		
Primary	1,431,000,000	500,000,000
Secondary	1,437,000,000	125,000,000
Moroccan education		
Moslem	3,045,000,000	1,500,000,000
Jewish	338,000,000	80,000,000

TUNISIA

It was estimated that in 1951 there was a population increase of 32 per cent over the census figures of 1946 which were as follows:

Tunisians	
Moslems	2,919,860
Jews	71,543
Europeans	
French	143,977
Italians	84,935
Maltese and others	10,637
TOTAL	3,230,952

Primary education in Tunisia is organized in three types of schools: the French school, intended more particularly for non-Moslems, with instruction until 1950 exclusively in French, but now with spoken Arabic included as a subject of the curriculum; the Franco-Arabic school, where both French and Arabic are taught with a view to bringing French and Arabic curricula into balance; and the private modern Koran school.

Three sections comprise secondary education: the "classical" and the "modern", as in metropolitan France, and the "Tunisian", which stresses Arabic and local culture and interests and issues a local diploma at the completion of this bilingual and bicultural course.

The Director of Education reports [6] that in 1951 there were 700,000 children of school age, with only half belonging to a settled part of the population. Of these, more than 50 per cent were in attendance where there were available schools.

Enrolment figures for non-indigenous pupils in public schools were as follows:

	1950	*1951*
Primary education		
French	23,682	24,725
Italians, Maltese and others	7,586	6,178
Secondary education		
French	4,128	4,615
Italians, Maltese and others	363	403
Technical education		
French	3,361	3,510
Italians, Maltese and others	789	895
Higher education in Tunisia		
French	591	623

Enrolment of indigenous pupils for the same period in public schools was as follows:

	1950	*1951*
Primary education		
Moslems	80,560	89,519
Jews	11,171	11,570
Secondary education		
Moslems	3,845	4,649
Jews	1,069	1,504
Technical education		
Moslems	5,403	5,678
Jews	914	1,024
Higher education		
Moslems	578	764
Jews	42	158

Statistical data on school enrolment on 15 December 1950 and on 15 October 1951 [7] are given in table 17.

The non-Tunisian and Tunisian teaching staff in public schools were distributed as follows:

	1950	*1951*	*1952*
Primary school teachers:			
Non-Tunisians	2,316	2,358	2,385
Tunisians	1,363	1,451	1,782
Secondary school teachers:			
Non-Tunisians	607	627	627
Tunisians	132	160	193
Technical and vocational teachers:			
Non-Tunisians	524	576	626
Tunisians	300	278	328

The structure of the school systems does not make it possible to distinguish expenditure on indigenous and non-indigenous education respectively.

MADAGASCAR

The total population, which according to the 1950 census was 4,304,265, was divided as follows:

Indigenous	
Malagasies	4,233,692
Non-Indigenous	
French nationals	49,867
Other nationals	20,706

Reorganization of public education in Madagascar became effective as of 1 January 1952. Of the two types of public primary and post-primary schools, the metropolitan (formerly European) and the local or Malagasy, the latter has been more deeply affected by the change. The Malagasy type, hitherto a separate educational system, now becomes an integral part of the public primary school system. The curriculum of the Malagasy schools provides for teaching the essentials of learning (reading, writing and arithmetic) in Malagasy, as well as for teaching the French language. The length of schooling is the same in the Malagasy

[6] Tunisia: Director of Public Education, "Education in Tunisia", *Encyclopédie mensuelle d'outre-mer*, May 1952, document No. 8, p. 8.

[7] Tunisia: *Bulletin économique et social de la Tunisie*, January 1952, pp. 46 ff.

TABLE 17

School enrolment in Tunisia, 1950-1951

	French		Moslems		Jews		Italians	
	1950	1951	1950	1951	1950	1951	1950	1951
Primary education:								
French schools	23,238	24,268	7,578	8,998	10,990	11,277	6,700	5,339
French-Arab schools	430	457	70,011	80,521	275	293	91	104
	23,668	24,725	77,589	89,519	11,625	11,570	6,791	5,443
Secondary education:								
Classical	1,718	1,849	265	197	362	408	85	94
Modern	2,398	2,757	1,537	1,352	707	1,096	182	217
Tunisian	12	9	2,043	3,098	—	—	—	—
	4,128	4,615	3,845	4,647	1,069	1,504	267	311
Higher education	526	623	422	764	105	158	81	40
Total public education	28,322	29,963	81,856	94,930	12,439	13,232	7,089	5,794
Private institutions								
French schools:								
Primary	4,307	4,972	2,758	2,817	878	549	647	589
Secondary	1,440	1,390	84	88	82	79	188	179
Technical	167	171	14	22	79	75	62	49
Moslem (modern Koranic)	—	—	23,186	27,497	—	—	—	—
Total private education	5,914	6,533	26,042	30,424	1,039	703	897	777
Total public and private education	34,236	36,496	107,898	125,354	13,478	13,935	7,986	6,571

as in the metropolitan type of school, the pupils of both attaining the same level of education, qualifying for the certificate of primary studies and entrance to the *lycées, collèges* and similar institutions.

Primary schools of the metropolitan type are, as before, open to all children who have sufficient knowledge of the French language to follow profitably instruction in that language. The teaching of Malagasy in this type of school is optional.

Secondary schools continue to be open to all pupils without racial discrimination who have passed the entrance examination which is the same as in metropolitan France.

In 1952 there were 45 public and 28 private primary schools of the metropolitan type, and 1,178 public and 623 private primary schools of the Malagasy type. In 1951, the corresponding figures were: 44 public and 20 private schools of the metropolitan type, and 1,152 public and 55 private of the Malagasy type.

The distribution, by origin, of pupils in the various public schools in 1952 was as follows:

	Indigenous	*Non-Indigenous*
Primary:		
Metropolitan type	2,278	4,221
Malagasy type	172,629	124
Secondary:		
Metropolitan type	702	900
Malagasy type	1,597	—
Technical	4,975	115
Teacher training	114	—
Higher education	254	124

In 1952, the total enrolment in all schools was 272,873.

The new programme of Malagasy education made necessary a reform in teacher training with provision of normal training schools instead of post-primary training classes. Furthermore, with a view to speeding up the training of teachers, the Education Department intends to open a normal section of the metropolitan type at the Lycée Gallieni which would lead to the baccalauréat degree and the Diploma of Normal Studies. Meanwhile, each year, some Malagasy teachers are sent for training in metropolitan normal schools. In 1951 there were 14 such trainees in France.

The teaching staff in public schools in 1952 were 2,848 and distributed as follows:

	Teachers	
	Indigenous	*Non-Indigenous*
Primary education:		
Metropolitan type schools	5	178
Malagasy type schools	1,723	7
Secondary education:		
Metropolitan type schools	4	72
Malagasy type schools	68	66
Vocational and technical education	201	17
Higher education	—	7

Figures are not available to show distribution between indigenous and non-indigenous educational expenditure.

KENYA

The estimated population in 1950 was 5,635,000, divided as follows:

Africans	5,450,000
Non-Africans:	
Asians (including Arabs)	147,000
Europeans	38,000

The educational system provides separate schools for Europeans, Africans, Asians and Arabs. The year 1951 was largely occupied with implementing the recommendations of a report on the expansion and improvement of African education, known from its chairman as the Beecher Report. In accordance with these recommendations, the African educational system has been reorganized into three four-year courses, primary, intermediate and secondary. Twelve of the fourteen secondary schools for boys as well as the two secondary schools for girls allowed by the development programme had been opened by the end of 1951.[8]

Fees, for which remission is granted to all races in cases of financial hardship, are paid in all government schools as follows (in shillings per annum):

Type of school	*Tuition*	*Boarding*
European:		
Primary	180	1,200
Secondary	450	1,400
Asian	Vary from 36 to 270	
African	Vary from 1 shilling in primary schools to 200 in secondary boarding schools	

Primary education is compulsory for all European children between 7 and 15 years of age and for Indian boys living in the three largest towns.

There were in 1951 approximately 31,108 non-African children of school age, 87 per cent of whom were enrolled in the various types of schools as follows:

Type of school	*Enrolment*		
	Public	*Private*	*Total*
Primary	14,930	12,660	27,590
Secondary	4,735	1,593	6,328
Vocational	—	—	—
Higher	338	—	338

Enrolment figures for non-Africans in 1949 and 1950 were 29,992 and 31,531 respectively.

It was estimated that there were 1,024,000 African children of school age in 1951. It is estimated that two-thirds of all African children attend school for one year or more. The enrolment figures for 1951 indicate that about 34 per cent are enrolled in the various types of schools:

Type of school	*Enrolment*		
	Public	*Private*	*Total*
Primary	20,116	319,793	339,909
Secondary	713	1,451	2,164
Vocational	898	714	1,612
Higher	154	—	154
			343,839

The total enrolment of 343,839 in 1951 compares with 311,363 for 1949.

The Beecher Report also recommended that the quality of African teacher training be improved and, as a first step towards this, the standard of admission to teacher-training centres for "T 4" teachers has been raised from six to eight years of education and the period of training lengthened from one to two years.[9]

The total teaching staff in 1951 comprised 7,819 primary, 539 secondary and 16 post-secondary teachers distributed in the following schools:

Type of school	*Number of schools*		
	Public	*Private*	*Total*
Primary	121	2,573	2,694
Secondary	20	27	47
Vocational	3	1	4
Teacher education	20	39	59

In 1951, the total educational expenditure was distributed between the indigenous and non-indigenous as follows:[10]

	£
Indigenous: Africans	1,141,407
Non-indigenous:	
Europeans	855,625
Asians and others	650,639
All races	179,026
TOTAL...	2,826,697

Some principal items of educational expenditure in 1951[11] were distributed among all races as follows:

	Primary schools, public and private £	*Secondary and post-secondary* £	*Vocational* £	*Teacher training* £	*Capital expenditure* £
European	158,110	112,575	110,000[a]	—	419,420
Asian	154,332	77,166	—	9,463	209,950
African	255,940	135,739	56,919	38,106	143,251
Arab	15,384	6,058	—	—	48,750

[a] Including Asians, Arabs and others.

Note.—A total of £267,300 spent by voluntary agencies among all races cannot be itemized.

NORTHERN RHODESIA

The population of Northern Rhodesia, which according to the 1951 census was 1,945,842, was divided as follows:

Africans	1,905,000	Asians	2,529
Europeans	37,221	Coloured	1,092

[8] Kenya: *Education Department Annual Report, 1951*, Nairobi, 1952, pp. 3-4.

[9] Kenya: *Education Department Annual Report, 1951*, p. 29.

[10] *Ibid.*, pp. 48-49.

[11] *Ibid.*

In Northern Rhodesia, separate school systems exist for Africans and Europeans. There are also separate education facilities for Asians and Eurafricans. The African education system covers nine years of primary school and four and one-half years of secondary school. Trade schools also are provided for Africans up to the instructor-foreman level.

There is no separate secondary school as such for European children, but some primary schools have secondary classes, and grants are given to European children attending school elsewhere in order to receive an education beyond the range of that provided in the Territory.

Education is compulsory for European children between the ages of 7 and 15, living within a three-mile distance of a government school or within one mile of suitable transport services. Education is compulsory for African children between 12 and 16 years, living within three miles of certain scheduled schools.

In 1951 the European education system comprised 23 government and 23 private primary schools, some having secondary classes at which 6,320 non-African children were enrolled for primary and 923 for secondary education. In 1949 there were 4,621 pupils enrolled in primary schools and 615 in secondary classes.

The following schools were used by Africans in 1951 :

Type of school	*Government*	*Private*	*Total*
Primary	55	1,635	1,690
Secondary	2	2	4
Vocational	10	6	16
Teacher training	2	24	26

Enrolment of African pupils for the years 1949–1951 was as follows :

Type of school	*1949*	*1950*	*1951*
Primary schools	162,010	162,682	145,841
Secondary schools	745 [a]	1,270 [a]	1,018
Vocational schools	—	—	1,105
Teacher training	—	—	717

[a] Includes vocational and teacher training.

There were 129 non-indigenous teachers on the staffs of African schools; none of the 806 teachers on the staffs of European schools was African. The indigenous teaching staff was distributed as follows : 4,512 in primary schools, 36 in secondary schools, and 52 doing teacher-training work.

The expenditures for the African Education Department for 1951 amounted to £458,020 from territorial funds, £133,337 from the Colonial Development and Welfare Fund, and £14,792 from loan funds. Of the total, £606,149, the main items were :

	£
Recurrent expenditure :	
Personal emoluments	106,852
Maintenance of schools	49,177
Grants for educational work	246,922
Scholarships	4,984
Capital expenditure :	
Government school buildings	31,405
Building grants, village schools	8,392
African secondary school	75,070
Building grants to missions	12,821

The rise in the recurrent expenditure per pupil in government and government-aided schools is shown as follows :

1950	*1951*	*1952*
£2.17.7	£3.0.1	£3.18.0

Cost per pupil in the lowest class in elementary school was £2 and in senior secondary or trade schools (boarding) £80 per annum.

Actual budgetary expenditure for the European Education Department for the year 1951 was £360,067 from territorial revenue, £722 from the Colonial Development and Welfare Fund, and £106,860 from loan funds. The total expenditure for the European Education Department was thus £467,649. The main items of expenditure were :

	£
Recurrent expenditure :	
Personal emoluments	205,348
Educational assistance	44,023
Bursaries	6,463
Coloured education (Eurafrican)	4,229
Katapola Coloured School	5,180
Capital expenditure :	
Construction of new schools and classes	107,582

Cost per pupil in government schools was £45.

Cost per pupil in government schools (boarder) was £81 (of which £37 per boarder is contributed by some parents).

Uganda

The population in 1951 was estimated at 5.2 million. According to the 1948 census the population then was 4,958,520, divided as follows :

Africans	4,917,555
Non-Africans :	
Europeans	3,448
Indians	33,767
Goans and Arabs	2,923
Others	827
TOTAL...	4,958,520

In Uganda, the New Education Ordinance of 1952, like that of 1942, contains provisions for the separate education of each of the communities : African, Indian, European and Goans. The primary course covers six years. The full secondary course, intended to cover six years, is taught in English and leads to the Cambridge School Certificate examination. However, most of the 50 secondary schools do only a three-year course ending in a Junior Secondary Leaving Examination.

Europeans are predominantly dependent on Kenya for their children's education, although there are within the Territory a government primary school, a grant-aided junior school and an unaided boarding school.

Enrolment of non-African pupils during the three-year period 1949–1951 was as follows :

Type of school	1949	1950	1951	Number of schools [a]
Primary schools	6,720	7,223	7,751	87
Secondary schools	1,175	1,251	1,449	4
Vocational schools	—	—	50	1

[a] Number of schools given only for 1951.

Enrolment of African pupils over the same period was as follows:

Type of school	1949	1950	1951	Number of schools [a]
Primary schools	152,627	159,198	239,145 [b]	3,227
Secondary schools	4,597	5,056	6,182	57
Vocational schools	1,788	2,456	2,570	43
Teacher training	1,661	1,909	2,219	45
Higher education	221	234	...	1

[a] Number of schools given only for 1951.
[b] Includes pupils in unaided schools.

The teaching staffs, indigenous and non-indigenous, were distributed as follows during 1951:

Type of school	Number of teachers: Indigenous	Non-indigenous
Primary schools	8,353	299
Secondary schools	331	162
Vocational schools	199	37
Teacher education	179	57

Total actual expenditure on education in 1951 was £1,344,769 compared with £847,499 in 1949. According to the 1951 Education Annual Report,[12] expenditure on primary education for Africans from African Local Government funds was £82,340, and contributions from private sources for African education, presumably primary, was £201,742 and for Indian education, £14,478. Expenditure on education from Territorial revenue for 1951 was divided among the various groups as follows:

	Africans £	Asians £	Europeans £
Primary education	344,322	65,678	9,504
Secondary education	126,487	32,572	—
Teacher training	60,062	284	—
Vocational schools	20,928	—	—
Scholarships	3,937	2,375	885
Capital expenditure and maintenance	102,436	4,273	9,218
Other expenditure	11,446	—	47,831
TOTAL...	678,618 [a]	105,182	67,438

[a] This figure includes £26,000 from the Colonial Development and Welfare Fund.

NYASALAND

The estimated population in 1951 was 2,401,352 comprising:

Africans	2,392,031
Asians	5,248
Europeans	4,073

[11] Uganda: *Annual Report of the Education Department for the year ended 31 December 1951*, Entebbe, 1952, pp. 33–34, 76–77.

There is no change in the educational organization, which comprises four separate school systems for each of the different communities living in the Territory: Europeans, Africans, Indians, Eurafricans. While there are primary schools for Europeans and Asians, members of these communities continued in 1951 to stress the need for secondary facilities, but it was pointed out that "the policy of government is not to provide these as the number of pupils involved is certainly not sufficient" to justify such demands.[13] Bursaries and scholarships are, however, provided by the Nyasaland Government for higher education outside the Territory. Technical education in the true sense is confined to one secondary school. Education is not compulsory for any race in Nyasaland. In general, fees are charged, but provisions exist for remission of fees for African students when necessary.

As the following statistics will show, there is very little provision for education for any group above the primary stage. The number and distribution of schools for 1949–1950 was as follows:

Type of school	1949	1950	1951
Primary:			
European	5	5	5
Other non-African	9	7	—
African	4,626 [a]	4,864 [b]	4,540
Secondary	—	—	4
Vocational	16 [a]	16 [b]	29
Teacher training	—	—	15

[a] Nyasaland: *Report of the Education Department for the year 1949*, Zomba, 1950, p. 25.
[b] *Ibid.*, p. 20.

The school enrolment for the same period was as follows:

	1949	1950	1951
Primary:			
Europeans	220	295	683
Asians	453	575	...
Africans	227,585	220,583	241,941
Secondary	134	140	170
Vocational training	1,292	...	216
Higher education	25	30	28

[a] Scholarships and bursaries for study outside the Territory.

The total teaching staffs in all educational institutions was 2,637 in 1949, 2,695 in 1950, and 2,477 in 1951.

Total educational expenditure in 1951 for all races was £375,307, which included £17,791 for over-all administration and £117,407 for other common expenditure, and the remainder divided among the groups as follows:

Africans	£205,469
Europeans	25,713
Asians	7,100
Eurafricans	1,826

[13] Nyasaland: *Annual Report of the Education Department for 1951*, Zomba, 1952, p. 11.

Fiji

The total population of 801,959 in 1951 [14] was composed of the following:

Indigenous	
Fijians	182,889
Non-indigenous	
Indians	148,332
Europeans	6,227
Part Europeans	7,083
Chinese	3,581
Other Pacific races	8,847

The school age for both Fijians and Indians is from 6 to 14 years. While there are separate schools for separate groups, there are also some schools at both primary and secondary levels attended by pupils of more than one race.

The education of European children, including those of part-European descent who are able to take their normal place in a class of European children, presents some difficulty because of the isolated and scattered locations of the group. However, there are public and private primary and secondary schools for both sexes, some having hostel provisions which cater for a large number of European children as boarders from isolated areas.

The provision of secondary education at the technical and academic level offers also a considerable problem in the Territory. The Suva Grammar Schools provide secondary education for European and part-European children, and candidates are prepared for the entrance examination of the New Zealand University. Mission and other voluntary bodies conduct secondary schools which are in most part not attended exclusively by any single group. The Government maintains a secondary school for Indian pupils. The Queen Victoria Secondary School, conducted by the Methodist Mission for Fijian boys, was opened at the request of the Council of Chiefs and is most highly prized by the Fijian people.

There is no university in Fiji, but the records of the Department of Education, though incomplete, show that 105 non-European students (81 Indians including 10 women, 14 Fijians including 2 women, and 10 Chinese including one woman) were receiving education overseas during 1949. In New Zealand, where most of these students were studying, the Government grant entry permits to non-European students subject to certain conditions.[15] In 1950, there were 100 non-European students receiving education in New Zealand.[16]

Classification of schools and their distribution among the racial groups in 1950 were as follows:

Group	Schools			
	Government	Aided	Recognised	Total
Fijian	11	230	50	291
Indian	10	107	10	127
European	5	11	1	17
Mixed races	5	8	1	15
TOTAL...	31	356	62	450

The following table shows the total enrolment over the years 1949 and 1950 by race:

Race	Enrolment	
	1949	1950
European	2,296	2,18
Indian	20,647	22,67
Fijian	26,229	26,78
TOTAL...	49,172	51,63

The percentages of enrolment for children of school age (6–14) in 1950 were as follows: Fijian boys and girls, 93.85 and 89.12 respectively; Indian boys and girls, 79.39 and 50.13 respectively.

Teaching staffs in schools for the various groups in 1949 and 1950 were as follows:

Schools	Number of teachers	
	1949 [a]	1950 [b]
Fijian	841	812
Indian	536	558
European	75	71
More than one race	92	104

[a] Fiji: "Council Paper No. 1, Department of Education Report for the year 1949", *Journal of the Legislative Council*, Session of 1951, pp. 33–39.

[b] Fiji: "Council Paper No. 33, Department of Education Report for the year 1950", *Ibid.*, pp. 38–39.

[14] United Kingdom: *Colonial Annual Report, Fiji, 1951*, London, H.M.S.O., 1953, p. 10.

[15] Fiji: "Council Paper No. 1, Department of Education Report for the year 1949", *Journal of the Legislative Council*, Session of 1951, p. 20.

[16] Fiji: "Council Paper No. 33, Department of Education Report for the year 1950", *Ibid.*, p. 23.

Table 18

Distribution of expenditure on education from colonial revenue in 1950 [a]

Races	Total expenditure	Primary schools	Secondary schools	Teacher training	Vocational schools	Scholarships overseas	Capital expenditure	Other and recurrent
Fijian	153,842	87,693	17,705	5,676	1,873	508	9,518	30,869
Indian	97,770	67,112	4,087	3,818	2,111	1,348	1,861	17,433
European	34,873	19,717	2,688	—	1,501	273	2,186	8,508
TOTAL...	286,485	174,522	24,480	9,494	5,485	2,129	13,565	56,810

[a] £ sterling.

Total expenditure on education in 1950[17] was £1,308 and £604,563 in 1951. Educational expenditure from Territorial revenue in 1950 amounted to £546,485 and was distributed among the various groups as indicated in table 18.

On the basis of the enrolment figures given and the above expenditure the amount spent in 1950 on the education per pupil of each race is calculated as follows:

Indian pupil	£ 4. 6. 3
Fijian pupil	£ 5.14.10
European pupil	£15.19. 6

Federation of Malaya

The population of the Federation of Malaya for 1951[18] was as follows:

Indigenous	
Malays and other Malayans	2,673,114
Non-indigenous	
Europeans and Eurasians	24,243
Chinese	2,067,027
Indians	602,388
Others	53,966
TOTAL...	5,420,738

In the Federation of Malaya there are four different types of schools: English, Malay, Chinese, and Indian. However, one of the main aims of the Education Ordinance of December 1952 was the establishment of national schools. For the purpose of this ordinance a "national school" is any school providing for children of all races a six-year course of primary education with a Malayan orientation and appropriate for children between the ages of 6 and 12 and using in the main the official languages of the Federation and providing facilities in Kuo Yu and Tamil. National schools are of two types; that in which Malay is the main medium of instruction and the other in which the main medium of instruction is English.[19]

The English schools occupy a special place in the educational system of the Federation.[20] In contradistinction to the vernacular schools which provide for one community only, the English schools,[21] with a few exceptions, offer facilities for the primary and secondary education of the children of all the communities of the Federation. Lack of accommodation is greatest in English schools and considerable expansion will be required to provide for all eligible children who apply for admission.

Pupils in the Malay vernacular schools pay no school fees and textbooks are provided free by the Government.[22] Of the Chinese schools, only 22 are entirely free; in the remainder, fees are charged which differ from school to school.[23] In English schools, there is an extensive system for remission of fees.[24] In 1950 the number of pupils receiving free education or scholarships in government and government-aided English schools was as follows: European and Eurasians 880, Malays 7,343, Chinese 6,472, Indians 3,283 and others 162.

The total number of schools providing accommodation for all groups was as follows:

	1949	*1950*	*1951*
Malay vernacular (government and aided schools only)	1,433	1,574	1,704
Chinese schools	1,363	1,319	1,171
Indian schools	889	881	...
English schools	327	327	...

In 1949 the 4,583 schools including unaided Malay schools were distributed among the primary, post-primary and secondary, and post-secondary classifications as follows:

	English schools	*Malay schools*	*Chinese schools*	*Indian schools*	*Total*
Primary	211	2,001	1,336	889	4,437
Secondary and post-primary	114	3	27	0	144
Post-secondary	2	0	0	0	2
TOTAL...	327	2,004	1,363	889	4,583

Enrolment was as follows:

	1949	*1950*	*1951*
Malay vernacular schools (government and government-aided only)	237,315	262,168	285,864
Chinese schools	208,000	221,600	211,488
Indian schools	38,743	38,833	37,164
English schools	95,773	100,736	111,630

The following shows the number of pupils enrolled in 1949 in all schools (English, Chinese, Malay and Indian according to level of education).[25]

Schools	*Post-secondary*	*Secondary*	*Primary*	*Total*
English	248	22,619	72,906	95,773 [a]
Malay	—	4,708	271,909	276,617 [b]
Chinese	—	5,263	198,126	203,389 [c]
Indian	—	617 [d]	38,743	39,360

[a] Of these 1,062 are teachers in training not in institutions and 3,984 in vocational schools and evening schools.
[b] This total includes 4,175 teachers in training not in institutions.
[c] Of these 620 are teachers in training not in institutions.
[d] These are students in teachers' training classes.

The normal school classes and Raffles College are the main sources for teachers in the English schools. A new two-year training scheme has the double purpose of providing for the teaching of English in Indian and

[17] Fiji: "Council Paper No. 33, Department of Education Report for the year 1950", *Journal of the Legislative Council*, Session of 1951, pp. 38-40.
[18] Singapore: *Malayan Statistics*, September 1952, Singapore, p. 6.
[19] Federation of Malaya: *Government Gazette*, 30 December 1952, p. 1146.
[20] Federation of Malaya: *Annual Report on Education, 1949*, Kuala Lumpur, 1950, p. 39.
[21] Schools for children of all races in which the medium of instruction is English.
[22] United Kingdom: *Annual Report, Federation of Malaya, 1951*, London, 1952, p. 137.
[23] Federation of Malaya: *Ibid.*, p. 57.
[24] *Ibid.*, p. 41.
[25] *Ibid.*, pp. 142-143.

Malay schools and improving such training already existing in Chinese schools. The Malay school system is served by two residential training colleges of the Federation. In December 1951, 149 students of both sexes and all races were sent to England to Kirkby Training College, Liverpool, 129 of them being normal school students and the others 20 experienced teachers who will be able to help with the supervision of the lower and middle parts of English schools and assist in the training of teachers in Malaya.[26]

Educational expenditure

The estimated total expenditure on education in 1949 was $M37,697,020 and $M81,295,927 in 1951. Expenditure on education from territorial government revenue only in 1949 amounted to $M32,109,723, or 8.76 per cent of gross government expenditure on all services. Its classification and the expenditure per pupil were as follows:

Racial or other classification	*Expenditure* [a] $M	*Number of pupils* [b]	*Expenditure per pupil* [c] $M
English schools ..	12,627,939	95,773	131.85
Malay schools ...	15,319,800	276,617	55.38
Chinese schools [d] .	1,403,259	203,389	6.90
Indian schools ...	2,148,879	39,360	54.47
Incapable of analysis	614,846	—	—
TOTAL...	32,109,723	615,139	

[a] Federation of Malaya: *Annual Report on Education for 1949*, Kuala Lumpur, 1950, p. 165.

[b] *Ibid.*, pp. 142-143.

[c] Computation by the Secretariat.

[d] With two exceptions, the Chinese schools are all non-governmental.

[26] United Kingdom: Colonial Office, *Annual Report, Federation of Malaya, 1951*, London, H.M.S.O., 1952, p. 150.

SINGAPORE

The following shows the population distribution for Singapore for the year 1951:[27]

	Population	*Percentage of total*
Malay	129,183	12.20
Chinese	818,162	77.23
Indian	77,979	7.36
European ..... Eurasian	24,366	2.30
Others	9,683	0.91
TOTAL...	1,059,373	100.00

As in the Federation of Malaya, there are four different types of schools using Chinese, Malay, Tamil and English respectively as the principal language of instruction.

The majority of school children are in attendance at aided or private Chinese schools, the medium of instruction being Kuo Yu with English as a second language on the curriculum. Indian schools cater for a small number of children. The government now pays the teachers' salaries, and supplies three textbooks per year per child together with a per capita grant. The Malay schools are staffed and maintained by the government; the language of instruction is Malay, with English taught as another school subject.

During the primary stage there is provision for pupils of vernacular schools to enter government English schools[28] by means of the "special class" system.

[27] Singapore: *Department of Education Report 1951*, Singapore, 1952, p. 169.

[28] Schools for children of all races in which the medium of instruction is English.

TABLE 19

Singapore. School enrolment, 1949-1951

Type of school	*1949* [a] *No. of schools*	*1949* [a] *Enrolment*	*1950* [a] *No. of schools*	*1950* [a] *Enrolment*	*1951* [b] *No. of schools*	*1951* [b] *Enrolment*
English schools [c]						
Government and aided	33	21,078	73	34,351	105	48,439
Private	61	16,422	58	15,170	83	6,206
TOTAL...	94	37,500	131	49,521	188	54,645
Junior technical (trade) school	1	153	1	169	1	167
Chinese schools						
Aided	63	38,909	73	42,749	80	45,542
Private	208	29,525	214	30,202	208	30,432
TOTAL...	271	68,434	287	72,951	288	75,974
Malay schools						
Government and aided	39	7,862	43	8,436	43	8,585
Indian schools						
Aided	10	847	23	1,486	20	1,272
Private	9	468	—	—	—	—
TOTAL...	19	1,315	23	1,486	20	1,272
Miscellaneous	23	4,580	32	6,503	42	6,879
GRAND TOTAL...	447	119,846	517	139,066	532	147,442

[a] Singapore: Department of Education, *Annual Report, 1950*, Singapore, 1951, p. 35.

[b] Singapore: Department of Education, *Annual Report, 1951*, Singapore, 1952, p. 30.

New English government schools opened in 1950 and 1951 have attracted large numbers of children from vernacular schools, where after a two-year intensive course in English they are expected to take their place in the main stream of the English schools.[29] No provision is made for compulsory education, there being as yet no adequate number of efficient schools.

Table 19 shows the number of schools and enrolment in all registered educational institutions.

The enrolment in all registered schools according to race in 1951 was as follows:

Race	*Enrolment* [a]
Malay	11,530
Chinese	110,298
India	6,700
European, Eurasian	2,626
Others	772

[a] Singapore: Department of Education, *Annual Report, 1951*, p. 169.

The following analysis shows the number of students enrolled in 1949-1951 according to the level and type of school course:

	1949	*1950*	*1951*
Primary education:			
General	112,820 [a]	131,369	134,807
Other vocational	—	—	101
Secondary:			
General	9,441	12,608	20,599
Technical and vocational	1,184	1,048	1,206
Higher:			
Teacher training	378	633	1,247
Other professional	643	783 [b]	837 [c]
General	—	2	—

[a] Includes 345 from outside Singapore.
[b] Includes 487 students of the University of Malaya whose homes are outside Singapore.
[c] Includes 509 students of the University of Malaya whose homes are outside Singapore.

Free education and scholarships in government and aided English schools were provided out of public funds to the various racial groups as follows:

	Free education or scholarships		
	1948 [a]	*1949* [b]	*1950* [c]
Malay	215	302	672
Chinese	2,545	4,230	9,498
Indian	315	449	907
European and Eurasian	510	544	569
Others	88	121	120

[a] Singapore: Department of Education, *Annual Report, 1948*, Singapore, 1949, p. 116.
[b] *Ibid.*, p. 144.
[c] Singapore: Department of Education, *Annual Report, 1950*, Singapore, 1951, p. 157.

The personnel of the teaching staffs of all the schools of Singapore during 1951 were as diverse in race and origin as they were in academic qualification. Academic qualifications varied from incomplete secondary to university degrees. The vernacular schools generally restrict their staffs to teachers who have the particular language as their mother tongue and it is in the English schools where the vast diversity of race is to be observed. There is no probationary system for teachers in Indian schools nor were there any training classes organized for them during 1951. The majority of trained teachers of Chinese in Chinese schools have received their training in China before coming to Singapore to take up employment.

The percentage of trained teachers in 1951 was 87 in all registered English schools, 35 in all registered Chinese schools, 50 in Malay schools and 60 in Indian schools. Despite the restrictions upon the building programme during 1951, plans for teacher-training for teachers in English schools went ahead. Accommodation was provided for the 1,282 student teachers in training in 1951.

The number of teachers employed in the various types of schools as well as the ratio of pupils to teachers are given in the following table for the years 1949-1951.

	1949		*1950*		*1951*	
Type of school	*Teachers*	*Ratio*	*Teachers*	*Ratio*	*Teachers*	*Ratio*
English	1,322	25/1	1,968	22/1	2,188	21/1
Chinese	1,843	37/1	1,946	37/1	2,011	38/1
Malay	248	32/1	270	31/1	306	28/1
Indian	47	28/1	56	27/1	47	27/1

The total educational expenditure was:

1949 $M	*1950* $M	*1951* $M
11,267,237	17,090,457	22,103,263

Expenditure on education from government revenue only was:

Head of charge	*Gross expenditure*	*Percentage of total*
1949 [a]	$M	
Administration	472,894.34	6.1
English education	5,971,683.49	76.3
Malay education	667,224.40	8.5
Chinese education	475,793.73	6.1
Indian education	24,654.03	0.3
Vocational education	221,833.09	2.7
TOTAL	7,834,083.08	100.0
1950 [b]		
Administration	463,466.77	4.1
English education	8,956,237.00	79.8
Malay education	731,985.80	6.5
Chinese education	652,157.21	5.8
Indian education	85,731.39	0.8
Vocational education	339,955.04	3.0
TOTAL	11,229,533.21	100.0
1951 [c]		
Administration	535,433.17	3.3
English education	12,744,933.27	78.0
Malay education	999,235.45	6.1
Chinese education	1,552,708.29	9.5
Indian education	98,081.65	0.6
Vocational education	414,047.90	2.5
TOTAL	16,344,439.73	100.0

[a] Singapore: Department of Education, *Annual Report, 1950*, Singapore, 1951, p. 68.
[b] *Ibid.*
[c] Singapore: Department of Education, *Annual Report, 1951*, Singapore, 1952, p. 64.

Grants-in-aid paid by the government were distributed as follows:

	Schools	Amount ($M)	Average per pupil ($M)
1949 [a]			
	English	1,983,364.56	154.30
	Chinese	473,264.51	8.98
	Indian	5,472.00	4.50
1950 [b]			
	English	2,320,049.69	168.57
	Chinese	284,505.46	8.54
	Indian	84,788.85	57.06
1951 [c]			
	English	3,099,128.74	216.05
	Chinese	1,093,392.25	31.57
	Indian	98,081.65	67.15

[a] Singapore: Department of Education, *Annual Report, 1950*, Singapore, 1951, p. 68.
[b] *Ibid.*, p. 68. [c] *Ibid.*, p. 64.

Bermuda

The population of Bermuda in 1951 was estimated at 38,461, of whom 13,897 were white and 24,564 coloured.

In 1946, there were 26 aided schools of which 11 were for white and 15 for coloured pupils. Of the 11 white schools, 5 provided secondary as well as primary education. The following table shows the elementary and secondary school population, divided by sex and colour, for December 1947 [30]:

	Boys		Girls	
	White	Coloured	White	Coloured
Elementary	569	1,841	558	1,988
Secondary	164	70	164	165

The Schools Act of 1949 made education free and compulsory for all children between 7 and 13 years of age. The free schools provided under the Act were further divided into free schools and schools in which fees could be charged. The latter include six schools that also provide secondary education, one primary school and one vocational school. The free schools are all primary schools, and number 19.[31]

From the information available, the distribution of schools, enrolment, teachers or educational expenditure between the separate school systems for white and coloured is not apparent.

Concluding note

General Assembly resolution 328 (IV) of 1949 invited the Administering Members to take steps, where necessary, to establish equal treatment in matters relating to education among the inhabitants of the Non-Self-Governing Territories under their administration, whether indigenous or not. In its examination of the question in 1950, the Committee considered the resolution to mean emphasis on the principle of equality of opportunity and not that a common educational programme should in all cases be provided for all groups in a community of different racial or religious composition. Again, in 1952, the Committee's consideration of social policy, and particularly of aspects of race relations, avoided any idea of uniformity and aimed rather at encouraging in all groups a recognition of the cultural contribution of each to the general life of the community.[32]

In the majority of the Non-Self-Governing Territories, the schools, whether State-maintained or State-aided, serve all groups of the community and are part of a unified school system. Where separate facilities are provided for different communities, this may be due primarily to geographic causes, or may be designed to meet the needs of different racial, linguistic or cultural groups inhabiting the same regions as in North, East and Central Africa and parts of South-East Asia. Whatever school system may exist, the provision of equal opportunities for the pupils, to a large extent, depends on the economic, social and cultural conditions of the groups to which they belong.

Nevertheless, even in the brief period since 1950, a tendency has shown itself in some of the Territories inhabited by plural communities to establish a unified school system or at least to emphasize a national school system, even though separate schools may still be maintained for particular groups. A second tendency is for the institutions of higher education to seek pupils from all groups even in cases where, at the lower stages of education, separate school systems are maintained.

The information from Non-Self-Governing Territories reveals a growing practice in the study of vernacular languages at secondary and higher education levels. This practice in some cases has been extended to include metropolitan types of schools whereas in Morocco it has been introduced as a curriculum subject in Franco-Moroccan schools and in Tunisia, at the primary level. It may be noted, too, that attempts are being made, as in the case of Madagascar, to raise the level of the educational standard of indigenous schools to that of the metropolitan type.

Information on educational expenditure in a number of cases where separate school systems prevail has been lacking in clarity or failed to show the distribution of total expenditure among or between the separate school systems. In many cases insufficient information has made it impossible to determine the relationship of enrolment to the school-age population, nor the number, qualification and status of teaching staffs of indigenous or other groups.

On the other hand, the information does indicate an increase in the assumption by governments of financial responsibility for the provision of free primary education to all groups in the community. Even in cases where fees are still charged, there is invariably some system of remission in necessitous cases, thereby assisting some groups in the community to have an equal chance to share with others in the educational provisions available to the community as a whole.

[30] Bermuda: *Report of Joint Committee appointed by the Legislative Council and the House of Assembly on Political, Economic and Social Problems raised by Command Paper Number 7093*, Hamilton, 1948, p. 79.

[31] Bermuda: *Report of the Director of Education for the Year 1950*, Bermuda, 1951, p. 8.

[32] United Nations: *Report of the Special Committee on Information transmitted under Article 73 e of the Charter, 1950* (A/1303/Add.1), p. 20; *Report of the Committee on Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories, 1952* (A/2219), p. 19.

CHAPTER VIII

PARTICIPATION OF THE INHABITANTS IN EDUCATIONAL POLICIES AND PROGRAMMES

Introduction

In 1950 the Committee on Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories recorded its view that:

"The indigenous population is directly concerned in all questions affecting education.

"No educational system can be completely effective unless the people have control over educational policies.

"The form of this participation is less important than its spirit and effectiveness.

"While the Administering Member has a responsibility to put its experience at the service of the makers of educational policy in the Non-Self-Governing Territories, it is, in general, local representative opinion, constitutionally and regularly expressed, which should determine all decisions taken in respect of educational policies and programmes." [1]

The very general nature of the above views was a result of the Committee's recognition that, however important it may be to associate the indigenous peoples in all phases of educational policy and administration, there are some Territories where the Administering Members concerned felt that, having regard to the present levels of education, such participation would be premature.

Even so, the information received by 1950 showed that to a great extent educational programmes were advancing in which, through central educational councils with a representative element, through the exercise of executive and advisory authority by local government boards or by local educational authorities, through school boards, through parent-teacher associations and the like, the general desire for better education was being fostered and the character of local education determined with due regard to popular opinion. Further, representatives of the Administering Members drew attention to a number of constitutional reforms by which, to an increasing extent, the inhabitants of the Territories were coming to exercise control over the whole field of education.[2]

The present study is designed to supplement the information placed before the Committee in 1950 in the light of information received since that date. Accordingly, it does not attempt to cover all developments in all Territories, since in many cases the indications are that the forms and effectiveness of local participation remain largely unchanged.

General developments

In a number of the Non-Self-Governing Territories, particularly those comparatively advanced in cultural development, control over education is already largely vested in local indigenous authorities, and, in respect of major policy decisions and of routine administration, is exercised by or at least in consultation with the local populations. On the other hand, in some Territories, educational levels are such that the direction of policy remains almost exclusively in the hands of representatives of the metropolitan cultures, whether governmental or non-governmental.

The first situation is to be found in the Territories under United States administration, in respect of which the information furnished in 1950 indicated that already wide participation in educational policy and administration was secured to local inhabitants through the development of territorial constitutional government and of parent-teacher association in school management.

The only additional point to be mentioned is that in the Virgin Islands, as a result of an initial survey by a group of educational specialists from the United States Office of Education, the Governor's Commission on Education has been created. The purposes of the Commission are to determine how education can be made to serve better the personal, economic and social needs of the inhabitants; to formulate long-term educational policies; to find ways and means of more effectively organizing and financing education; and to consider and adopt other purposes as they emerge from time to time during the life of the Commission. The Commission is described as broadly representative of all aspects of living in the Virgin Islands, and is therefore composed of citizens recognized for their competence in a variety of fields. The Educational Study Group, comprised of teachers and other professional and technical advisers, was also created to deal with problems on technical and research levels; extensive studies and research are being carried out. It is considered that by these means there will gradually evolve a series of recommendations and specific goals prepared by a representative group of Virgin Islanders

[1] United Nations: *Non-Self-Governing Territories. Summaries and Analyses of Information transmitted to the Secretary-General during 1950*, New York, 1951 (Sales No. 1951.VI.B.1.Vol.III), Vol. III, pp. 22-23.

[2] *Ibid.*, pp. 133-154.

with the consultative service of the United States Office of Education.[3]

At the opposite extreme in the evolution of indigenous participation are Territories such as French Somaliland, Netherlands New Guinea and Papua under Australian administration. In these cases the information indicates that initial steps have been taken to associate the indigenous peoples in the development of education.

In French Somaliland, the information for 1951 states that the indigenous population has not yet reached a degree of evolution sufficient to enable them to participate in the formulation of educational policies. It is pointed out, however, that the Representative Council (*Conseil représentatif*) has advisory powers in questions concerning the organization of primary, secondary and vocational education.

As regards Papua, the Committee was informed in 1950 by the Australian educational expert that while there were no legislative provisions respecting the participation of the inhabitants in educational policy and administration, the village and other councils exert very real influence. The Australian Government was at that time contemplating formal steps to achieve greater participation of the population.[4] Recent information indicates that voluntary school councils have appeared in the last two years which raise funds for the school, provide maintenance and encourage attendance.[5]

A statement made to the Committee on Information in 1952 indicates that in Netherlands New Guinea the Government has endeavoured to make the population participate in working out a social policy that includes the educational advancement of the indigenous inhabitants. With this end in view, a local body has been set up which may be the first step towards establishing a really representative organ and achieving participation by the indigenous inhabitants in the administration of the Territory.[6] The indigenous population is at present able to exert important influence on the direction of education only via the synod of the Protestant Papuan Church. Apart from this, a first step towards the conferment of such influence has been made by the appointment of a Papuan as a member of the Council for Popular Education; this is the beginning of participation at the highest level. The number of indigenous teachers is stated to be increasing rapidly, and there is already one Papuan school inspector.

Conditions necessarily vary widely in the different Territories under French and United Kingdom administration. The general tendency in recent years has been to increase measures of popular participation in educational programmes both in the highest fields of policy and by administrative changes affecting the central machinery of consultation (France) or the local school administration (United Kingdom).

The Department of Education of the Ministry of Overseas France has in the last three years established the practice of summoning a conference of the heads of overseas education services. The conference, it is claimed, constitutes a superior education council which takes into account the interests of the indigenous populations. The last of these conferences (July 1952) presented certain recommendations as to the participation of the inhabitants in educational matters. They are as follows:

" (i) The Conference requests that qualified representatives of education from overseas Territories be appointed to the Superior Council for National Education and to the Education Councils attached to the National Education Ministry so that these Councils may be kept informed of the possible impact that measures taken in the metropolitan country may have upon the said Territories and so that special steps being contemplated for each Territory may be brought to their notice and discussed before them.

" (ii) The Conference is of the opinion that several specialized bodies should be established: one for general education, one for vocational education, one for matters related to youth and sports and, eventually, one for mass or adult education... One single body should centralize all questions pertaining to vocational education, in each Territory or group of Territories...

" (iii) The Conference recommends that a greater number of indigenous teachers be sent every year to the seminar held at Saint-Cloud (near Paris) in the *Ecole normale* and that special courses be given to them..."

A second point is that, following recommendations of the Ministry of Overseas France, thirteen representatives of overseas Territories have been seated in the French National Commission for UNESCO.

Information has also been supplied indicative of the development of indigenous participation in the formulation of educational policies. On the one hand, the Assembly of the French Union must be consulted before any steps are taken affecting educational developments in the Territories. On the other hand, in the Territories it is stated to be the policy of the French Government to enlarge continuously the scope of those powers, the exercise of which enables the indigenous inhabitants to acquire experience in the conduct of local affairs. It was stated, for example, in the information on French Equatorial Africa for 1951 that all population groups " share equally in the conduct of public affairs, through their representatives in the local assemblies and in the assemblies of the central government ".

In the Territories under United Kingdom administration, aside from the development of departments of a ministerial type under locally elected ministers of education, notable changes have taken place in parts of Africa through the assignment of responsibility for schools either to local government bodies or to special local educational authorities.

As representative local councils have been established along the lines of those in the United Kingdom, the

[3] United States: *Annual Report of the Governor of the Virgin Islands, 1951*, Washington, 1952, pp. 19-20; Federal Security Agency, *Study of Education in the Virgin Islands*, Washington, 1950.

[4] *Op. cit.*, pp. 148-149.

[5] United Nations: document A/AC.35/SR.75, p. 8.

[6] United Nations: document A/AC.35/SR.56, 1952, pp. 3-5.

financial responsibility for primary education in their areas has been in part entrusted to them. However, while they raise taxes for the building, equipment and maintenance of schools and for the provision of scholarships, and while in most cases they may also own schools, the management of schools is a function of the local education authorities. These authorities are statutory bodies established under the education ordinances and consist of representatives of central and local governments as well as representatives of voluntary agencies. Unlike most local government bodies in Africa, most of whose members are generally African, the education authorities may and often do have a majority of European officials and missionaries. The functions of these authorities usually include drawing up plans for educational development; preparing estimates; making recommendations on the registration of schools; and distributing grants according to conditions laid down by the territorial authorities.

As regards the Territories under other Administering Members, a brief note is given in the succeeding section on developments in Greenland where the broad reforms outlined in 1950 are being put into effect. In the Belgian Congo, apart from the responsibility of native authorities in establishing and financing the construction of rural schools and the right of native councillors to express their views on educational policies and budgets in the government and provincial advisory councils, there does not exist a direct participation of the inhabitants in the educational policies and programmes of the Belgian Congo. The structure of the educational system does not provide for such a participation and the wide use of private subsidized schools means that such participation as exists is not a matter determined by the Government. In the New Zealand Territories, no special information has been provided on what in the small communities concerned is no doubt a reflection of the personal relations between the villagers and the local administrators.

Territorial developments

Territories under French administration

The information transmitted on French West Africa for 1951 refers to the functions of the Grand Council and General Council, and points out that each of these elected bodies takes part in the preparation and voting of the different budgets. Therefore, " the African peoples participate, like all citizens of the French Union, through their elected representatives, in the formulation of educational policies. There exist, moreover, at the local level, parents' associations in many schools; these associations are represented on the various internal boards and their co-operation is often of help in smoothly managing and developing the different schools ".

French Equatorial Africa

The information relating to 1951 states that " the guiding principles of educational policy in French Equatorial Africa are drawn up in agreement with the Grand Council and the local Assemblies in the four Territories, on which bodies the representatives of the African population hold the majority ". Advisory bodies had been set up consisting of " the Superior Council for Education, which, at the federal level, gives its opinion and advice on all matters related to public and private education; the Education Councils holding similar powers in each Territory; and the Education Committees which study, in each administrative *circonscription*, the programmes for educational advancement and draw up the list of improvements required for school buildings and equipment ". The general educational structure was considered, however, to have become outmoded owing to the progress and development of education. Since 1951, the Council for Education has been reorganized and made responsible for " the general policy and the development of education ". Its membership includes members of the Grand Council of French Equatorial Africa.

Madagascar

The information for 1951 states that, " through their representatives in the five provincial Assemblies and in the Representative Assembly of Madagascar, the people express their views on education. Every year their recommendations are conveyed to the Department of Education, which studies them thoroughly and suggests to the High Commissioner the practical steps to be taken in order to meet well-founded requests ".

An advisory body for education and an advisory body for vocational education have been set up. The advisory body for education advises the High Commissioner on all general problems pertaining to public and private education. The advisory body for vocational education is set up for the purpose of advising the High Commissioner on all general questions concerning handicrafts, vocational training, etc. The members of these bodies are in part *ex officio* and in part nominated by the High Commissioner. Finally, there are parents' associations in primary and secondary schools with which the Department of Education keeps in close touch.

Territory under Danish administration

Greenland

Following the recommendations of the Greenland Commission of 1948–1950, a number of extensive changes have been or are being introduced in the general government of Greenland and in the educational system. The new Greenland Council, which is elected by universal adult suffrage, is empowered to consider and report on all proposed metropolitan legislation relating solely to Greenland. While the administration of schools will be directed by the School Board, of which the Governor is chairman and the Dean of the Lutheran Church and the Director of Schools are members, a Cultural Board has also been appointed, on which a member of the Greenland Council sits, with responsibility for managing

cultural work in Greenland, reporting on progress and making recommendations for future work.

In the local government districts, provision has also been made for the participation of the inhabitants in school supervision. In each of the new so-called municipalities (which replace the smaller districts and in which there is universal adult suffrage) a school committee has been created, consisting of the inspector of schools, the local clergyman, the chairman of the Municipal Council and one member nominated by the Municipal Council. The parents are to appoint representatives to the Committee with the first election taking place in 1955.

Territories under United Kingdom Administration

In the central machinery of government of the various Territories, participation of the inhabitants in the development of educational policy and action is being increasingly secured through the transfer of major policy responsibilities from officers of the administration to representatives of the inhabitants, and the increased call on representative inhabitants for the work of standing education committees advisory to the development of education and for service in *ad hoc* policy committees concerned with education. At the same time, particularly in the larger African Territories, a process of decentralization is taking place by which a number of educational responsibilities, more especially in regard to primary education, are being assigned to local authorities.

These responsibilities may devolve on the local government in its exercise of general powers, or may be provided for through the creation of special local education authorities, or divided between the two types of agencies. The local government may consist preponderantly of chiefs and headmen inheriting their positions or nominated to them or of elected members; the education authorities usually comprise representatives of the local government authority and of the various school managements with perhaps teacher representatives.

East Africa

It has been recognized that in the end, authority over local education matters should be exercised through a committee of the local African council. "It must be remembered, however, that many African district councils are as yet lacking in experience and knowledge and need considerable supervision in their early stages to prevent them from making serious financial and other mistakes"; and it is suggested that, while the local education authorities need to be constituted as separate entities for the present, they should finally become committees of the African district councils by passing through the following successive stages:

1. A nominated advisory body;
2. A representative advisory body (council, missions and teachers);
3. Such a body with executive functions; and
4. A committee of the district council with added members (missions and teachers).[7]

The kinds of adjustments necessitated by this policy are illustrated by developments in Kenya and Uganda.

In Kenya, local responsibility for African education is shared by the African District Councils and the District Education Boards. The Councils usually establish committees to which other persons may be co-opted and which sometimes include technical officials of the government, the committee chairmen being nearly always Africans. They levy rates and, subject to the approval of the members of the Executive Council, are responsible for education grant funds to District Education Boards. In view of this financial responsibility, a demand had grown among certain Africans that local councils should also become local education authorities. The government of Kenya, however, has accepted the view of a Committee on African Education that "the devolution of sole financial responsibility for African primary education on local authorities had ... created a state of affairs which was leading some Local Native Councils to bankruptcy".[8] Under the Education Ordinance, 1952, in order to restore central responsibility to the Director of Education, conditions governing the establishment and management of schools and the allocation of grants have been revised. On the other hand, the decentralization of administration has been encouraged by the reconstruction of District Education Boards, and on these Boards the official element has been decreased by the elimination of representation of the Agricultural and Medical Departments. School managers and local government bodies will be equally represented each by four members. At the same time it is the policy of the government "to encourage the appointment of Africans as representatives of management by which it is hoped to encourage the growth of an informed and responsible body of African opinion which will enable the Government at the appropriate time to hand over with confidence to the African District Councils greater responsibility than they now have".[9]

In Uganda, responsibility for African primary education is shared between the African local governments and local education authorities. Since 1949, the African local governments have received subventions sufficient to cover teachers' salaries at approved rates and special grants to cover salaries. All other expenses in connexion with school buildings, repairs and maintenance, scholarships and general running costs are raised by the local governments.

Towards the end of 1951, however, it had become clear that, in the absence of a considerable increase in their revenues, it was not possible for African local govern-

[7] United Kingdom: Nuffield Foundation and Colonial Office, *African Education: A Study of Educational Policy and Practice in British Tropical Africa*, London, Oxford University Press, 1953, p. 61.

[8] Kenya: *African Education in Kenya* (Beecher Report), Nairobi, 1949, p. vii.

[9] Kenya: Education Department, *Annual Report for the Year 1950*, Nairobi, 1951, p. 36.

ments to finance all the expansion of primary education which is essential. Moreover, reports from all provinces indicated that local opinion in most cases would welcome additional taxes specifically earmarked for education. Accordingly, in 1952 the African Local Governments Ordinance was amended to permit the local councils to impose rates for any purpose approved by the Provincial Commissioner, and in several districts the local government councils have voted an education tax additional to the ordinary taxation to be levied in 1953 for the expansion of primary education and other purposes. One district is establishing its own senior secondary school, while another has already built a junior secondary school.

The local education authorities are generally coterminous with African local governments. With some exceptions every local education authority is composed of representatives of approximately equal numbers of all main bodies interested in African education, the Protectorate Government, the local governments, the chief school owners and parents of the school children.

As regards the central organization of education, in Uganda the Education Ordinance was amended in 1952 to give the Governor complete discretion as to the membership of the African educational advisory council. The amendment, it is stated, is intended to make the system of representation more elastic and to permit African membership to be considerably increased. In Kenya, on the other hand, the appointment of an advisory council on education has been transferred from the Governor to the Member for Education of the Executive Council, who is one of the European elected members.

Central Africa

In Northern Rhodesia similarly, recent action has been taken to provide for the gradual decentralization of responsibility to local authorities by a sharing of responsibility for various matters relating to education between local government bodies and statutory local education authorities.[10] In respect of education up to Standard IV, the central government is to be responsible only for teachers' salaries, cost-of-living allowances and pensions. The local governments will be responsible for the building and maintenance of the schools. The administration will be a responsibility of the local education authorities, which are representative of the central government, the local governments and the missionary societies. In particular, the local education authorities are given powers to receive and administer grants and to control the opening and closing of schools.

West Africa

In West Africa, and notably in the Gold Coast and Nigeria, changes since 1950 have provided for a ministerial system of responsibility by which education comes within the functions of popularly elected ministers. A process of decentralization is also taking place at the same time as local government in general is being modernized. The system of local education authorities is being followed, as in East and Central Africa, but to a greater degree the general local government agencies may operate as or themselves recommend the creation of local education authorities.

Thus, in both Nigeria and the Gold Coast the system of local councils is based on that in the United Kingdom. The different councils are largely autonomous in the area over which they are responsible, but they will be related financially in that certain councils have the authority to levy rates and the other councils will derive their revenues from them. In Nigeria, under the Education Ordinance, 1952, as under the former ordinance, the Governor may establish a local education authority or local education committee and specify its powers and functions. A local government body may, however, now apply for the approval of the establishment of a proposed Local Education Authority or Local Education Committee. In the Gold Coast, District Education Committees in the Ashanti and in the Colony are also retained with their advisory functions though their membership has been widened to include representatives of local government. In both Territories the teachers' union is represented on the advisory bodies, and in the Gold Coast the People's Education Association is also active in promoting education.

Caribbean

In Jamaica and in Trinidad, while ministerial responsibility for education has been established, a somewhat extensive reorganization of the educational systems has been effected since 1950, broadening the general basis of participation by the inhabitants in school administration.

As indicated in 1950, the Education Authority for Jamaica was appointed in October of that year to exercise duties previously performed by more limited boards and to formulate and give effect to a comprehensive educational policy (not including but having regard to the available facilities for higher education). The Authority consists of twenty-four members, including representatives nominated by the professional teachers' associations and by the owners of grant-aided public elementary schools.[11] Local Education Authorities consist of local school boards which manage government schools; they are directly responsible to the Education Authority in the administering of government funds. Each secondary school has its own governing body, and technical and vocational schools have their own advisory committees. The members of the Education Authority, the school boards and governing bodies of secondary schools, as well as the staff of the Education Department, are predominantly Jamaican.

In Trinidad, since 24 October 1950, an elected Minister of Education and Social Services has been

[10] Northern Rhodesia: Education Ordinance, 1951, *Laws and Statutes*, 1952 edition, chapter 163.

[11] Jamaica: *Annual Report of the Education Department for 1950*, Kingston, 1951, p. 7.

responsible for the formulation of educational policy. The Director continues to be responsible to the government for the general administration of the Department, but with the creation of the Ministry he has assumed the role of chief executive officer in putting into effect the policy adopted on the advocacy of the Minister.[12]

The Education Board consists of fourteen members; the Director of Education is Chairman, though not *ex officio*. The members are selected for their expert knowledge, interest in and experience of various branches of education rather than as representatives of sectional or regional interests; one member, however, must be a woman and one member must be a primary school teacher in active service. Subject to the Governor's approval, not more than three additional persons possessing special knowledge or qualifications may be co-opted to the Board for a period not exceeding twelve months. The Education Ordinance, enacted in May 1951, provides for increased representation of the teaching body on the Education Board. Meetings of the Board are open to the public, and copies of the agenda are furnished to members and the press in advance.

Southeast Asia

The steps which are being taken in Malayan Territories to achieve universal education are being accompanied by wider use of the local communities and a general emphasis on the participation of the population in educational measures.

In the Federation of Malaya in 1951, provision was made for the nomination of a non-governmental member of the Federal Legislative Council as Member for Education. His duties are to promote the education of the people of the Federation of Malaya and the progressive development of institutions devoted to that purpose and to secure the effective execution of the national policy of providing a varied and comprehensive educational service in every area of the Territory.

In 1952 a revised Education Ordinance was adopted, in which stress is laid on the policy of providing for the education of children in accordance with the wishes of their parents so far as compatible with the national educational policy, the provision of efficient instruction and the avoidance of unreasonable public expenditure. The Ordinance provides for a Central Advisory Council, and in each State and Settlement there is to be an advisory committee. In addition, local advisory committees may be established in regard to educational institutions and projects, and the Member for Education may constitute special advisory committees for similar purposes.

In the same year, the Local Councils Ordinance made provision for the creation of Local Council Areas, in which Local Councils may raise funds which are to be divided into a general purpose fund and an education fund. Each Local Council may establish, maintain and manage schools, school gardens and playgrounds, and may also take over existing schools with the consent of their managers. Previously, in 1951 the Committee on Malay Education (nine of whose fourteen members were Malays) recommended setting up local education authorities, in order both to promote the feeling that the primary school belongs to the local community it serves and to place on that community responsibility for meeting a reasonable part of the cost of primary schooling. In regard to these proposals for local responsibility, the Central Advisory Committee on Education stated: "We accept the principle of Local Authorities but consider that this question should receive careful and expert consideration. We believe that any system of local responsibility should provide adequate safeguards for the interests of the children and the teachers and should not interfere with the transferability of the latter."[13]

In Sarawak, important progress has been made in the development of local control over education since the establishment in 1948 of five Local Education Authorities which took over or set up eighteen primary schools. In areas where no Local Authority had yet been formed, the indigenous peoples were encouraged in the meantime to open private aided schools, controlled by committees comprising local representatives and receiving financial assistance from central government funds.[14] By the end of 1951 there were seventy-four Local Authority Schools. The Local Authorities are financed mainly by a refund of tax collected in their area, together with a proportionate grant from central funds. By the end of 1951, six Local Authorities had decided to raise additional revenue for education by charging an education rate.[15] The responsibility for buildings and furniture is devolved a stage further to village committees. Thus the greater part of Local Authority funds can be allocated to the payment of teachers' salaries and equipment, while at the same time, village communities are encouraged to provide their own buildings. Through the responsibility thus devolved on the villages, the danger is avoided that the Local Authorities will be regarded as a mere extension of the central government.

By the end of 1951 the Local Authority school system had completed four years of existence and it was possible to make some appraisal of its merits and weaknesses. As was expected, the devolution of responsibility to inexperienced local bodies had resulted in some loss of professional efficiency. For example, some Authorities had expanded their school systems to the limits of their finances and had allotted too little money to the purchase of sufficient equipment for existing schools and to provide for increments for serving teachers and probable rises in cost-of-living allowances. On the other hand, the assumption of responsibility for primary education has led to considerable interest in

[12] Trinidad and Tobago: *Annual Report of the Education Department for 1950*, Port of Spain, 1951, pp. 3, 15.

[13] Federation of Malaya: Central Advisory Committee on Education, *Report on the Barnes Report on Malay Education and the Fenn-Wu Report on Chinese Education*, Kuala Lumpur, 1951, p. 4.

[14] United Kingdom: *Annual Report on Sarawak for the Year 1948*, London, H.M.S.O., 1949, p. 33.

[15] United Kingdom: *Annual Report on Sarawak for the Year 1951*, London, H.M.S.O., 1951, p. 54.

educational development; the discussion of school affairs usually occupies the greater part of Local Authority meetings; the Authorities have shown an increasing understanding of the problem of attendance, equipment, curriculum and other matters that concern their schools; several Authorities have recently turned their attention to the drafting of education rules, and have shown an imaginative and determined approach to the problem of ensuring that pupils complete the four-year course.

In Hong Kong the Board of Education, which is advisory to the Director of Education and was composed of five official and eleven unofficial members, was in January 1951 changed into a board of non-officials (except for the Director) representing the various racial groups in the Colony, the religious bodies actively engaged in education, the university and the business community. There are also numerous other committees through which the inhabitants of the Territory participate in educational policies and programmes. In the University, prominent citizens, representative of all communities and including the University's principal local benefactors, several of whom belong to Asian families long established in the Colony, are members of the Council and Senate appointed by the Chancellor.

Concluding note

In the brief period since 1950, changes have been effected in a number of Territories in order to obtain a wider participation of the inhabitants in the determination of education policy and in the administration of education programmes. These changes affect both the central territorial machinery of government and local administration.

Some of the measures introduced suggest that various safeguards are necessary in order to maintain and improve standards of efficiency in the schools, to provide supervised freedom for the separate schools and to maintain the status of teachers.

The study jointly sponsored by the British Colonial Office and the Nuffield Foundation suggests in its report of the East and Central Africa Study Group the following broad considerations which appear applicable not only throughout Africa but also in other regions.[16]

"One of the most important problems which Government in Africa has to face today is the extent to which at any given time Africans shall become partners in government. Complete self-government on a democratic basis by all the people of a territory working together is the undoubted goal and the only questions are the means and the speed of the progress towards that goal. Those problems, however, call for the exercise of very great ability, constant thought, and constant experiment on the part of those who now rule these territories. If the Africans are not given their share in government as fast as their capacity allows, their energies may be diverted into irresponsible channels. On the other hand, if they are given powers in excess of their capacity to discharge them properly, injustice, inefficiency, and financial chaos are the result. Our problem in this connexion is the government of education and we urge once more the great importance of the following points:

"(*a*) That every individual exercising autocratic powers for the time being should have the help of an advisory committee of Africans which should become increasingly executive as time goes on;

"(*b*) That local bodies such as school governors and local education authorities afford an excellent training ground for work of wider responsibility; and

"(*c*) That the young educated men and women must be given a fair share of authority, if necessary by nomination, for otherwise the older men will monopolize government and the young people will become disaffected and discouraged."

[16] United Kingdom: *African Education*, p. 62.

CHAPTER IX

VOCATIONAL TRAINING

Introduction

In 1950 the Secretary-General submitted to the Committee on Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories studies on the specialized training of teachers, indigenous medical personnel, agricultural technicians, labour and trade union officers and social workers.[1] In 1951, he submitted to the second session of the Committee a report prepared by the International Labour Office entitled " The Training of Workers ".[2]

The present study is divided in two parts : the first[3] is concerned primarily with a general analysis of the broad vocational training problems arising out of the social and economic context of the Non-Self-Governing Territories. Here the emphasis is not on a detailed account of the vocational training facilities available in the individual Territories, but on the policies now evolving and on the major developments taking place in this field and which are receiving progressively greater attention and priority in the Non-Self-Governing Territories.

The second part of this chapter deals with the general development of vocational training for agriculture, industry and commerce in Non-Self-Governing Territories. It describes briefly plans and programmes designed to meet the needs for vocational training; the training facilities provided; some of the specific problems, for the most part educational, confronted in connexion with the development of vocational education; and, finally, the present state of development of vocational guidance in the Territories where it has been organized.

Some aspects of vocational training in Non-Self-Governing Territories

General

The special attention and priority given to vocational training are indicated not only by the action and planning undertaken in and for individual Territories—referred to below—but also by the fact that in recent years vocational training and related problems have been a leading preoccupation at regional and international meetings devoted to the study of the economic and social problems of non-metropolitan Territories or those common to non-metropolitan and other Territories in a particular region. The accelerated pace of economic development, the implementation of policies designed to raise levels of living and productivity and, in some Territories, the policies designed to promote industrialization, have all indicated the need for better utilization of the human resources in non-metropolitan Territories, a process in which improved vocational training facilities and policies are essential.

In the Caribbean area, two recent meetings held under the auspices of the Caribbean Commission have had this subject under consideration. The Industrial Development Conference, held in Puerto Rico early in 1952, had on its agenda the subject, " Improvement of Labour Productivity in Industry in the Caribbean," and adopted a number of recommendations on selective recruitment for industrial employment, recruitment of technical personnel and training for industry. The first session of the West Indian Conference, meeting in Montego Bay, Jamaica, towards the end of 1952, made recommendations on a wide range of aspects of vocational education including training in agriculture, trade and industry, guidance services, apprenticeship, on-the-job training and the training of instructors.

The Inter-African Labour Conference held its third session at Bamako early in 1953. Although a number of aspects of vocational training had been examined at the two earlier sessions, at Jos in 1948 and at Elisabethville in 1950, the Conference had once more on its agenda the subject of vocational training, guidance and apprenticeship. The recommendations of the Conference dealt with the questions of pre-apprenticeship training, apprenticeship, technical and vocational instruction, on-the-job training, vocational guidance and the training of rural artisans.[4]

In the South Pacific area, a comprehensive report on vocational training facilities, needs and problems has been prepared on behalf of the South Pacific Commission, covering the Territories served by the Commission. This report has been examined by the Research Council and the Commission. One result of this examination has been that the Commission at its eleventh session, April 1953, decided to recommend to its six member governments the establishment of a central vocational training institution in Fiji to serve the area.

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[1] United Nations: *Non-Self-Governing Territories. Summaries and Analyses of Information transmitted to the Secretary-General during 1950*, New York, 1951 (Sales No. 1951.VI.B.1.Vol.III), Vol. III, pp. 193–332.

[2] United Nations: *Non-Self-Governing Territories. Summaries and Analyses of Information transmitted to the Secretary-General during 1951*, New York, 1952 (Sales No. 1952.VI.B.1.Vol.I), Vol. I, pp. 102–107.

[3] United Nations: document A/AC.35/L.141, prepared by the International Labour Office.

[4] France: *La Documentation française, Chronique d'outre-mer*, Paris, No. 3, March 1953, pp. 10–14.

The International Labour Office has given a prominent place to the study of vocational training problems in its programme of work relating to non-metropolitan Territories. The second session of the Committee of Experts on Social Policy in Non-Metropolitan Territories, which met in November-December 1951, had on its agenda the subject "Technical and Vocational Training and Other Allied Problems within the Competence of the ILO". The Governing Body, after considering the report of the Committee, decided to place the subject again for further study on the agenda of the third session of the Committee, to be held in Lisbon in December 1953. It will also be of interest to note that the Asian Regional Conference of the ILO, to be convened in Tokyo, September 1953, will have as an item on its agenda, "Measures for the Protection of Young Workers in Asian Countries, Including Vocational Guidance and Training". The Conference will, *inter alia*, consider the "Report of the Technical Meeting on the Protection of Young Workers in Asian Countries, with relation to their Vocational Preparation", held in Ceylon in December 1952.

Some social and economic factors related to vocational training problems

The widely varying economic and social conditions to be found in non-metropolitan Territories make generalization in this sphere extremely difficult. Nevertheless, a number of factors either common to many non-metropolitan Territories or significant in certain groups among them have a sufficiently profound influence on problems of vocational training policy to merit preliminary reference.

One feature which is widespread in Non-Self-Governing Territories and which differs from the pattern prevailing in the countries where formal vocational training, particularly technical training, has made most progress, is the small proportion of the population engaged in wage-earning activity. In most African Territories, for example, the figure is often very low. Statistics on this subject are often misleading, since they usually indicate only the average number of wage-earners employed during a given period. Such statistics do not present an adequate picture in respect of the many Territories and industries in which labour turnover is high because of the large number of workers employed intermittently or only during a relatively short period of their working lives. The emphasis on vocational training is necessarily different in Territories in which the permanent wage-earning labour force is a tiny fraction of the community and in communities where the principal and permanent means of securing a livelihood is the trained skill that can be utilized by an employer. The migrant worker, in particular, who represents such an important segment of the employed population in parts of Africa and the South Pacific, has a working life of so casual and intermittent a character as to render him unable to derive much benefit from organized training programmes.

In the Territories under consideration, therefore, training problems must at the present time be considered largely in an agricultural and rural context and, to a considerable extent, in terms of agricultural extension programmes. Nevertheless, long-term vocational training programmes must envisage the development of industrialization and the mechanization of agriculture as probable trends in a number of Non-Self-Governing Territories. Many other aspects of social progress, such as the improvement of housing conditions, call for higher levels of skills in the communities concerned.

The relatively low level of *per capita* income in nearly all Non-Self-Governing Territories and the consequently meagre resources which are available from local sources for the development and operation of the various branches of the social services, including all forms of education and training, constitute a difficulty common to all under-developed areas. In nearly all the Territories, moreover, governmental expenditure on technical and vocational training represents only a small proportion of total expenditure on education. The explanation is that the Territories are grappling with the problems of other forms of education in which a great lag has to be made up for the community as a whole. In most Territories, the provision of even rudimentary education for all children of school age is no more than an objective of policy; demand and the changing structure of the societies in question means that a significant proportion of funds appropriated for educational purposes has to be devoted to higher education. Efforts to widen the availability of adult education facilities have likewise to be made. These points are stressed because all policies designed to promote the extension of technical and vocational training facilities in Non-Self-Governing Territories must take into account the extremely wide variety of pressing needs which these Territories face with exiguous resources and because of the relatively high *per capita* cost of vocational training as compared with general education.

In some Non-Self-Governing Territories, where communities of widely differing cultures and origins coexist, special problems are posed by programmes designed to make wider training facilities available to all elements of the population. Traditionally, employment in certain fields and the exercise of certain skills has been confined to members of one or another element, and a hierarchical structure of employment is established; changes in the structure usually meet with resistance from groups favoured by such arrangements. In plural societies of this character, the utilization of apprenticeship as a means of transmitting skills, for example, is hampered by the structure of the society, and the limitations in practice on available avenues of employment are a bar to the most efficient use of manpower and skills.

In a number of Non-Self-Governing Territories, particularly island Territories, the small size and population, sometimes coupled with geographical isolation, restricts the possibility of developing training programmes at all necessary levels in the Territory itself.

Another point which should be made is that the labour systems existing in many Non-Self-Governing Territories create a number of special problems. With

the partial exception of the extractive industries, these are based on the availability of a large supply of unskilled labour from which dexterity and the experience gained from repetition rather than skill derived from training is required. These labour systems are associated with a relatively low level of mechanization and capital equipment; hand labour or labour with fundamentally inefficient implements is the norm. Where these conditions obtain in Territories with a high level of population in relation to employment opportunities, practices such as the sharing of available work act as a check to the utilization of more efficient methods. Such labour systems provide an unfavourable *milieu* for the development of training programmes designed to secure greater *per capita* productivity and the husbanding of manpower resources by the utilization of rationalized techniques.

Vocational training and manpower needs

The manpower needs of a given community constitute the basis for the vocational training policies most appropriate to that community. The logical aim of such policies is to equate the supply of skilled personnel with present and probable future requirements of the economy, so as to avoid providing training in fields in which there are not the corresponding employment opportunities on the one hand and, on the other, stagnation in the process of economic development through lack of the necessary technicians and skilled workers.

In most Non-Self-Governing Territories, there has been in recent years a sustained and planned effort to raise living levels through economic development. In particular, capital on a considerable scale for development purposes has been made available through the metropolitan governments concerned and also through other sources. The resulting higher level of economic activity has been one of the reasons for the greater attention given to vocational training problems; shortages of skills necessary for the execution of development projects were revealed. In these circumstances, the need for closely relating vocational training programmes in Non-Self-Governing Territories to manpower needs requires emphasis.

The view is sometimes put forward that, since the shortage of skills in under-developed areas is so great and since there is little risk that trained personnel will fail to find suitable employment opportunities, vocational training programmes in such areas need not have as a basis very comprehensive information on manpower needs. The opposite point of view would, however, seem to carry more weight: that in view of the limited resources available in such areas for the expansion of training facilities, those resources need to be utilized for the provision of the most urgent facilities. The relevant decisions on this point can be taken only where adequate and up-to-date manpower information is available.

Information on manpower questions in many of the largest and most important Non-Self-Governing Territories is at the present time either entirely inadequate or, in any form approaching accuracy, virtually non-existent. In some of the smaller and more developed Territories, full-scale censuses have been held at varying intervals, but in few even of these Territories are the statistical services sufficiently equipped, with the collaboration of employment services, to keep any information thus acquired up to date. The assessing of probable future manpower requirements has yet to be tackled. Often the most fundamental bases for estimating such requirements do not exist.

Limited administrative machinery and a variety of local circumstances in most Territories make the compilation of such information a much more difficult task than in more developed areas. But there can be no other satisfactory way of solving those problems of policy in regard to vocational training which imply a choice among different directions of effort. Vocational guidance and employment counselling, especially important in areas in which economic development is proceeding at a pace involving changes in the pattern of employment, presuppose adequate manpower information. The assessment of probable future trends in regard to manpower requirements and the manpower budgeting which a deliberate policy of economic development involves also underline the importance of this question.

Vocational training in relation to general education

The Committee on Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories receives statistics, detailed information and analyses concerning general educational conditions in Non-Self-Governing Territories. Reference to the existing situation in this regard is therefore limited in the present paper to consideration of the effect of restricted general educational facilities on the development and implementation of vocational training programmes and other related questions.

Expert opinion is in general agreement as to the necessity of a certain minimum of basic education as a prerequisite of all but the most rudimentary forms of vocational training. A report on manpower organization submitted to the International Labour Organisation's Asian Regional Conference in 1950 makes this point clearly and also refers to some of the arrangements through which this end may be secured.

> "All types of vocational training require a certain standard of general knowledge on the part of the trainees; the effectiveness of the training largely depends thereon. In this respect, illiteracy evidently constitutes the greatest handicap for those responsible for the organization of training, since it is hardly possible to train persons who can neither read nor write beyond a very rudimentary level. But even where such elementary knowledge exists, vocational training cannot advance at a normal rate and attain the required level unless it can be founded on basic education received, as a rule, in primary schools.
>
> "Since the training of young persons generally takes place on the conclusion of their schooling or may

be regarded as a continuation thereof, it is normal and useful that particularly close co-ordination should be established between the two forms of instruction. Where this exists, efforts are made as far as possible to make use of the knowledge acquired at elementary school and to bring it up to the required standard. To this end, additional courses in general education are added to the vocational education courses, properly so called. When training is given in a school, these courses can often be integrated with the theoretical aspect of vocational education. On the other hand, in the case of apprenticeship and other forms of in-plant training, special supplementary courses have usually to be organized, apart from the training programme, or at any rate outside the undertaking to which the trainee is apprenticed, at the nearest school." [5]

This problem is clearly one of major importance in Non-Self-Governing Territories, in which, taken as a whole, general educational facilities reach a smaller proportion of the community than is normally the case in more developed areas.

Another aspect of the relationship between general education and vocational training is the question of the utilization of the later years of any formal schooling which is available as a stage of pre-vocational education. This is a tendency which is already developing considerably in Non-Self-Governing Territories as part of the process of adapting educational systems more closely to their needs and to the life of the community.

A further point in this connexion is the possibility of utilizing the school and the teacher in the general educational system in the informal or formal vocational guidance of the young. There is already, in some Non-Self-Governing Territories, fruitful collaboration in this field between the Labour Departments and the schools.

Nevertheless, the fact has to be faced that, for some time to come, the inhabitants of Non-Self-Governing Territories will include a considerable proportion of persons who have had little or no formal schooling in youth, but for whom some training provision will need to be made, training being here considered in the broad terms noted above. On the one hand, this implies that all possible support be given, on this as well as on all other grounds, to adult and mass education techniques. On the other hand, it equally implies, particularly in regard to agriculture and traditional crafts, the use of extension advisory services organized on a basis which permits the adult illiterate to derive practical benefits therefrom. The present low level of technology which most Non-Self-Governing Territories share with other under-developed areas is susceptible of many relatively simple and inexpensive improvements which can bring considerable direct returns without involving specialized training and which can be brought about by the use of extension services on an extensive rather than an intensive basis.

[5] International Labour Organisation: *Asian Regional Conference*, January 1950, Organisation of Manpower, fifth item on the agenda, International Labour Office, Geneva, 1949, pp. 48–49.

Consideration given to vocational training problems at international and regional meetings

Reference has been made above to the consideration given to vocational training problems relating entirely or in part to Non-Self-Governing Territories by a number of meetings held over the past few years. The conclusions and recommendations emerging from these meetings provide a point of departure for a review of the policies at present considered as an appropriate basis for the expansion of vocational training programmes in Non-Self-Governing Territories.[6]

The conclusions and recommendations to which reference is made covered nine principal themes: ways of reducing the costs of vocational training; the levels at which training should be available; the relationship between general education and vocational training; the relationship between vocational training and manpower needs; the organization of various types of training; the content of vocational training courses; collaboration between government, employer and workers in the development of programmes; problems relating to vocational training instructors and the importance of vocational guidance and employment counselling.

A number of suggestions were made in the recommendations cited in regard to ways of reducing costs. An important sub-theme here was the possibility of utilizing external assistance. The 1951 meeting of the ILO Committee of Experts on Social Policy in non-metropolitan Territories drew the attention of governments to the possibilities of such programmes as the Expanded Programme of Technical Assistance of the United Nations and the specialized agencies. The Conference on Industrial Development, Puerto Rico, 1952, drew the attention of governments to the various services which the ILO could provide in this connexion and the fifth session of the West Indian Conference recommended (recommendation No. 57):

> "That the Commission be requested to explore the possibility of obtaining technical and financial assistance from the Point Four Programme of the Government of the United States, the Expanded Technical Assistance Programme of the United Nations and the Specialized Agencies, and other interested sources for the organization and establishment of the educational programmes recommended by the Fifth Session of the West Indian Conference, and that the Governments of the area served by the Commission be informed of the results as early as possible." [7]

[6] See: *Resolutions regarding Technical and Vocational Training adopted by the Second Session of the Committee of Experts on Social Policy in Non-Metropolitan Territories, Geneva, 26 November–8 December 1951; Proposals of the Fourth Session of the ILO Permanent Agricultural Committee; Conclusions of the Technical Meeting on the Protection of Young Workers in Asian Countries, Ceylon, 1–10 December 1952, in Regard to Vocational Training, Youth Placement and Vocational Guidance* (*Industry and Labour*, Vol. IX, Nos. 5–6, 1 and 15 March 1953, pp. 158–9).

[7] Caribbean Commission: *West Indian Conference, Fifth Session, 1952*, Port of Spain, 1953, p. 85.

The possibility of regional co-operation as a means of reducing training costs was recommended for exploration both by the ILO Committee of Experts in general terms and the Industrial Development Conference in respect of the Caribbean area. Among other recommendations with the same purposes in view is that of the Technical Meeting on the Protection of Young Workers in Asian Countries proposing the fullest possible use of existing training institutions by methods such as the extension of training facilities to evening classes and part-time day classes for young workers.

In regard to the levels at which an effort should be made to provide vocational training, special emphasis was laid in several recommendations on the need for providing training not only for the worker at the production or artisan level, but also for supervisory and managerial functions, as well as for the local instructor at a professional level. The 1951 Committee of Experts also stressed the related point of the general coverage of vocational training programmes in its recommendation that training facilities should be available in agriculture, in arts and crafts and in industry, for women and girls as well as for men and boys, and for the exercise of independent activities as well as for wage-earning employment.

The relationship between general education and vocational training is strongly stressed in the recommendations under consideration. The fifth session of the West Indian Conference considered that " the question of adult education is a matter of basic importance to any form of vocational education in the area, and fundamental education and especially literacy are a necessary basis for adequate vocational training ".[8] The conclusions of the three ILO meetings referred to earlier, also emphasize this relationship. Pre-vocational training associated with the general education system was recommended, in particular by all the meetings the conclusions of which are under consideration. The fifth session of the West Indian Conference recommended, for example, " that Governments of the area served by the Commission be requested to establish pre-vocational training in the higher classes of primary schools ".[9]

The 1951 Committee of Experts emphasized the relationship between vocational training programmes and manpower needs in the following terms : " Training programmes should be planned to provide a flow of skilled workers of all types as required by the economy of the territory concerned, such needs to be determined by appropriate surveys and studies." The Ceylon meeting dealing with the training of young persons in Asian countries recommended that " existing training facilities, both public and private, should be reviewed periodically to ensure that training given is in conformity with actual requirements in the various branches of the economy in terms of skill and manpower ". The 1952 Conference on Industrial Development also particularly emphasized the need for up-to-date manpower information as a basis for training policies designed to promote labour productivity and industrial development in the Caribbean area.

In regard to the organization of various forms of vocational training and the content of training, a number of detailed recommendations were made. In particular, the need for a balance in all forms of training as between theoretical and practical instruction was emphasized. The recommendations of the 1951 Committee of Experts in this regard [10] summarize in general terms the trend of the recommendations on these themes. The organization of apprenticeship arrangements received special attention from the Conference on Industrial Development, the fifth session of the West Indian Conference and the Bamako Conference. The West Indian Conference also recommended " that Territorial Governments collaborate with employers in making on-the-job training an integral part of planning for technical education " and also drew attention to methods of pre-employment training for " green " labour to be engaged in production work in factories.

The need for collaboration between government, employers and workers was strongly stressed in the body of recommendations. The 1951 Committee of Experts indicated the desirability of such collaboration in regard to all aspects of such programmes in its recommendation that " advisory bodies to co-ordinate vocational training activities should be established in which representatives of employers and workers, including representatives of their respective organizations where such exist, as well as the Government Departments concerned and of relevant private and voluntary agencies should be invited to participate ". The fifth session of the West Indian Conference recommended similar collaboration with particular reference to responsibility in respect of apprenticeship policies and supervision. The Ceylon meeting emphasized another purpose—the desirability of Advisory Committees " to ensure the necessary co-ordination of training with industrial requirements ".

The quality of vocational instruction and the need to build up a body of competent vocational training instructors has received attention in a number of recommendations. The alternative possibilities of employment in industry for the instructor have caused the Committee of Experts, the fifth session of the West Indian Conference and the Ceylon meeting, *inter alia*, to emphasize the need for satisfactory status, opportunities and conditions of employment for instructors. Suitable training for the personnel concerned with vocational training is stressed in the recommendation of the Ceylon meeting to the effect that the training of the technical, administrative and supervisory staff in charge of vocational training should include both basic and refresher courses and organized visits to industrial establishments so as to ensure that the trades and skills taught are those actually required.

The Bamako Conference, the fifth session of the West Indian Conference, the Ceylon meeting, the 1951 Committee of Experts and the Conference on Industrial Development all emphasized the importance of selection, vocational guidance and employment counselling

[8] *Ibid.*, p. 79.

[9] *Ibid.*, p. 81.

[10] See footnote 6.

as a necessary concomitant of policies designed to co-ordinate training and manpower needs.

Some trends and patterns in the development of vocational training facilities in Non-Self-Governing Territories

Since the second part of this study deals with vocational training facilities in Non-Self-Governing Territories, the following paragraphs are intended to illustrate selectively certain trends and developments indicative either of the efforts being made to improve those facilities at different levels or of experimentation designed to meet the special needs of particular Territories.

A few general points of an introductory character need, however, to be made.

In the first place, there is a general tendency to underrate the volume of training actually being provided in Non-Self-Governing Territories, because attention is often directed only to government institutions of the trade school or technical institute type and the limited number of formal apprenticeship contracts in operation in a given Territory. In order to obtain an accurate picture, a much larger field has to be considered. In many cases, government departments such as public works departments, departments of education, departments of agriculture and departments of health provide training in various forms for different categories of employees. Private industry, notably in the extractive industries and in the new industrial production undertakings becoming more important in some areas, often makes provision for the training of its employees. The missions in many African Territories, for example, provide trade-training courses. Private institutions make their contribution, notably in training for employment in commercial undertakings.

A second general point is that, in the process of economic development at present taking place in Non-Self-Governing Territories, many categories of workers whose lack at the present time has tended to increase sharply the demand for increased vocational training facilities, can receive training on-the-job and certainly do not require to become master of a trade in the way that an apprentice who has satisfactorily concluded his apprenticeship is master of his trade.

A third general point is that, while in under-developed areas, among which most Non-Self-Governing Territories may be classified, attention is in most cases primarily directed to providing vocational training facilities for the young, the practical benefits to be derived from training policies directed to improving and up-grading the skills of workers already in employment appear to have received less consideration.

In respect of the development of vocational training facilities in Non-Self-Governing Territories at the present time, four main trends deserve some comment: the planning and reorganization of vocational training arrangements; the development of regional co-operation in this field; the introduction of accelerated training techniques in some Territories; and the expansion of training facilities in the Territories at the higher technical and technological levels.

Reference has been made above to the vocational training survey carried out in the South Pacific under the auspices of the South Pacific Commission. Among other recent examples of the study and planning which are a necessary preliminary to the execution of expanded programmes are the studies undertaken under the auspices of the Caribbean Commission in preparation for the Industrial Development Conference and the fifth session of the West Indian Conference, the surveys of vocational training problems undertaken in a large number of British Territories by the Assistant Educational Adviser for Technical Education to the United Kingdom Secretary of State for the Colonies, and the replanning of vocational training programmes by local committees in Territories such as Trinidad and Barbados.

Two notable examples of regional co-operation are the utilization of the Metropolitan Vocational School of Puerto Rico by trainees from other parts of the Caribbean area and the proposed central vocational training institution in Fiji which the South Pacific Commission has recommended to serve the South Pacific area. The estimated cost of the latter project is £475,000. It is planned that the institution will be able to take 400 full-time students for training in technology, agriculture and forestry and social studies.

The introduction of accelerated training techniques is a notable development in a number of French African Territories. In French West Africa, for example, a programme of this kind was inaugurated in 1949 along the lines used during the years of the Second World War in a number of countries: the object is to train a skilled worker in a matter of months through selection by psychotechnical tests and specialized training. There is an accelerated training centre in Dakar; experiments in accelerated training have also been carried out in Conakry and Abidjan.

In the sphere of higher technical education, several outstanding examples may be noted from British African Territories. In Kumasi, Gold Coast, a College of Technology has been established. In Nigeria, a College of Arts, Science and Technology is to provide all the forms of non-university character required by the Territory, and courses for men already in employment and for boys from secondary schools who wish to continue their education by training of a more practical nature than that provided by a university. An institution of similar level is to be established in Sierra Leone. In British East Africa there is being established a Royal Technical College at Nairobi to serve all British East African Territories; it is hoped to provide facilities for 1,500 full-time and 1,000 part-time trainees.

The present study has indicated in a general way some of the factors determining the scope and emphasis of vocational training programmes in Non-Self-Governing Territories, the related problems to which attention is at the present time being given and to some of the action being taken to meet the widely-recognized need for an expansion of vocational training facilities.

The direct relationship between vocational training requirements and manpower needs, taken in conjunction with the wide variety of conditions obtaining in Non-Self-Governing Territories, means in practice that the details of a vocational training programme for any particular Territory are a function of local conditions. Nevertheless, it is clear that there is a large measure of general agreement on broad issues of general policy.

The major practical problem remains the translation of these broad policies into realities in terms of individual Territories. The fact that so much progress needs to be made, despite the widened recognition of vocational training needs in the Territories, suggests that, as a number of the meetings whose conclusions have been surveyed have recommended, more co-operation among the Territories and fuller use of external technical assistance possibilities might be of real value.

General development of vocational training for agriculture, industry and commerce

Plans for increasing training facilities

Surveys of technical education facilities in the Non-Self-Governing Territories have been made by the respective governments as a basis for future plans. Some examples of the recognition of the urgent need for vocational training and the plans for increasing training facilities in respect of a few typical Territories are summarized in the following paragraphs.

The ten-year plan for the economic and social development of the Belgian Congo recognizes that economic expansion is held in check by a quantitative and qualitative shortage of labour.[11] Increasing numbers of skilled workers and specialists are required for agriculture, industry and commerce, and further training is needed for workers engaged in general labour. At the same time, on account of the costs it is necessary to replace white technicians in certain tasks. In 1947, there were three government schools providing vocational training and eight private schools subsidized by the government. The ten-year development plan provided for the creation of a special technical training section in the Department of Education. Provision has been made for the development of training through apprenticeship workshops and technical schools of the intermediate and senior grades. The apprenticeship workshops are intended to train general workers for the wood, iron and building trades, principally to meet the needs of native communities. Admission is to be open to pupils who have completed two years of primary education; and the minimum period of apprenticeship would be two years. In the intermediate vocational schools, a four-year course will be provided for pupils who have completed the four-year second stage in the primary general educational course. It is hoped that trained workers will be graduated for the building trades and general industry in the urban centres. The senior vocational schools will provide a six-year course of study and will be open to pupils who have completed six years of education. These schools will train supervisors and gang-leaders capable of directing work without the aid or supervision of a European.

In the development of this system, the teaching staff will be recruited from teachers who have received special training instruction and from technicians who have taken a course in education. The first type will be used largely for the general courses and the second for the specialized courses. In the workshops, teaching will be confined to persons with several years of experience of technical or vocational education. In these workshops, every effort will be made to introduce the atmosphere of the industrial conditions in which the pupils will later work.

In the French overseas Territories, one of the chief problems in the execution of the various development plans is that of a shortage of labour trained in modern techniques. A report on the development of the overseas Territories notes that the African population is insufficiently educated. There are many manual labourers, but few trained workers. The result is a waste of human material. Yet, although some of the people experience difficulties in acquiring industrial skills, others can be rapidly trained. Thus, while the insufficiency of the labour supply is almost everywhere the chief bottleneck in the execution of the plan for development, it is considered possible to remedy the situation to a certain extent by an improvement in the health and professional training of the inhabitants.[12]

The development plans accordingly provide for practical and regional schools of agriculture; apprenticeship workshops and specialized regional training centres; technical schools and technical high schools with specialization in appropriate fields to meet the respective needs of particular regions. In addition, higher technical colleges are to be built in French Equatorial Africa, French West Africa and Madagascar, a higher college of tropical agriculture in French West Africa and in Madagascar, and eventually a school of mines and public works in French West Africa. Under this technical training development plan, enrolment of pupils is expected to rise from 4,300 in 1948 to 14,000 in 1951 and to 21,000 in 1956.[13]

The Territories of the United Kingdom in their economic development similarly need artisans and trained agricultural workers who can take part in the extension of public works in power, roads and communications, water supply, soil conservation, irrigation, drainage, crop and animal husbandry and housing and who can develop and operate local industries. In order to meet these needs, expansion of the existing training facilities is essential.[14]

The development plans of the United Kingdom Territories provide for a wide range of vocational

[11] Belgium: *Plan décennal pour le développement économique et social du Congo belge*, Brussels, 1949, Vol. I, pp. 62–77.

[12] France: *Premier rapport de la Commission de modernisation des territoires d'outre-mer*, Paris, 1948, p. 20.

[13] *Ibid.*, pp. 75–76.

[14] United Kingdom: Colonial Office, *Report of the Commission on Higher Education in West Africa*, Cmd. 6655, London, H.M.S.O. 1945, p. 113.

training facilities including the establishment of new and well-equipped trade training centres to turn primary-school boys into competent artisans, technical institutes to provide a broader and more scientific background for trade centre apprentices and for others receiving their training within industry and commerce, as well as colleges of technology to provide post-secondary vocational courses up to the highest levels.

In part, colleges of arts, science and technology have been established or expanded in the West African Territories. In Uganda, a commercial college has been founded to train Africans for more responsible posts. In Malaya, the junior technical schools are filled to capacity and the government technical departments are training students. A new technical college is being built. While these steps are being taken for teaching technical and commercial subjects up to the professional level, it is claimed that technical education at the lower level is receiving increasing emphasis everywhere.[15] From 1 April 1946 to 31 March 1952, the Government of the United Kingdom approved under the Colonial Development and Welfare Acts the sum of £4,242,609 for technical and vocational education in its Non-Self-Governing Territories.[16] These sums received from the metropolitan country supplement territorial expenditure. In the Gold Coast, for example, the accelerated development plan, which was approved in 1951, provides for capital expenditure on technical education of £1,192,750, to be expended up to 1957, with an annual recurrent cost of £216,200. In Nigeria, in the years 1951–1956, technical education, including the establishment of a technical college and a rural training centre, will involve the expenditure of £3,932,547.

In Puerto Rico, with the diversification and expansion of the economy of the island, the need for more skilled and semi-skilled workers is rapidly increasing. A plan outlined by the Economic Division of the Planning Board requires a capital investment of over $350 million and envisages the provision of about 70,000 new jobs in the manufacturing industries by 1960. In 1950–1951 alone, 40 new firms were attracted to the island. In order to meet the resulting labour needs, eight new vocational schools have been built, each with an enrolment capacity of from 200 to 300 students. In general, the number of pupils attending public vocational schools increased from about 1,300 in 1948–1949 to approximately 6,500 in 1950–1951 and to 9,382 by April 1952.

Types of training facilities

Any account of training facilities, limited to a description of the technical and vocational schools as well as the special training courses existing in a Territory, can cover only a narrow part of the educational programme by which children are educated for participation in the economic development of their countries. The familiarity with, and training towards, the practices of occupational skills may begin in the primary schools and extend over the whole range of education. This is the case in Non-Self-Governing Territories as elsewhere. Nevertheless, a frequent criticism of the content of education in these Territories is that there has been undue emphasis on a literary education and that both parents and pupils tend to under-estimate forms of education leading to skills in agricultural and industrial activities.

Vocational training in agriculture

Since most of the Non-Self-Governing Territories are primarily agricultural, the attention paid to agricultural education in the general educational system of the Territories, agricultural training through extension activities among adults, the encouragement of initiative among farmers through training courses directed by the departments of agriculture, and the development of skilled agriculture through employment, form the fundamental basis for vocational education for the rural population as a whole. As a general rule, the special agricultural schools are intended for the training of potential recruits for the government services concerned with agriculture, forestry, etc., and in some Territories, particularly Africa, the number of students admitted to agricultural schools has been determined by the number of vacancies which are expected to occur in their government services.

In general, for the training of agricultural assistants, supervisors and officers in the government services, facilities are provided at various training centres and schools which are based on the needs of the administrations. In the Territories where there are large estates, or where advanced farming practices are followed, provision is also made for the agricultural training of those who may enter into the employment of the estates or become private farmers on their own account.

The training of junior officers, especially as agricultural instructors and field assistants, is, in terms of numbers, the most important part of agricultural training in Non-Self-Governing Territories. In most of the larger Territories, provision is made for this type of training in schools providing courses of from two to three years and admitting pupils who have received secondary education. In some of the more advanced schools, specialized courses are also given in forestry or other particular branches of agriculture.

At the highest level, agricultural training is given at the universities and such specialized colleges as the Colonial School of Agriculture in Tunisia, the Egerton College of Agriculture in Kenya, the Mauritius College of Agriculture, the Malaya College of Agriculture, and the Imperial College of Agriculture in Trinidad. These institutions provide advanced courses in aspects of agriculture relevant to the needs of the areas they serve. The Imperial College in Trinidad has a particularly wide scope, drawing students from outside the Caribbean region, both from and outside the British Common-

[15] United Kingdom: Colonial Office. *The Colonial Territories, 1951-1952*, Cmd. 8243, London, H.M.S.O., 1952, p. 4.

[16] United Kingdom: *Colonial Development and Welfare Acts. Returns of Schemes made under the Colonial Development and Welfare Acts by the Secretary of State for the Colonies with the concurrence of the Treasury, in the period 1 April 1951 to 31 March 1952*, University Press, Oxford, 1952, p. 38.

wealth. Students from the Non-Self-Governing Territories may also proceed to their respective metropolitan countries or to foreign countries for advanced agricultural training. Thus, in the academic year 1952–1953, the number of students from Territories under United Kingdom administration, studying in the United Kingdom and Ireland, was 78 for agricultural subjects, 37 for veterinary subjects and 11 for forestry.

A summary of the work of various institutions specializing in the training of agricultural technicians was put before the Committee in 1950.[17] Institutions where training is given more widely to those likely to farm on their own account as well as to employees of the agricultural departments, are illustrated by the following instances.

In the Belgian Congo, one-year training courses are provided for Europeans at agricultural schools situated at Mushweshwe and at Lula. Prospective pupils are expected to have done farm work for two years before admission. At Mushweshwe, the course is almost entirely practical and includes instruction in the cultivation of coffee, cinchona, tea, fruit trees, wheat and barley, while at Lula the cultivation of rubber, coffee, cocoa and the oil palm is taught. On completion of their course, the pupils are established on farms laid out for them by the government and are provided with loans for their work.[18] For the African population there are professional agricultural schools and farm schools. Agricultural assistants for government service take three-year courses at Kisantu and Kaponde. Entrants are required to have completed three years of secondary school work. The school at Kisantu is now being incorporated with the University Centre, Lovanium, and is to be reorganized to become a centre of instruction in advanced agriculture.[19]

In Kenya, the Egerton College of Agriculture provides training for the European farming community, while Africans receive agricultural instruction at various agricultural training centres and at a farm institute. Practical instruction in agriculture is also given at schools of all categories, in the making and application of manure and compost, the rotation of crops and grass, fodder growing, the cultivation of high-priced cash crops and soil conservation measures in school gardens and farms. The Egerton College offers a two-year diploma course, a one-year certificate course which provides an essentially practical training in mixed farming, and an annual short refresher course for farmers, which certain government officers also attend. A number of special short courses are also held for private students. Students' wives are allowed to take the certificate course free of tuition fees.[20]

There are in Madagascar three levels of agricultural training. In ten government regional secondary schools, one of the three years of the school course is devoted to special instruction in agriculture. At the next level are the practical agriculture schools, which offer three-year courses for selected post-secondary students. On completion of their course, trainees establish themselves on their own farms, work with their parents, become chief supervisors on middle-sized plantations or are employed as assistants in agricultural laboratories. A few students take a fourth year at government agricultural experiment stations and laboratories and then become specialists in irrigation, mechanized agriculture or plant pathology. Finally, there is a higher agricultural school for training managers of large plantations, agricultural specialists, senior agricultural supervisors and senior government officers.

Among the training schemes in Nigeria, attention is drawn to particular training centres and schools intended to raise the general standard of farming.

Training in mixed farming is the chief task of the agricultural training centres at Kafinsoli and Riyom, the trainees being expected to return to their homes on completion of their course to take up farming on their own or with their parents. The Kafinsoli centre provides short courses for post-primary pupils. For a time, it also provided training for ex-servicemen. The Riyom agricultural training centre is operated by the Jos Native Administration and provides one-year to two-year courses. There is always an adequate number of applicants for admission to the centre and in recent years more supervision of training has become possible; but it is not yet possible to give sufficient attention to following up the farming activities of ex-students, an increasing number of whom are showing signs of making a success of their farming ventures.[21]

At the Ogbomosho Farm School,[22] the policy up to 1949 was to recruit literate boys of about 18 years old, give them two years' training at the school and then settle them on their own farms. In 1950 a class of boys of from 13 to 14 years old was recruited. These boys were mainly illiterate, and it is intended to keep them at school for four years and to give them, in addition to their farm work, two hours' classroom work daily. On completing their training they will be settled in a group, living in a single community. It will then be possible to carry out permanent supervision of their farms and to provide modern rural amenities.[23]

As an instance of agricultural training in the United Kingdom Territories in the Caribbean, Jamaica provides an example of an extensive system of education. The Jamaica School of Agriculture, situated at Hope, provides a three-year course covering practical and theoretical agriculture. On completing their training, candidates secure supervisory posts on private farms, engage in farming on their own account or enter the agricultural services of the Territory. Short training

[17] United Nations: *Summaries and Analyses of Information transmitted to the Secretary-General during 1950*, Vol. III, pp. 260–282.

[18] Belgium: *Rapport sur l'administration de la colonie du Congo belge pendant l'année 1950*, Brussels, 1951, p. 295.

[19] *Ibid.*, p. 153.

[20] Kenya: *Department of Agriculture Annual Report, 1947–1949*, Nairobi, 1950 *passim*.

[21] Nigeria: *Annual Report on the Agricultural Department for the Year 1948*, Lagos, 1949, p. 19; *Annual Report on the Agricultural Department for the Year 1949–50*, Kaduna, 1951, pp. 19–20.

[22] Nigeria: *Annual Report on the Agricultural Department for the Year 1948*, p. 31.

[23] Nigeria: *Annual Report on the General Progress of Development and Welfare Schemes, 1950–51*, Lagos, 1951, p. 13.

and refresher courses are held during vacations for ex-students and teachers.[24] Training in elementary agriculture is also provided in three secondary schools. Post-primary instruction in agriculture extending over two to three years is also given to boys between the ages of 15 and 18 at three practical training centres. The purpose of the centres, each of which has an enrolment capacity of about 90 students, is to improve efficiency in agriculture and allied crafts, and to lead to an appreciation of the rural environment and an interest in manual skill. A further two-year agricultural extension course at apprentice training centres is designed to lead to settlement on the land. Since their inception in 1936, 1938 and 1940 respectively, these three centres, together with a centre for girls, have trained more than 1,000 students.

In the Pacific, the vocational school of American Samoa, a post-primary institution, has an agricultural section which provides instruction in both academic and agricultural subjects, including practical farm projects. The high school of American Samoa also has full-time courses in agriculture. For candidates not attending high school, there is a vocational agricultural school where instruction is given in the cultivation of coconuts, bananas, breadfruit, taro and other tropical fruits, garden vegetables and cocoa, as well as in animal husbandry. In Guam, agricultural training is included in the regular high school work; a three-year course in vocational agriculture is provided in the senior high schools of the Territory. Practical work is done under supervision on home and school farms. The agricultural school at the United States Experiment Station is now operated by the local high school with the assistance of lectures from the Department of Agriculture. Subjects taught include crops, soil, poultry and animal husbandry, plants and animal pests and their control.

Vocational training for industry and commerce

Vocational training for industry and commerce is provided in a large variety of institutions, in departments of general schools and in special schools, as well as in government and private workshops. There are also a number of colleges providing technological training at the professional level.

In the Belgian Congo, while a number of technical trades are taught, special attention is given to the building industry with emphasis on the training of masons and carpenters, and to motor engineering and the needs of the government technical services. In 1951, there were nine technical schools with 1,005 pupils, 10 special departments in secondary schools specializing in commercial and administrative training and in land surveying with 224 pupils, 65 apprenticeship workshop centres with 1,778 pupils, and 27 technical schools operated by industrial companies with 1,547 pupils. Among the special courses provided are those for motor mechanics and chauffeurs with 664 pupils, and schools for telecommunications, postal services and land surveys.[25]

An example of training in East African Territories under United Kingdom administration is provided by Kenya. The Kabete Technical and Trade School provides courses of training for post-primary pupils in the following trades: carpentry, building, painting and decorating, sheet-metal work, electrical wiring, plumbing and pipe-fitting, blacksmithing and welding, shoemaking and leather-working, tailoring, fitting and turning, and general garage work. As part of the practical training, the school undertakes production work, such as the erection of buildings. The Government African Trade School at Thika offers courses of four years' duration for builders and carpenters; the Nyanza Trade and Technical School conducts courses for builders, carpenters and general smiths; the East African Posts and Telegraphs Department provides training for periods up to twelve months in engineering, postal work and radio operation; and East African Railways and Harbours runs the Nairobi Traffic Training School. The Mombasa Institute of Muslim Education, a technical school designed for Moslem communities in East Africa, aims at preparing students for London technical examinations from the lowest grade up to the full technological certificate. The Institute offers courses in woodworking, building, general engineering, seamanship and navigation. Finally, in Nairobi a newly founded Royal Technical College is designed to prepare students up to the standard of senior British professional examinations.[26]

In West Africa, a recent important development has been the opening of the Kumasi College of Technology in the Gold Coast. The college at present has an enrolment of about 500 students and is intended to train the personnel required for the economic, technological, educational and social development of the Territory. Specialist teacher-training courses now include arts and crafts and domestic science; other courses will include agriculture and training courses for teachers of technical subjects such as are to be taught in technical institutes and trade-training centres. Courses will also be provided in community development, commercial subjects and accountancy as well as in higher engineering.

A comparable enterprise is the Nigerian College of Arts, Science and Technology with branches at Ibadan, Zaria and Enugu, which is designed to complete the technical educational structure of the Territory based on the trade centres and technical institutes. It is proposed that the college should provide training for secondary school teachers and for the staff of primary teacher-training centres and technical institutes; courses in building, surveying, civil, mechanical and electrical engineering, mining, geology and telecommunications; agriculture, forestry, veterinary science; training for

[24] Jamaica: *Report on the Education Department for the Year ended 31 December 1950*, Kingston, 1952, pp. 11 and 13.

[25] Belgium: *Rapport sur l'administration du Congo belge pendant l'année 1951*, Brussels, 1952, pp. 130–148.

[26] Kenya: *Education Department Annual Report, 1950*, Nairobi, 1951, pp. 23–24; Zanzibar: *Annual Report on the Education Department for the Year 1951*, 1953, pp. 9–10.

the medical auxiliary services; for secretarial and commercial works; instruction in extra-mural work; and training for mass education workers.

For French African Territories south of the Sahara, French West Africa provides the following examples of vocational training facilities: ten apprenticeship centres, eight technical high schools and four emergency training centres. The apprenticeship training centres admit post-primary pupils of 14 to 17 years of age. The course is of three years' duration and leads to the certificate of technical proficiency similar to the diploma of a similar name issued in metropolitan France. The technical high schools train highly skilled workers and prospective foremen. The first five years of the course are devoted to general technical training followed by two years of specialization. The technical high school at Dakar[27] trains workshop managers and prepares candidates for the technical *baccalauréat*, and for the entrance examination to the *Écoles nationales des arts et métiers* in metropolitan France. The two-year course provided at the Bamako technical high school is devoted to the training of assistant engineers, who may become full engineers by completing their studies at universities in metropolitan France. This high school also provides four-year courses in surveying, architecture, building construction and the supervision of public works. Lastly, there are four emergency training centres providing training in masonry, carpentry and welding.

In Morocco, technical training for skilled workers is given in apprenticeship workshops attached to primary schools, at the secondary level in technical schools and in departments of secondary schools for highly skilled artisans and foremen, and at a post-secondary level at the Casablanca Industrial and Commercial School, whose graduates become technicians and managers in various industrial concerns. There are 131 apprenticeship workshops in various parts of the Territory, where skilled workers are trained in metalwork, including fitting and automobile maintenance, in carpentry, in the building trades, including plumbing and the electricians' trade, and in the printing trades. Girls receive training in housecraft, including child care and dressmaking. The Department of Labour also runs apprenticeship workshops while intensive emergency training centres have been set up in Casablanca, Fez, Meknes and Rabat. Arab and European trainees live and learn together. Courses last ten months, and fitters, motor mechanics and radio electricians are trained. At the secondary stage, *lycées* and departments of high schools provide training in commercial subjects, woodwork, metal work, textile technology, flour milling, surveying and printing. At the apex of the system, the Casablanca Industrial and Commercial School has departments of metallurgy, electrical and civil engineering, flour milling and industrial refrigeration. This school also prepares candidates for admission to the *Écoles nationales des arts et métiers* and to other higher institutions of technology in France.

[27] France: Présidence du Conseil, *Les carnets d'outre-mer, L'Afrique-Occidentale française*, Paris, 1951, p. 56.

In the Caribbean Territories of the United Kingdom important institutions of technical education are found in Jamaica, British Guiana and British Honduras. Provision exists for the apprenticeship system, although its scope is limited by the relative lack of craftsmen themselves capable of giving instruction of a satisfactory standard.[28] Many of the government departments and private industry train their own junior technical staff.

The Technical School in Jamaica provides, by day and evening classes, instruction in such subjects as practical mathematics, mechanical engineering, building, shorthand, typewriting, bookkeeping, accountancy, cookery, needlework, dressmaking and handicraft, leading to various examinations conducted by bodies in the United Kingdom. The school is staffed almost entirely by local persons, and provides not only technical and commercial training, but also a basic general education for pupils between the ages of 14 or 15 and 18.

British Guiana has a government technical institute, equipped and staffed to provide trade courses in general mechanical workshop practice, woodwork, building construction, electrical work, motor mechanics, welding, plumbing, mathematics, science, and machine drawing. There is a full-time qualified staff, mainly recruited from the United Kingdom, and a staff of part-time instructors recruited locally. On the sugar estates in 1950, training courses were organized involving 47 tractor operators and 11 overseers, and an electrical engineering course was conducted for 20 trainees. The Demerara Bauxite Company initiated an apprenticeship training scheme in 1950. The apprenticeship is intended to last five years, in the course of which each apprentice will be required to take a four-year correspondence course from the British Institute of Engineering Technology.[29] The Carnegie Trade School for Women offers a two-year course in various women's crafts with supplementary courses for student teachers and evening classes for housewives and others.[30] Handicraft centres in each of the three counties of British Guiana give instruction in woodwork, weaving, leathercraft and bookbinding.

A co-educational technical high school in Belize, British Honduras, which was opened in January 1952, is planned to combine technical with general education at the secondary level, with special emphasis on science and its practical applications.[31] Provision is made for instruction in physics, chemistry, engineering, technical drawing, workshop practice, carpentry, cabinet-making, cookery and needlework, as well as in mathematics, English, geography, Spanish and art.[32] The

[28] United Kingdom: Colonial Office, *British Dependencies in the Caribbean and North Atlantic, 1939–52*, Cmd. 8575, London, H.M.S.O., 1952, p. 56.

[29] British Guiana: *Annual Report of the Commissioner of Labour for the Year 1950*, Georgetown, 1952, p. 11.

[30] British Guiana: *Report of the Director of Education for the Year 1950*, Georgetown, 1951, p. 29.

[31] British Honduras: *Annual Report of the Education Department for the Year 1951*, Belize, 1952, p. 10.

[32] United Kingdom: *Commonwealth Survey No. 91, 29 February 1952*, London, Central Office of Information, 1952, pp. 41-42.

course is of four years' duration. Accommodation is available for a maximum of 160 students, with some 40 new pupils entering each year.

Elsewhere in the West Indies, the Board of Industrial Training in Barbados awards bursaries for training apprentices in courses of five years' duration in the mechanical, building and other trades.[33] In Trinidad, the Board of Industrial Training conducts evening classes at seven centres throughout the Territory and maintains one full-time junior secondary technical school, which provides a two-year liberal and prevocational course for boys.[34] Two of the leading oil companies in Trinidad conduct technical schools for their own apprentices and provide scholarships to higher technical institutions in the United Kingdom or at the University College of the West Indies for applicants of outstanding merit.[35]

In the Leeward and Windward Islands, vocational training is mainly provided by government departments for their apprentices and trainees.

There are a number of schemes operating in Puerto Rico. The Metropolitan Vocational School at Rio Piedras, for instance, provides 21 trade courses, including printing, refrigeration, radio, air conditioning, watch-repairing and jewellery making, and 81 courses in the part-time and evening programme which provides short intensive training courses.[36] In 1952-1953, approximately 500 persons were brought to Puerto Rico under the United States, UNESCO and United Nations technical assistance programmes.

In the Asian Territories of the United Kingdom, vocational training is given in two technical colleges, one in Hong Kong and the other in the Federation of Malaya; in junior technical or trade schools; and under government and private apprenticeship schemes.

The post-secondary Technical College at Kuala Lumpur, Federation of Malaya, accepts apprentices from the various government departments for training as technical assistants, and, after government requirements have been met, a certain number of private students are admitted. The college provides a three-year course in civil, mechanical, electrical and telecommunications engineering, as well as in surveying and architecture. There are also four post-primary junior technical (trade) schools for pupils between 15 and 18 years of age. The three-year course offered by these schools continues the students' general education and gives theoretical and practical instruction in such trades as radio mechanics, electrical installation, machine-shop practice, carpentry and building, cabinet-making, and tailoring. Evening classes are conducted at the Technical College and at the various junior technical schools. There are, in addition, two government commercial day schools. Schools are maintained by the Malayan Railway for the training of signalmen, clerks, guards and permanent-way overseers; and by the Department of Telecommunications for training junior technical assistants, accommodation being available for 100 students at a time.

The Government Technical College in Hong Kong has three-year, full-time day courses in mechanical engineering and building, and a two-year course in radio communication. Evening courses in electrical and mechanical engineering, naval architecture and shipbuilding, internal combustion engines, building construction, advanced structure and field surveying are also provided. A junior technical school offers pre-apprenticeship training including classes in English, Chinese, general subjects and experimental science. Two industrial schools are subsidized trade schools aiming at producing skilled tradesmen by a system of training organized in such a way that experience in commercial workshops is unnecessary. Commercial training is given by the Hong Kong General Chamber of Commerce, the Evening Institute of the Department of Education, and a number of private schools and institutions. There are also other technical schools with courses given in Chinese with rather lower standards of instruction. The Public Works Department trains its own local surveyors, quantity surveyors, and draughtsmen. A few apprentices take a three-year course in the railway shops and then go to the United Kingdom for a further two years, and may on return be posted as foremen; others follow a five-year course for tradesmen in the railway shops supplemented by attendance at the evening classes of the Government Technical College and can qualify as fitters, electricians, carpenters, moulders or turners.

Problems of vocational training

Factors that have affected the development of vocational training in the Non-Self-Governing Territories include the following: the emphasis on education for clerical employment; the state of available financial resources; problems of staff and of instructional plant and equipment; prejudice against the vocation of the artisan and of manual work generally; the basic preparation or standard of education of potential trainees, including the degree of their proficiency in the language of instruction; wastage of pupils at various stages in the course of their training; difficulties in securing the best results from the trained pupils either through poor placement prospects in the trade learned or through the attraction of other occupations; and difficulties in continuing employment and training.

Regarding West Africa, the influence of early educational developments is described as follows:[37]

"The comparatively backward condition of technical training in many areas has in part arisen because in the early years of West African development it

[33] United Kingdom: Colonial Office, *Report on Barbados for the Years 1950 and 1951*, London, H.M.S.O., 1952, p. 35.

[34] Trinidad and Tobago: *Five-Year Economic Programme*, appendices I-VII, Vol. II, Trinidad and Tobago, 1950, pp. 11-12.

[35] Trinidad and Tobago: *Education Department Report for 1950*, Port of Spain, 1951, p. 10.

[36] Puerto Rico: *Annual Report of the Commissioner of Education*, 1950-51, San Juan, 1951, pp. 66-69.

[37] United Kingdom: *Report of the Commission on Higher Education in West Africa*, Cmd. 6655, London, H.M.S.O., 1945, p. 114.

was possible to bring in from Europe the necessary numbers of skilled men to direct the building of roads, railways, ports and trading centres. The schools, both those started by the missions and those developed later by the governments, aimed chiefly at training in the three R's and at more advanced academic education, and tended to provide a steady flow of men able to undertake clerical employment, for whom there has been an increasing demand. Certain of these schools paid some attention to practical skills, carpentry, metal working and gardening, but only in limited areas was good training provided for artisans. Moreover, the demand for clerks was such that they were offered prospects and conditions of service which were regarded as much more favourable than those offered to Africans entering equally responsible posts where technical skill was required. The civil service, teaching, and all forms of clerical employment have in the past been able to absorb most of the able students of the primary and secondary schools, and because of this and its more remunerative character, this kind of work has become the recognised field of employment for educated Africans."

Perhaps the most common factor impeding the progress of vocational training is finance. While this is a limiting factor in educational advancement in general, the installations and equipment required in vocational training, the need to attract staff in some cases from industrial employment, and the advantage of introducing some pre-vocational courses in general schools mean that the limitation is of special force in this field. For instance, in respect of the United Kingdom Territories in the Caribbean, a number of plans have been impeded " by the very high cost of building and maintaining technical institutes and providing adequate equipment, by the difficulty of recruiting suitably qualified staff at salaries which the governments can afford to pay, and by the difficulty of selecting suitable local candidates for training owing to the restricted opportunities for developing the basic skills in the schools ".[38]

The problem of obtaining highly qualified teachers in adequate numbers is widespread. This problem exists not only in technical training centres, schools and colleges, but also in connexion with the apprenticeship system where craftsmen capable of giving instruction of a satisfactory standard are comparatively few.[39]

In Nigeria, the situation is described as follows :[40]

" The rate of recruitment of technical instructors continued satisfactorily but that of lecturers, who are required for higher technological work, has again become most unsatisfactory. With the introduction recently of greatly improved salary scales for officers in technical schools and colleges in the United Kingdom the prospects of recruitment for Nigeria of lecturers and assistant lecturers in the future are far from bright—an influence which may seriously retard, and may indeed wreck the progress of technical institute work in the Territory."

The teachers to be recruited for vocational training will themselves have had different kinds of training according to the economic and social needs of the various Territories. A report on the economic development of the French Territories points out that education must be adapted to the economic activity of each Territory, and that vocational training would thus be predominantly agricultural in French Equatorial Africa, commercial in other Territories, would comprise training in mining for yet other Territories, and would cover several branches of principal activities in French West Africa and Madagascar. Similarly, the level of such training would vary according to the degree of evolution in each Territory, so that in one case the emphasis would be on the training of efficient farmers and skilled workers, and elsewhere on the training of higher grades of technicians, physicians and engineers.[41]

The lack of suitable and adequate equipment for demonstration work as well as for individual experimental work renders the preparation for technical courses in some Territories bookish and is said to act as a deterrent to candidates with aptitudes for vocational training.[42]

The prejudice against manual work need hardly be emphasized since it is a matter of general experience, particularly where there are opportunities for clerical employment for a large proportion of school graduates. Attention is drawn to the situation in the information in respect of a number of Territories, and in some cases the point is added that the problem is not merely educational, but that in addition it should be the aim of the governments to make skilled employment in industrial fields at least as attractive as clerical employment.

As mentioned earlier, one hindrance to rapid and efficient training is the inadequate number of potential trainees with sufficient basic education. In Northern Rhodesia, for instance, it is reported that the annual rate of entry to the Kabete agricultural training school has been far below the capacity of the school and the needs of the Department of Agriculture because of the difficulty of obtaining suitable post-primary applicants for training there.[43] In the Gold Coast also there was a shortage of boys with the required education; as a result, in the Northern Territories it was necessary to reduce temporarily the age of entry to the trade centres from senior primary standard to junior primary standard.[44] The problem of inadequate educational stan-

[38] United Kingdom: *The Colonial Territories, 1950–1951*, p. 113.

[39] United Kingdom: *British Dependencies in the Caribbean and North Atlantic, 1939–52*, p. 56.

[40] Nigeria: *Annual Report of the Department of Education for the period 1st January 1950 to 31st March 1951*, Lagos, 1952, pp. 46–47.

[41] France: *Premier rapport de la Commission de modernisation des territoires d'outre-mer*, p. 74.

[42] Sierra Leone: *Survey of Technical and Further Education (Sierra Leone and Gambia)*, Freetown, 1949, p. 6.

[43] Northern Rhodesia: *Department of Agriculture Annual Report for the Year 1949*, Lusaka, 1950, p. 8.

[44] Gold Coast: *Report on the Education Department for the Year 1950–51*, Accra, 1952, p. 11.

dards is due partly to the absence of universal primary education in many of the Non-Self-Governing Territories,[45] but also to an emphasis in many schools on academic subjects leading to wastage of candidates with aptitudes for technical subjects.[46] It is realized more and more that facilities for practical instruction during the pupils' last years at school are a prerequisite to the satisfactory development of technical education.[47]

There is wastage both at the training stage when, for various reasons, pupils are not able to complete their courses, and also after training, when candidates seek or enter employment other than that for which they have been trained. For instance, many trainees from the Leopoldville telegraph school tend to seek employment as clerks in commerce, where higher salaries are paid. There has been a tendency for those who have completed their training at farm schools in the Belgian Congo to seek employment in urban areas. Similarly, in Northern Rhodesia, output figures for the Public Works Department training schemes are said to be disappointing because a large number of the pupils leave before their training is complete, owing to the attractions of immediate cash benefits offered by contractors to partially trained persons.

Throughout the Non-Self-Governing Territories a number of private firms, such as mining, railway, shipping and oil companies, provide their employees with training of a high quality. In some Territories, obstacles in the way of apprenticeship training are noted; frequently apprenticeship provisions remain largely in abeyance as associated with past systems of servitude. In Hong Kong, the reluctance of some employers to release their workers for regular instruction is given as a factor retarding development of apprenticeship and in-service training schemes. In both British Honduras and Hong Kong, apprenticeship is said to be a means of obtaining cheap labour, little effort being made to train the so-called apprentices.[48] In Sierra Leone, the future prospects of apprentices are said to be limited by the lack of instruction in courses relevant to their jobs and by the fact that they have been given the opportunity of doing only certain jobs, without understanding the reasons for the process or practice.[49]

The general character of problems of vocational training in many Territories is suggested by the following account of the situation in French Equatorial Africa:[50]

"In a new country such as French Equatorial Africa, where new techniques are being introduced alongside, and often even in opposition to traditional techniques, it is more difficult and complex to determine the role of vocational training.

"The family can no longer be relied upon to ensure the training of the future African worker and foreman. Moreover, the existing industrial establishments have too many pressing tasks to perform and too limited personnel to be able to provide on-the-job training. The whole burden of training skilled workers thus falls on the schools and the specialized programmes such as accelerated training schemes.

"Furthermore, the new types of activity being introduced into the industrial, commercial and agricultural life of the territory are too recent for us to know exactly what the need for skilled workers in the various fields will be, and to be sure that this need will remain stable. It is therefore essential to proceed with caution and to conduct a careful survey before opening new departments of technical training, in order to avoid the risk of placing on the labour market skilled workers who will not be able to obtain employment."

Vocational guidance

The information available on vocational guidance relates to the Territories under United States administration. In these Territories the objective of the vocational guidance programme is "to facilitate the adjustment of the school to the pupil and the adjustment of the pupil to the school and to life".[51] The programme thus provides services for both teachers and pupils. The individual pupil is assisted to discover his interests, abilities and opportunities; he is given expert advice in selecting and planning for his education and vocational objective as well as continuous individual counselling during his school career as he progresses towards his objective. For the teacher, the guidance programme provides help in the analysis of the problems of individual pupils and in the securing and use of occupational and educational information relevant to the subject he teaches.

Under the programme, educational and occupational information is collected and kept up to date, inventories regarding individuals are prepared, and assistance is given to those pupils who have dropped out of the course, as well as to those who have completed their training in their search for jobs. Contacts are made either directly or through referral agencies for part-time or full-time employment for pupils both before and after leaving school, and follow-up studies are made of those who have been placed in jobs.

Concluding note

In Non-Self-Governing Territories, the increased emphasis on economic development has directed attention to the need for more adequate facilities for producing trained workers in many fields of production and at

[45] Hong Kong: *Annual Report of the Labour Department, 1950–51*, Hong Kong, 1952, p. 14.
[46] Sierra Leone: *Op. cit.*, p. 6.
[47] United Kingdom: *Development and Welfare in the West Indies 1950*, Report by the Comptroller, London, H.M.S.O., 1951, pp. 49-50.
[48] Hong Kong: *Annual Departmental Report by the Commissioner of Labour for the Financial Year ended March 31, 1951*, Hong Kong, 1952, pp. 13-14. British Honduras: *Annual Report of the Education Department for 1951*, p. 11.
[49] Sierra Leone: *Survey of Technical and Further Education*, p. 7.
[50] French Equatorial Africa: *Bulletin d'Afrique-Equatoriale Française*, No. 66, 22 April 1953.
[51] United States: Federal Security Agency, *Study of Education in the Virgin Islands*, Washington (D.C.), November 1950.

various levels of skill. Considerable expenditure has been undertaken for the development of technical schools and training programmes in agriculture and industry, although finance remains a limiting factor.

Vocational training possibilities depend largely on the development of education as a whole. While for emergency purposes it has been possible rapidly to train groups of workers with little educational background, an adequate standard of basic education is essential for any long-term vocational programme. In this connexion, it may be noted that the study jointly sponsored by the United Kingdom Colonial Office and the Nuffield Foundation examines the basic educational needs for technical education in East and Central Africa and concludes as follows : [52]

> " Technical education in Africa is being attempted, notably in Northern Rhodesia, after only six years at school, but those engaged in the work indicated to us that six years were not enough to give the good general education required as a basis for what they were trying to do, and we have no doubt that eight years of general school work is the minimum generally required for this purpose. If technical education is attempted on a shorter basis than this a considerable part of the curriculum must be devoted to general subjects, particularly English, mathematics, and general knowledge, including civics. In other words, the only alternatives in our view which are sound are the technical school after eight years of school life or something very like the English technical secondary school. A purely technical education after four or six years of school life is a tempting expedient, but in our experience and in that of our witnesses is not likely to produce many successful technicians in this part of Africa."

Close liaison between industry and commerce on the one hand and institutions of technical education on the other is necessary if vocational training is to serve the needs of the particular Territories. The inter-relationship between vocational training and opportunities for employment is obvious. Where the main outlet for trained labour is provided by government departments or a few large employers, recruiting needs can be ascertained in advance without great difficulty, and much of the training may be provided during employment. The situation becomes more complicated as the economy of a Territory progresses. Frequent surveys of future employment needs may be necessary, and it may prove of value to establish standing machinery for consultation between the authorities responsible for vocational training on the one hand and the industrial and commercial interests concerned on the other. The industrial and commercial interests concerned should be interpreted as including trade union organizations as well as organizations of employers. In this connexion attention is drawn to the following recommendation adopted by the Permanent Agricultural Committee of the International Labour Organisation in May 1953 :

> " 11. (*a*) Local, regional and national advisory committees should be established to ensure collaboration among the competent administrative authorities, public or private technical and vocational educational institutions, public employment exchanges and other organisations, in particular the occupational organisations of farmers and farm workers, where they exist.
>
> " (*b*) These committees might advise the competent authorities : (i) on the promotion and co-ordination of public and private action in regard to vocational training programmes in agriculture; (ii) on the drawing up of curricula and the adjustment of such curricula to changes in practical farm requirements; (iii) on measures to ensure that the teaching of trainees will provide a thorough training, both theoretical and practical, in the type of farming concerned and familiarize the trainee with ways of dealing with production, economic and related problems likely to arise."

With the growth in population of the Territories and the introduction of new industries, trades and commerce, and the increasing differentiation in occupations and modes of living of the peoples, the need for development of vocational guidance programmes, including aptitude tests, will increase. Since in most cases only a very small number of technicians can yet be trained, the best trainees must be selected both for admission to vocational training and throughout the training course.[53]

The concepts of education, applicable from the primary stages onward, are developing in the sense that fuller account is taken of the economic and social structure of the societies of which the pupils form part. Such developments will assist vocational training in general, since candidates for entrance into technical institutions will, from their earliest school years, have acquired standards of literacy of a broad functional character and will not regard clerical employment as the chief reward for success at school.

On the other hand, vocational training should not be interpreted as a narrow training for various forms of employment, but should include emphasis on citizenship and should be a continuation of the junior education which the pupils will have already received.

[52] United Kingdom : Nuffield Foundation and Colonial Office, *African Education. A Study of Educational Policy and Practice in British Tropical Africa*, London, 1953, p. 96.

[53] French Equatorial Africa : *Bulletin d'Afrique-Equatoriale française*, No. 66.

CHAPTER X

HIGHER EDUCATION

Introduction

This chapter is largely limited to developments in higher education in the Territories since 1950.[1]

The 1950 information showed that the older institutions of higher education in Alaska, Hawaii, Puerto Rico, Hong Kong and French North Africa had grown in scope and enrolment, that new university colleges had been established, and that a number of technical and vocational schools in Africa and Asia had developed into university institutions.

In so far as their curricula were concerned, the Universities of Alaska, Hawaii, Puerto Rico and Hong Kong had developed a combination of liberal arts and technical courses; the newer institutions, particularly in the Caribbean and Africa, stressed medicine and the sciences. All of the university institutions in United Kingdom Territories, except the University College of the Gold Coast, also provided courses in medicine. In French West Africa and Madagascar the emphasis was on medicine, science and law, and in French North Africa (Morocco and Tunisia) courses were also provided in letters, but not in medicine.

Up to 1950, with the exception of universities in United States Territories and the Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture in Trinidad, degree courses in agriculture had not yet been developed. Similarly, departments of geology existed only in the universities of Alaska, Hawaii, Puerto Rico and the University College of the Gold Coast, and departments of engineering in the Universities of Alaska, Hawaii, Puerto Rico and Hong Kong. No schools of law had been established in United Kingdom Territories and no law courses provided for at the new Belgian Congo University Centre. Courses in business administration or commerce were provided in United States Territories, Hong Kong and Tunisia. In so far as enrolment was concerned, only full-time students working for diplomas or degrees were admitted into institutions of higher education in the Non-Self-Governing Territories, apart from those of the United States. The new university colleges of the United Kingdom Territories were residential.

General developments

Territories under United Kingdom administration

Post-war plans for the general development of higher education were set forth in a series of reports published in 1945 and 1948. The proposals were approved in principle by the Colonial Office and serve as guidance for higher education in the Non-Self-Governing Territories under United Kingdom administration.

The basic policy underlying the development of higher education facilities is " the application of the principle, accepted both in the colonial territories and in the United Kingdom, that normally a student should take his first degree in his own country and he will then obtain greater benefit from overseas universities at the post-graduate level ".[2]

The long-established Universities of Hong Kong and Malaya grant their own degrees, while the new university colleges in the West Indies, the Gold Coast, Nigeria and East Africa have entered into a special relationship with the University of London whereby they provide courses leading to the degree of that University. This is an interim arrangement until the colleges have become sufficiently established to assume full university status and award their own degrees. The University of London has also agreed that full-time members of the staffs of these colleges may, on certain conditions, be registered as internal students for the London doctorate in philosophy.[3] The four university colleges have worked out over sixty syllabuses to suit local conditions.

The largest region lacking its own provisions for post-secondary education is Central Africa.[4] In 1952, the governments of Southern Rhodesia, Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland appointed a commission to advise on the establishment of higher education facilities for Africans. It recommended the immediate foundation of a university college as a first step towards a full university in Central Africa. The site proposed is Salisbury, Southern Rhodesia, if existing plans for a Rhodesia University can be suitably modified, or Lusaka in Northern Rhodesia.

The Commission hoped that the Government of the United Kingdom would make an initial capital grant under the Colonial Development and Welfare Acts, with recurrent expenditure to be provided by annual grants from the territorial governments concerned. The link with the Government should be through the chief secretaries in the two Protectorates and the Prime Minister's Office in Southern Rhodesia, and not through the education departments. The Commission further recommended that the output of candidates for higher education should be increased by expanding existing

[1] United Nations: *Non-Self-Governing Territories. Summaries and Analyses of Information transmitted to the Secretary-General during 1950*, New York, 1951 (Sales No. 1951.VI.B.1.Vol.III), Vol. III, pp. 23-26, 155-192.

[2] United Kingdom: *The Colonial Territories, 1952-53*, Cmd. 8856, London, H.M.S.O., 1953, p. 66, para. 446.

[3] United Kingdom: *The Colonial Territories, 1950-51*, Cmd. 8243, London, H.M.S.O., 1951, p. 105.

[4] United Kingdom: *The Colonial Territories, 1952-53*, p. 66, para. 447.

secondary schools and by raising one or two of the best junior schools to senior status.

The provision of higher education facilities for technical and commercial subjects is another important development. The Colonial Office is advised in this field by the Advisory Committee on Colonial Colleges of Arts, Science and Technology, and in the Gold Coast and Nigeria such colleges have been founded.[5] Courses at these colleges began in January 1952 and at first were confined to teacher training. At the Gold Coast College of Technology, Science and Arts at Kumasi, some 450 students have now been enrolled in departments of teacher training, commerce, pharmacy, engineering, agriculture, and intermediate studies. The Nigerian College of Arts, Sciences and Technology has been established with headquarters at Zaria and branches at Ibadan and Enugu; the college has added a short course for architectural students to the teacher-training course. In Territories outside West Africa, technical colleges (providing a few higher degree courses) remained the responsibility of government education departments, except for the Royal Technical College of East Africa, which is being established at Nairobi to serve all East African Territories.

Extra-mural departments have been established in the University Colleges of the West Indies, of the Gold Coast, of East Africa and of Ibadan (Nigeria), and at Fourah Bay College (Sierra Leone); considerable progress has been made in the expansion of their work. The University College of the West Indies has resident tutors in Barbados, British Honduras, British Guiana, the Leeward and the Windward Islands and Trinidad as well as Jamaica. Departments of education have also been established in the universities and university colleges, thus enabling them to make a direct contribution by research and by professional training to the educational systems in their areas.

Likewise, social science and economic research centres are being set up in conjunction with the institutions of higher education. The West African Institute of Social and Economic Research is establishing its position as a centre of West African studies. The residential and office quarters of the East African Institute of Social Research were completed at Makerere College. The West Indies Institute of Social and Economic Research at the University College has issued its first publication, *Social and Economic Studies*. Its residential block was completed. An Economic Research Unit was also set up at the University College of the Gold Coast in 1952.

Territories under French administration

The studies submitted to the Committee in 1950 describe the institutions of higher learning as they then existed in French West Africa, Madagascar, Morocco and Tunisia. Since then, developments have consisted of the expansion of the Institutes of Higher Studies (*Instituts des hautes études*) at Dakar, Rabat and Tunis, the planning of a new institute in Madagascar and the development of certain forms of higher education in North Africa.

While French Africa has had a long established tradition that its students travel to France for their higher education, these developments tend to increase the facilities for education of a university character in the African Territories. Thus, institutions which were primarily concerned with research and post-graduate studies and other institutions primarily concerned with the training of senior technicians have tended to combine with the objective of the development of institutions of university status, aiming at the teaching of law, medicine, science, pharmacy and arts in accordance with standards established in France. At the same time, these institutions, and particularly the *Institut français de l'Afrique noire*, assisted by the Higher Science Council, aim at the evolution of a Franco-African culture based on joint efforts directed towards a common goal. In French West Africa, for instance, the *Institut* has a local centre in each Territory and maintains libraries at Dakar and at Saint-Louis, an ethnological museum at Dakar, and two regional museums, to which are attached handicraft centres.

Belgian Congo

In the Belgian Congo, secondary education is of recent date, so that there are as yet few students equipped for higher education and the new university centre, the *Centre universitaire congolais Lovanium*, the first of its kind for higher education in the Territory, will not be in full operation before 1955. Under the terms of an agreement concluded with the government in March, 1950, the Centre, which is being established under the auspices of the University of Louvain, has undertaken to organize higher education for the indigenous inhabitants in the Territory, commencing with the special schools already set up at Kisantu in the Lower Congo. It is stated that the question of opportunities for higher education in Belgium has not arisen, since there are no students who could suitably continue their education at university level, although there is no objection in principle. A second university college is to be established at Leopoldville which is expected to start courses in 1954–55 with faculties in medicine, veterinary science, agriculture, commerce and administration.

Institutions of higher education

It is not proposed to repeat the information on the institutions of higher education given in 1950, but a summarized version, brought up to date where possible, is presented in table 20, supplemented by notes on current developments in respect of these institutions and by information on institutions since established or not previously listed.

Developments since 1950

At the University College of the West Indies, a Teaching Hospital with 550 beds was opened to the public in September 1952. It is designed to provide

[5] United Kingdom: *The Colonial Territories, 1950–51*, p. 105, para. 512. See chapter IX of this volume.

TABLE 20

Higher education institutions in Non-Self-Governing Territories

Institution	Date founded	Faculties	Students [a]	Staff
Caribbean				
University College of the West Indies, Mona, Jamaica.	1948	Arts, Science, Medicine, Department of Education. Department of Extra-Mural Studies.	254 [b]	79
Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture, St. Augustine, Trinidad.	1921	Agriculture, Chemistry and Soil Science, Biology, Economics, Sugar Technology. British Commonwealth Centre for post-graduate courses in tropical agriculture.	57	64
Codrington College, Barbados.	1745	Classics, Theology.	28	3
University of Puerto Rico, San Juan, Rio Piedras and Mayaguez, Puerto Rico.	1903	At Rio Piedras : Humanities, Natural Sciences, Social Sciences (including Social Work and Public Administration), Education (including Home Economics and Extra-Mural Service), Business Administration, General Studies. At Mayaguez : Agriculture, Engineering, Science, General Studies. At San Juan : Medicine, Sanitary Science, Public Health Education.	10,817 [c]	1,317 [c]
Polytechnic Institute of Puerto Rico.	...	Liberal Arts and Sciences.	442	31
College of the Sacred Heart, Puerto Rico.	...	Liberal Arts and Sciences, Secretarial Science.	138	18
Catholic University, Puerto Rico.	...	Liberal Arts and Sciences.	...	...
West Africa				
Institut des hautes études, Dakar, French West Africa.	1950	Science, Medicine and Pharmacy, Law and Liberal Arts.	285	111
University College of the Gold Coast, Achimota.	1948	Arts, Science, Theology, Economics, Agriculture, Institute of Education. Department of Extra-Mural Studies.	482	118
Gold Coast College of Technology, Science and Arts, Kumasi, Gold Coast.	1952	Commerce, Pharmacy, Engineering, Agriculture, Teacher Training.	450	...
University College, Ibadan, Nigeria.	1948	Arts, Science, Medicine, Agriculture. Department of Extra-Mural Studies.	368	101
Nigerian College of Arts, Science and Technology, Zaria, Ibadan and Enugu, Nigeria.	1952	Teacher Training, Agriculture, Architecture.	...	...
Fourah Bay College, Sierra Leone.	1827	Arts, Commerce, Teacher Training, Theology and Education. Extra-Mural courses.	169	16
Central Africa				
Centre universitaire congolais, Lovanium, Kimuenza, Belgian Congo.	1948	Medicine, Agronomy, Administrative Science and Teacher Training to be established.	71 [d]	10
East Africa				
Makerere College, the University College of East Africa, Uganda.	1922	Arts, Science, Medicine, Agriculture, Veterinary Science. School of Art. Institute of Education. Department of Extra-Mural Studies.	265	82
Royal Technical College of East Africa, Nairobi, Kenya.	Under construction	Engineering, Science, Commerce, Domestic Science, Arts and Crafts.	...	...
The Mombasa Institute of Muslim Education, Kenya.	1951	Engineering, Building and allied subjects.		
Mediterranean				
Institut des hautes études, Tunis, Tunisia.	1945	Law, Science, History, Sociology, Arabic Studies.	1,110	...
School of Public Administration, Tunis, Tunisia.	1949	Law, Geography, History, Economics, Sociology and Islamic Institutions.	...	...
Tunisian Law School, Tunis, Tunisia.	1922	Tunisian law.	815	2

TABLE 20 *(concluded)*

Higher education institutions in Non-Self-Governing Territories

Institution	*Date founded*	*Faculties*	*Students* [a]	*Staff*
Ecole des beaux-arts, Tunis, Tunisia.	1923	Painting, Architecture.	82	...
The Great Mosque (Djema-Ez-Zitouna), Tunis, Tunisia.	Middle Ages	Traditional Islamic studies.	13,000	...
Institut des hautes études, Rabat, Morocco.	1950	Law, Science and Arts, Arabic and Berber Studies. Centre of Legal Studies. Centre of Higher Scientific Studies.	1,580	135
Qaraouiyine Islamic University, Fez, Morocco.	Middle Ages	Traditional Islamic studies.	2,000	...
Ben Youssef Islamic University, Marrakech, Morocco.	...	Traditional Islamic studies.	...	...
Indian Ocean				
Cours de droit, Tananarive, Madagascar.	1947	Law.	378	7
Cours scientifique d'enseignement supérieur, Tananarive, Madagascar.	1948	Science.		
Classe mixte de lettres supérieures at the Lycée Gallieni, Tananarive, Madagascar.	1952	Arts.		
Institut des hautes études, Madagascar.	To be established	Law, Science, Medicine and Pharmacy.	—	—
Asia				
University of Malaya, Singapore.	1949	Arts (including Economics and Education), Science, Medicine (including Dentistry and Pharmacy). Department of Education.	875	129
Technical College, Kuala Lumpur, Federation of Malaya.	...	Civil, Mechanical, Electrical and Telecommunications Engineering, Surveying.	195	...
College of Agriculture, Serdang, Federation of Malaya.	...	Agriculture and allied sciences.	71	...
University of Hong Kong.	1911	Arts, Science, Medicine, Engineering and Architecture. British Institute of Far Eastern Studies. School of Higher Chinese Studies (General Arts, Commerce and Journalism in Chinese).	1,197	122
Pacific				
University of Hawaii, Honolulu.	1920	Arts and Sciences, Applied Sciences, Agriculture, Business Administration, Teacher Training. Graduate school.	5,754	650
North America				
University of Alaska.	1935	Agriculture, Arts and Letters, Business Administration, Education, Civil Engineering, Home Economics, Mining, Chemistry and General Science.	1,267	157

[a] Includes only students of collegiate grade. Does not include extra-mural or short-course students.

[b] United Kingdom: *University Education in the United Kingdom Dependencies.* No. R.2575. Central Office of Information, London, 1953, pp. 2–3.

[c] United States: *Statistics of Land Grant Colleges, Year ended June 30, 1951.* Bull. 1952, No. 2. Federal Security Agency, Office of Education. Washington, 1952, pp. 15–17.

[d] In preparation for higher education.

fully trained doctors and nurses for all the British Caribbean Territories and at the same time to serve as a hospital for the people of Kingston, the capital of Jamaica. The Department of Education has also been established and will take its first students in October 1953.

In August 1950 the University of Puerto Rico opened its School of Medicine with departments of anatomy, biochemistry and nutrition, microbiology, pathology, physiology and pharmacology, public health and preventive medicine, and clinical medicine. The school offers the degree of Doctor of Medicine, and gives advanced degrees and certificates in certain fields, such as the degree of Master in Sanitary Science, Master in Public Health Education, Certificate of Medical Technology, Certificate in Public Health Nursing. Short courses in nursing education and for the training of sanitary inspectors are also offered.

In Tunisia a School of Public Administration has been opened to train personnel, French and Tunisian, for higher posts in public administration. Subjects include public law and Islamic institutions, geography, history, economics and sociology. A decree of 11 November 1950 provides for the modernization of the Great Mosque (*Grande Mosquée*), which hitherto has been devoted to traditional Islamic studies. The curriculum is to include mathematics, physics, chemistry, natural sciences, modern languages, etc.[6]

In French West Africa, a decree of 6 April 1950 has created the Institute of Higher Studies (*Institut des hautes études*) at Dakar, affiliated with the Universities of Paris and Bordeaux. The aim of the institute is the teaching of law, medicine, science, arts and pharmacy, in accordance with regulations governing higher learning (*enseignement supérieur*) in the metropolitan country. The Institute includes a School of Law (*Ecole supérieure de droit*), a Preparatory School of Medicine and Pharmacy (*Ecole préparatoire de médecine et de pharmacie*), a College of Science (*Ecole supérieure des sciences*) and a College of Arts (*Ecole supérieure des lettres*). It will also include institutes affiliated with these various schools.[7]

The University College of the Gold Coast commenced building the first of its halls of residence in 1951 and brought it into use in October 1952. On the advice of a commission of inquiry, the Gold Coast government decided not to establish the medical school planned for the University College, it being considered that preventive and curative public health services should have priority.[8]

The University College at Ibadan formally opened the first group of its permanent buildings in November 1952, to the capital costs of which the metropolitan Government had contributed £1,700,000. The building programme is to be completed by the beginning of the 1953–54 academic year. It proved impossible to develop adequate local clinical facilities in time to provide for the first group of medical students; they were therefore placed in medical schools in London for their clinical training. To meet this problem, the Nigerian government has granted £2,250,000 for the construction of a new teaching hospital at Ibadan. It is expected that medical students admitted in 1952 will be able to have their clinical training at this new hospital due for completion by October 1956. In the meantime, Ibadan students will continue receiving clinical training in London. The West African Institute of Social and Economic Research, set up in 1950 and originally financed from Colonial Development and Welfare funds, is attached to the University College.

Fourah Bay College, Sierra Leone, undertook considerable expansion as a result of legislation passed at the beginning of the 1950–51 year and the granting of financial assistance from Colonial Development and Welfare funds. However, as of January 1953, it was stated that the funds available at present ruled out any possibility of development to university college status. The university work of the college is to be reviewed by a commission of inquiry in 1954 or early 1955. During 1952 a programme of extra-mural education and a series of part-time classes in technical and commercial subjects was started.

The Lovanium University Centre in the Belgian Congo is at present passing through a transitional stage in its teaching courses by providing part secondary and part post-secondary education until 1953. Students are accepted who have completed at least three years of secondary or intermediary studies. Those who are candidates for medical or administrative training are required to take two years of preparatory work in general subjects before joining the course they have selected. As soon as students trained in general secondary schools are available, sections for higher studies will be organized through the foundation of faculties of medicine and teacher-training, a higher institute of public administration and a higher school of agriculture. Special secondary education will continue to be given concurrently with this higher training. The University Centre itself will be established at Kimuenza, near Leopoldville, and not at Kisantu as originally announced. Preliminary plans have already been prepared for the construction of the buildings and the work is to be undertaken in successive stages over a period of 10 years. The government will contribute to building expenditure up to 70 per cent of the approved estimates. There were 79 students undergoing preparatory training in 1951 and 71 in 1952.

At the University College of East Africa, Uganda, the new medical school buildings were opened in May 1951, and the new physiology laboratory and first hall of residence were brought into use. The new physics laboratory was opened in July 1952. A notable feature in the 1952–53 session was that a substantial portion of the students completing preliminary science training chose to enter the agricultural course. It has been decided that medical students taking the full seven-year course will be eligible for registration in East Africa as medical practitioners on the completion of two years' training as internees in approved hospitals.

During the academic year 1950–51, the University of Malaya, Singapore, opened a department of zoology, expanded the department of education and made plans for departments for Malay studies and Chinese language and literature to be set up during the 1952–53 sessions. In 1950–51 there were 540 Chinese students, 77 Malays, 90 Indians, 87 Ceylonese, 29 Eurasians and 7 others. Forty-five new appointments were made to the academic staff. The University's present acute shortage of accommodation is being overcome. In particular, the University has acquired a new site of 1,477 acres. A social science research unit was set up in 1951–52.

The University of Hong Kong initiated a development programme in 1949–50 involving the creation of 42 new senior teaching posts; honours courses in the faculties of arts and science; additional accommodation for staff; extension of teaching accommodation; new de-

[6] Tunisia: *Journal officiel tunisien*, 14 November 1950, p. 1726.
[7] French West Africa: "L'éducation africaine", *Bulletin officiel de l'enseignement en A.O.F.*, 40me année, 1951, nouvelle série, Nos. 8 et 9, pp. 7–9.
[8] United Kingdom: *The Colonial Territories, 1952–53*, p. 67.

partments of European languages, architecture, social medicine, medical research, statistics and social study; the development of existing teaching arrangements into full departments of philosophy and geography; and the institution of post-graduate studentships. In 1951, a new hall of residence for women was opened and other buildings completed. The Court of the University approved the institution of the degrees of D.Sc., B.Arch., M.Arch., B.A. (Hons.), B.Sc. (Hons.), and of a diploma and certificate in social study. An evening school of higher Chinese studies was inaugurated with three-year post-secondary courses in Chinese studies in general arts, commerce and journalism, leading to a diploma.

In 1952 a committee appointed to review facilities for higher education reported that there were both extensive demands and serious deficiencies in this field. It recommended various measures including the raising of entrance requirements in order to keep standards comparable with those in United Kingdom universities; the provision of degree courses in arts, commerce and science to be taught in Chinese; the establishment of a department of extra-mural studies to foster the intellectual life of the community by part-time courses in a wide range of subjects, including law, administration, journalism and accountancy; the establishment of institutes of Far Eastern studies and of education with facilities for research; and a considerable increase in scholarships, free places and hostels. A school of dentistry with a dental clinic was recommended as a future development.

The University of Hawaii added a college of business administration to its faculties in 1950. A modern chemistry building was completed in 1951 and the ground was broken for the first residence hall. The senior class graduating numbered 647 and was the largest in the history of the University; 119 five-year teachers' diplomas, 23 social work certificates and 51 advanced degrees were also granted.[9]

At the University of Alaska, a new Geophysical Institute was completed in 1950 at a cost of almost $1 million. To offset a declining enrolment, a programme was adopted in 1950 which took the University to potential students among draftees stationed at the various military bases. Of the 2,142 students enrolled in 1951-52, 354 were credit course students on the campus, 785 were at military branches and 902 were enrolled in various extension classes not carrying academic credit.[10]

The financing of higher education

Tables 21, 22, 23 and 24 summarize the principal methods of financing higher education in the Territories under the administration of the United States (1950-51):

[9] United States: Department of the Interior, *Annual Report of the Governor of Hawaii for the Fiscal Year ended 30 June 1951*, Washington, 1952, p. 20.

[10] United States: Department of the Interior, *Annual Report of the Governor of Alaska, 1951*, Washington (n.d.), p. 27.

TABLE 21

Physical plant and receipts specifically designated for plant expansion[a]

	University of Alaska	*University of Hawaii*	*University of Puerto Rico*
	(Dollars)	*(Dollars)*	*(Dollars)*
Value of physical plant at end of fiscal year	2,227,033	7,395,690	12,876,342
Unexpended plant funds at end of fiscal year	809,257	19,374	1,355,669
Receipts from:			
Federal Government ...	—	5,123	—
State Government	836,133	106,156	59,115
Private gifts and grants.	5,182	—	—
Earnings and other sources	30	—	—
Transfers from current funds	69,273	26,076	1,944,029
Loans	5,125	—	—
TOTAL...	915,743	137,355	2,003,144

[a] United States: Federal Security Agency, *Statistics of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities*, Washington, 1952, Bulletin 1952, No. 4, pp. 40-41.

TABLE 22

Federal funds received by the institutions[a]

	University of Alaska	*University of Hawaii*	*University of Puerto Rico*
	(Dollars)	*(Dollars)*	*(Dollars)*
Endowment income:			
1862 land grant funds ...	—	—	—
Other Federal land grant funds	—	—	—
Instruction and facilities:			
Supplementary Morrill and Bankhead Jones Funds	50,000	74,831	50,000
Research (experiment stations) funds	76,048	135,547	153,278
Co-operative extension funds	57,534	182,624	554,371
Funds from Veterans Administration: tuition and fees	98,906	264,139	82,238
Other Federal research	175,960	—	86,273
Other Federal grants	—	26,914	13,188
TOTAL	458,448	684,055	1,709,839

[a] United States: Federal Security Agency, *Statistics of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities*, Washington, 1952, Bulletin 1952, No. 4, pp. 46-47.

The main source of funds for current capital development is usually the State government. As shown in table 21, this source furnished more than 90 per cent of the total receipts designated for physical plant expansion and equipment, including libraries, for the Universities of Alaska and Hawaii. Table 23 shows that, in so far as income other than receipts specifically designated for capital outlay is concerned, the State government is again the most important contributor, providing substantially more than 50 per cent of the income in all cases. The United States Govern-

TABLE 23

Income of institutions, excluding receipts specifically designated for capital outlay and permanent funds [a]

	University of Alaska	*University of Hawaii*	*University of Puerto Rico*
	(Dollars)	*(Dollars)*	*(Dollars)*
Student fees	33,402	532,299	706,744
V.A. for tuition and fees	98,906	264,139	842,288
Federal Government, excluding V.A. fees	359,542	419,916	867,535
County, city or district government	—	—	—
State Government	601,430	2,551,115	6,169,051
Endowment earnings	228	—	30,077
Private gifts and grants	6,678	56,999	12,285
Sales and services of organized activities	36,571	209,452	379,504
Miscellaneous	41,337	73,153	75,033
TOTAL EDUCATIONAL AND GENERAL	1,178,094	4,112,073	9,082,517
Auxiliary enterprises	171,178	602,504	770,307
Non-educational purposes	61,436	42,962	649,241

[a] United States: Federal Security Agency, *Statistics of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities*, Washington, 1952, Bulletin 1952, pp. 32-33.

TABLE 24

Expenditures [a]

	University of Alaska	*University of Hawaii*	*University of Puerto Rico*
	(Dollars)	*(Dollars)*	*(Dollars)*
Educational and general purposes:			
Administration and general expense	111,408	360,281	990,697
Resident instruction	260,155	1,607,089	2,575,961
Organized research	392,606	899,626	1,568,908
Extension	157,554	618,181	958,346
Libraries	9,563	187,675	140,367
Physical plant operation and maintenance	154,297	287,445	815,314
Organized activities related to instruction	36,000	76,445	265,400
TOTAL EDUCATIONAL AND GENERAL PURPOSES	1,121,583	4,036,742	7,314,993
Auxiliary enterprises and activities	162,402	643,173	600,909
Other current expenditures	4,853	39,729	1,767,115
TOTAL AUXILIARY AND NON-EDUCATIONAL	167,255	682,902	2,368,024

[a] United States: Federal Security Agency, *Statistics of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities*, Washington, 1952, Bulletin 1952, pp. 38-39.

cent is the next most important source of funds, mainly in the form of grants under a variety of Federal legislation. The third and only other important source of revenue in 1950–51 was student fees, and here too the Federal Government played a substantial part in contributions under the G.I. Bill of Rights through the Veterans Administration. This being an unusual source of income, it will cease shortly and will be accompanied by a corresponding decline in enrolment.

The establishment of the new university colleges and much of the expansion of the older education institutions in the United Kingdom Territories was made possible by funds granted under the provisions of the Colonial Development and Welfare Act. A sum of £6 million was allocated for disbursement in the period 1945–56 in accordance with the recommendations of the Colonial University Grants Advisory Committee. This was finally exhausted by the commitments made in 1950–51: £1,100,000 to the University College of East Africa, £400,000 to the University College of the Gold Coast, and £250,000 to the University of Hong Kong.[11] The funds provided in this way have been used almost exclusively for capital purposes. An additional allocation was provided under the 1950 Colonial Development and Welfare Act, and this is being utilized mainly for the completion of some of the capital programmes, which had to be seriously curtailed because of rising prices, and the financing of some of the most urgently needed new developments.[12]

In addition to this assistance from the Government of the United Kingdom, territorial governments also made substantial contributions. The East African governments have agreed, for the quinquennium starting in 1951, to make recurrent grants to Makerere College four times the size of their previous grants. The government of the Gold Coast agreed to increase its annual grant to the University College from £100,000 to £146,000 for 1950–51, £251,000 for 1951–52 and to £311,000 for 1952–53. The government of Nigeria in 1950–51 made a further donation of £500,000 to the University College at Ibadan. In 1952–53, it contributed £750,000 towards the cost of the new teaching hospital, bringing its total contributions for this purpose to £2,250,000; and, in addition to an allocation of £300,000 for capital expenditure, gave another £1,500,000 to the University College as an expendable endowment, the capital of which could be drawn on over a period of 15 years. The government of Nigeria also raised its annual grant to the college from £170,000 to £220,000 a year for the five years 1952–56. The governments of Singapore and of the Federation of Malaya agreed to give $5 million each to the University of Malaya.

The British West Indian governments also have agreed to make substantial increases in their contributions towards the recurrent income of the University College of the West Indies for the coming five years. They had undertaken to defray the recurrent expenditure for the years 1949–53 *pro rata* on a population basis: Barbados, 7.4 per cent; British Guiana, 12.9 per cent; British Honduras, 2.2 per cent; Jamaica, 45.4 per cent; Leeward Islands, 3.9 per cent; Trinidad, 17.9 per cent; Windward Islands, 10.3 per cent. More recently it was agreed by these Governments, on the recommendation of the University College, that the future finances of the college should be dealt with

[11] United Kingdom: *The Colonial Territories, 1950–51*, p. 104.

[12] United Kingdom: *The Colonial Territories, 1952–53*, p. 66.

through the Regional Economic Committee for the British West Indies. The Committee prepared estimates for the five-year period from August 1953 and made recommendations for apportioning the costs between the participating Territories, based partly on population and partly on income.

Financial support for higher education also came from other sources. In 1950–51, the Cocoa Marketing Board in the Gold Coast gave £1 million to the University College for the development of agriculture and its associated sciences (in addition to its former gifts totalling nearly £2 million). The Cocoa Marketing Board of Nigeria endowed the Department of Agriculture of the University College at Ibadan with a gift of £1 million. An appeal by the University of Malaya raised £425,000. In Hong Kong, a private gift of $1 million was donated to the University. Substantial private gifts have been received by other university institutions.

In the French Territories, the Government of Tunisia allocated, in its ordinary budget for 1952–53, 6,130 million francs to education in general, of which 2.19 per cent, or 134 million francs, was provided for higher education. In French West Africa, an allocation of 182.5 million francs CFA, mostly from metropolitan funds, was authorized in 1951 for the University Institute of Dakar. In the ordinary budget for 1952, an allocation of 110 million francs was made for higher education and in 1953 an allocation of 120.4 millions. In Madagascar, 18,640,000 francs CFA was provided for higher education in the general budget for 1952.

The Ten-year Development Plan of the Belgian Congo provided 76 million francs towards the cost of the first institution of higher education in the Territory. The recurrent expenses of the institution over the ten-year period are estimated at 59 million francs. Provision has also been made for the organization of a governmental institution of higher education, for which purpose first credit of 82,220,000 francs was provided in the 1950 extraordinary budget.[13]

Extra-mural activities

At the University College of the West Indies, a Director of Extra-mural Studies was appointed in 1947; by the beginning of 1949, resident tutors were appointed in each of the Territories contributing to the funds of the University. The extra-mural classes are organized in response to local demands. The number of adult students registered in 1951–52 was about 4,000. Summer schools are held in the larger Territories. The Extra-mural Department published *Caribbean Quarterly*, devoted to broad educational interests, and *Caribbean Affairs*, a series of booklets giving factual information about the British Caribbean. A seminar on adult education was held in 1952 in Jamaica with the assistance of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization.

Extra-mural departments were also established at the University College in Ibadan, Nigeria, and at the University College of the Gold Coast. Provision was made in 1952–53 by a grant under the Colonial Development and Welfare Act for the establishment of an extra-mural department at Makerere College.[14] In Sierra Leone, a tutor for extra-mural studies was appointed at Fourah Bay on secondment from the University of Durban. In Nigeria, the Extra-mural Department catered for more than 3,000 persons (in 1951–52), and is holding classes on visual education, social science and local government as well as special classes for teachers. The Department produced visual aid material and established a film library both for itself and for the Extra-mural Department of the University College of the Gold Coast, which sponsored a number of tutorial classes and residential courses, mainly on week-ends but sometimes lasting for a week or more. It has specialized in printing and publishing booklets and pamphlets of general interest.

In August 1951 a conference was held in the United Kingdom to review the whole position of adult education in the Territories. The conference emphasized the essential unity of the work and prepared the ground for further co-operation among those concerned with adult education in the Territories and in the United Kingdom. In continuation of the efforts to interest colonial students while in the United Kingdom, a course on adult education in several countries was conducted by the Extra-mural Department of the University of Bristol financed under the Colonial Development and Welfare Act.

The three Universities of Alaska, Hawaii and Puerto Rico maintain extension divisions. The University of Hawaii also conducts a correspondence course which was taken by 255 persons in 1950–51. Statistics of students of collegiate grade enrolled in extension courses in 1950–51 were :[15]

	Men	*Women*
University of Alaska	1,036	434
University of Hawaii	2,246	1,538
University of Puerto Rico .	256	988

Concluding note

The information transmitted shows that progress continues in the provision of higher education facilities in the Non-Self-Governing Territories, both by the creation of new institutions where none existed before, and by the expansion or re-organization of existing institutions. In addition, an increasing number of students are attending institutions of higher education in the metropolitan countries and in the United States of America.

There appears to have been progress in the adaptation of syllabuses to meet local conditions and needs. The establishment of institutes of social and economic research and departments of education in parti-

[13] Belgium : *Rapport sur l'administration de la colonie du Congo belge pendant l'année 1951*, Brussels, 1952, p. 143.

[14] United Kingdom : *The Colonial Territories, 1951–52*, Cmd. 8555, London, H.M.S.O., 1952, p. 78.

[15] United States : *Statistics of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities*, p. 16.

...ter have served to bring the problems of the peoples ... the institutions and to promote the utilization of ... knowledge so gained.

While differing in details, the methods of financing ...gher education have been similar and follow the gene... pattern of primary responsibility for the finances ...ting with the territorial governments, supplemented ... contributions from the metropolitan Governments, ...incipally for capital expenditures. Exceptional forms ... financing have been provided by the government payment of fees for veterans and allocations from particular trading sources.

Extra-mural activities, starting at the post-secondary level, have developed as a related function of the institutions established primarily for higher education. In addition to their services in programmes of adult education, the extension and extra-mural departments are of direct value to the universities by bringing them into contact with the general population of the areas which they serve.

CHAPTER XI

FINANCING OF EDUCATION

Introduction

This chapter endeavours to present an over-all picture of the financing of education in a number of Non-Self-Governing Territories. The sources from which the money spent on education in a given year is provided are shown in table 25.

The apportionment of this money among the various educational categories and services, excluding higher education, is shown in tables 26, 27 and 28. Separate tables are required to show the classification of expenditure on education in French and Belgian Territories, as the information available in this respect does not correspond to the headings in table 26. Information on the financing of higher education is given in the chapter dealing with higher education.[1]

In order to give a review of the expenditure on education over a number of years, the amounts spent annually and their ratio to total expenditure are recorded in table 29.

Finally, some of the trends of financial policy that are set down may be observed from a reading of the tables and subsequent information.

All the figures given have been taken from official information transmitted to, or placed at the disposal of, the Secretary-General. With regard to Territories under United Kingdom administration, all quotations are from the annual reports of their Departments of Education. For French Overseas Territories, data were collected from information supplied under Article 73, e, from the *Bulletin de l'Inspection générale de l'enseignement et de la jeunesse du Ministère de la France d'outre-mer* and from the *Annuaire statistique de l'Union française d'outre-mer, 1939–1949.*

Sources of finance

Table 25 sets down the expenditure on education from the various contributory sources, namely, territorial, local authorities, metropolitan and non-governmental. It does not show the income which accrues to the educational agencies, both governmental and private, from fees, services, hire of buildings, and sale of articles made in vocational schools. In the majority of Territories, figures of such income are not available, nor are they, as yet, of great significance in comparison to the total amount spent on education.

For French Equatorial Africa, French West Africa, French Somaliland and Madagascar, the figures given in column 4 (expenditure by the Department of Education from territorial revenue) include both recurrent and capital expenditures from territorial revenue (ordinary and extraordinary budgets). Corresponding percentages in column 2 are therefore calculated on the basis of the global budget.

Regarding column 6 (expenditure from metropolitan funds), the figures generally indicate grants from the Colonial Development and Welfare Fund for the British Territories and contributions of FIDES (Fonds d'investissement pour le développement économique et social) for the French Territories depending on the Ministry of Overseas France.

In column 7, the 806 million CB francs for the Belgian Congo is an average annual figure of the investment in school buildings for which funds were appropriated under the extraordinary budgets in 1950 and 1951 for a triennial period.

In column 8 (expenditure by departments other than the Education Department), the figures include expenditures such as those incurred on training courses given by functional departments (Medical, Posts and Telegraphs, Engineering, Agricultural, etc.) as well as those incurred by the Public Works Department on behalf of the Education Department. It is also to be noted that in the case of Tunisia the amount of over half a billion francs represents subventions to the *Grande Mosquée.*

As regards column 9, in many cases the figures of expenditure by non-governmental agencies are estimates only. When information is lacking in a given column, the grand totals given are affected by the lack of information, as financial contributions of non-governmental agencies may, in some cases, represent a large share of the aggregate sources of finance assigned to education.

[1] See chapter X.

Footnotes to Table 25 :

[a] Owing to figures being given to nearest thousand, figures of grand total do not correspond exactly with the addition of the component figures.

[b] Including £29,696 in grants from Territorial Government.

[c] In millions.

[d] Includes £3,226 from fees.

[e] Including £4,894 in grants from Territorial Government.

[f] Budgetary estimates, as previously expenditure on church and schools were not separated.

[g] 5,149 = £171,642 (approximately).

[h] 526 = £17,539 (approximately).

[i] Includes an estimated expenditure of 91 million CB francs for European education.

TABLE 25. — Sources of finance

(Thousands of units of local currency, except for French and Belgian Territories)

Territory	Year (1)	Educational expenditure expressed as a percentage of gross Territorial expenditure (2)	Currency (3)	Expenditure by Department of Education from Territorial revenue (4)	Expenditure on education by Local Authorities, Municipalities, etc. (5)	Expenditure from Metropolitan funds (6)	Development expenditure from Territorial funds (7)	Expenditure by Departments other than Education Department (8)	Expenditure by non-governmental agencies, Missions, private sources, etc. from private funds (9)	Grand Total [a] (10)
CARIBBEAN										
Barbados	1950–51	17.1	BWI$	1,647	14	1	126	13	5	1,807
British Guiana	1950	14.2	£	530	...	54	64	11	58	717
British Honduras	1951	10.0	BH$	304	.	52	...	...	64	420
Jamaica	1951	12.03	£	1,475	58	69	63	76	...	1,742
Puerto Rico	1950–51	...	US$	29,477	...	7,133	...	...	...	36,610
St. Lucia	1950	...	BWI$	213	0.3	...	77	0.7	19	310
St. Vincent	1951	...	BWI$	254		9	...	22	1	286
Trinidad	1951	...	BWI$	4,979	...	...	355	...	...	5,568
Virgin Islands (US)	1951–52	...	US$	...	473	71	...	...	...	544
AFRICA										
Basutoland	1950	17.1	£	156	-	9		0.3	9	174
Bechuanaland	1950	6.88	£	37	--	9	--	...	5	81 [b]
Belgian Congo	1951	6.17	CB fr.[c]	285	1	39	299	...	...	624
British Somaliland	1951	...	£	—	-	35		-	1	40 [d]
French Equatorial Africa	1951	6.0	CFA fr.[c]	721	.	100	-	...	...	821
French Somaliland	1951	2.0	Dj. fr.[c]	19	-	...	...	--	...	19 [c]
French West Africa	1951	6.4	CFA fr.[c]	2,769	. .	405	...	...	...	3,174
Gambia	1949	4.0	£	26	—	16	—	--	4	50 [d]
Gold Coast	1950	...	£	1,609	412	141	286	...	61	2,509
Kenya	1951	10.7	£	1,379	244	142	686	110	267	2,827
Morocco	1951	14.48	fr.[c]	5,400	—	--	3,000	73	...	8,533
Nigeria	1950	12.0	£	2,412	546	1,416	...	...	1,500	5,875
Northern Rhodesia:										
African	1952	3.32	£	563	34	187	...	30	...	815
European	1950	3.1	£	312	...	...	125	8	...	445
Nyasaland	1951	5.21	£	216	25	42	...	9	83	375
Sierra Leone	1950	8.88	£	186	17	118	70	6	60	456
Swaziland	1951	...	£	52	4	28	...	1	19	105
Tunisia	1952–53	16.60	fr.[c]	6,131	...	—	1,100	518	...	7,748
Uganda	1951	7.11	£	879	82	26	...	141	261	1,345
Zanzibar	1951	7.4	£	102	...	21	30	4	22	178
ASIA										
Federation of Malaya	1951	8.49	M$	51,944	2,436	356	187	18,922	7,450	81,296
Hong Kong	1952	6.8	HK$	20,833	—	18	...	284	3,302	24,437
Sarawak	1951	5.0	M$	752	168	213	...	...	2,526	3,658
Singapore	1951	13.0	M$	8,775	7,569	...	...	...	5,759	22,103
PACIFIC										
Cook Islands	1952	...	£NZ	Entire cost of education provided by New Zealand Government						54
Fiji	1951	10.0	£F	359	40	68	7	...	130	605
Gilbert and Ellice Islands	1951	9.0	US$	14,414	3,120	320	...	...	...	17,854
Netherlands New Guinea	1951	...	FL	In 1951 half of the total expenditure of the Territory was met by Metropolitan grants						3,114
Papua	1951	7.0	£A	...	...	...	...	...	66,471	197
Pitcairn Island	1951	34.0	£NZ	2	—	—	—	—	—	2
OTHER TERRITORIES										
Aden Colony	1950	5.24	£	63	15	...	...	...	...	78
Aden Protectorate	1950	...	£	...	3	5	0.8	9.2	...	10
Cyprus	1952	15.08	£	762	261	5	36	6	176	1,245
Gibraltar	1952	8.0	£	66	...	...	...	5	3	73
Greenland	1952–53	10.6	kr	—	—	5,049	—	—	—	5,049 [e]
Madagascar	1951	8.0	CFA fr.[c]	687	...	117	...	4	...	807
Mauritius	1951	11.9	Rs.	4,694	—	455	—	...	...	5,149 [e]
St. Helena	1951	9.7	£	9	—	—	—	—	—	9
Seychelles	1950	10.1	Rs.	286	0.7	176	...	3	60	526 [a]

TABLE 26. — Classification of expenditure [a]

(Thousands of units of local currency)

Territory	Primary education	Secondary education	Teacher training	Other vocational training	Scholarships regional and overseas	Administrative services	Maintenance of schools, furniture and equipment	Board and lodging of pupils at secondary schools	Capital expenditure	Remarks
CARIBBEAN										
Barbados	1,009	286	11	8	36	56	122	—	166	
British Guiana	406	36	8	61	7	20	31	9	118	
British Honduras	247	7	16	2	...	13	17	—	52	
Jamaica	917	105	23	105	35	74	44	69	68	In addition, £161.60 spent.
Puerto Rico	9,735	1,931	...	2,877	775	887	1,193	...	...	In addition, $3,964.72 spent on interme education, $30.2 community educa $3,775,254 on othe tional services and $ on libraries.
St. Lucia	141	11	27	2	...	9	6	—	38	
St. Vincent	186	37	3	1	3	12	14	—	13	In addition, £13.2 spent.
Trinidad	3,798	602	185	...	...	287	59	...	365	
AFRICA										
Basutoland:										
African	101	6	14	13	3	11	2	1	0.2	
European	3	...	—	...	...	...	...	...		
Bechuanaland:										
African	7	5	1	0.3	1	13	0.7	—	0.6	
European	4	—	—	—	3	0.7	0.3	—	3	
Coloured	0.8	—	—	—	—	—	0.1	—	—	
Gambia	14	6	4	1	0.4	4	4	3	3	
Gold Coast	550	110	193	48	98	169	3	10	67	
Kenya:										
African	256	86	38	57	5	27	4	55	145	In addition, £46.7 spent on African
European	158	113	—	—	5	20	6	114	419	In addition, £20.3 spent on Europe tion.
Asian	154	77	9	—	5	17	1	—	210	In addition, £10.2 spent on Asian
Arab	15	6	—	—	1	2	0.25	—	49	In addition, £12.8 on Arab educatio
Mixed races	1.4	—	—	110	—	—	—	—	68	
Northern Rhodesia:										
African	Breakdown of expenditure not available.								187	
European	188	...	1	5	56	22	—	22	139	
Asian	3	...	...	...	0.1		—	—	2	
Coloured	1	...	...	...	4		2	3	0.8	
Nyasaland:										
African	145	17	19	...	3	18	0.5	...	19	
European	6	11	—	—	1		—	—	7	
Asian	6	1	—	—	0.1		0.04	—	0.1	
Coloured	1	1	—	—	—		—	—	—	
Sierra Leone	114	56	43	19	14	28	9	10	119	
Swaziland:										
African	29	...	0.5	5	1	8	1	2	12	In addition, £2.5 spent on African
European	17	...	—	—	0.4		...	...	...	
Coloured	2	...	—	—	0.2		0.7	4	0.6	
Uganda:							0.3	—	2	
African	628 [b]	126	60	30	4	7	6	...	96	In addition, £26.7 spent on African
European	10	—	—	—	1	...	0.08	—	9	In addition, £1.7 spent on Europe tion.
Asian	80	33	0.3	—	2	—	2	—	3	
All races	—	—	—	—	—	54	—	—	—	In addition, £141.2 spent on educa races.
Zanzibar	74	24	4	0.7	4	14	3	12	18	In addition, £2.8 spent on educa

[a] Excluding post-secondary and higher education.

[b] This figure includes expenditure from private sources.

TABLE 26 *(concluded)* — Classification of expenditure [a]

(Thousands of units of local currency)

Territory	Primary education	Secondary education	Teacher training	Other vocational training	Scholarships regional and overseas	Administrative services	Maintenance of schools, furniture and equipment	Board and lodging of pupils at secondary schools	Capital expenditure	Remarks
Federation of Malaya..	20,671	3,334	512	251	340	1,597	1,078	503	2,070	In addition, $M1,629,142 was spent.
Hong Kong:										
Chinese	7,643	4,948	719	443	220	1 557	473	—	2,044	In addition, $HK1,946,435 was spent on the education of both races.
European	356	482	...	—						
Singapore	5,259	1,008	204	180	3	36	...		818	In addition, $M228,425 was spent.
Pacific										
Fiji:										
Fijian	88	18	6	2	0.5	...	...	—	9.5	Expenditure from Territorial revenue only.
Indian	67	4	4	2	1.3	...	...	—	2	
European	20	3	—	1.5	0.2	...	...	—	2	In addition, £F56,810 was spent.
West Africa										
Gambia Colony	44	20	1	...	5	3		0.2	5	
Sierra Western Protectorate	5	—	0.06	—	0.4	1	2	1	1	
Nigeria	635	261	21	27	8	16	139	13	123	
Gibraltar.....	26	25	4	...	2	4	2	—	3	
Greenland	...	1 227 (a)	...	...	450 (b)	...	1,168	—	1,875	(a) For all schools and administrative expenses in Greenland. (b) For vocational training and higher education in Denmark.
Mauritius	2,536	632	194	...	226	109	50	—	3	In addition, Rs.944,148 was spent.
Seychelles	147	117	19	25	18	30	5	—	112	

TABLE 27

Public expenditure on education in French Overseas Territories and the Belgian Congo [a]

(In thousands of francs of the territory)

Territory	Year	Maintenance and supplies	Personnel	Scholarships	Subsidies to private schools: Local funds	Subsidies to private schools: Metropolitan funds	Capital expenditure: Local funds	Capital expenditure: Metropolitan funds	Others
Morocco	1951	1,194,800	3,993,330	...	...	...	3,000,000	...	73,299
Tunisia	1952/53	286,100	3,893,200	...	1,010,600	...	1,100,000	...	1,315,000
French West Africa	1951	559,333	1,406,995	184,116	78,522	246,300	492,731	405,000	19,500
French Equatorial Africa.	1950	78,880	206,558	32,000	115,426	98,650	92,130	155,800	...
Madagascar	1951	...	...	16,715	30,310	154,450	...	116,780	...
Comoro Islands	1951	5,991	9,017	...	...	...	...	55,500	...
French Somaliland	1951	3,610	15,030	—	320	11,500	...	112,500	...
Belgian Congo	1951	14,939	108,108	...	229,400	...	305,800	91,093	7,130

[a] Budgetary estimates.

TABLE 28

Capital expenditure in French Overseas Territories and in the Belgian Congo[a]
(In thousands of francs of the Territory)

Territory	Year or period	Primary education	Secondary education	Technical training	Teachers' training	Higher education	Others	Total
Morocco:								
Extraordinary budget	1950	620,000	645,000	(Included in secondary)		142,000	1,643,000	3,050,0
Tunisia:								
Extraordinary budget	1951	Breakdown not available						1,100,0
French West Africa:								
FIDES funds	1948-51	21,600	626,500	854,500	177,224	7,600	...	1,687,5
French Equatorial Africa:								
FIDES funds	1948-51	108,400	125,000	239,000	35,500	—	49,700	557,6
Madagascar:								
FIDES funds	1948-51	152,140	151,940	37,000	129,720	16,250	...	487,0
Comoro Islands:								
FIDES funds	1948-51	55,500	—	—	—	—	...	55,5
French Somaliland:								
FIDES funds	1948-51	112,500	—	—	—	—	...	112,5
Belgian Congo:								
Native Welfare Fund	1949-52	26,000	...	30,000	123,000	...	73,000	252,0
Extraordinary budgets	1950-51 (Triennial allocation for Ten-Year Plan)							
Native education		182,925	171,330	235,740	(Included in secondary)	54,105	...	644,1
Non-native education		Breakdown not available						273,4

[a] Budgetary estimates.

Classification of expenditure

In table 27, the figure 1,315 million francs in the last column for Tunisia represents funds assigned out of local ordinary resources to public schools, the budgets of which are published as annexes to the general budget.

Regarding scholarships, amounts indicated are not necessarily complete. For Madagascar, for example, they concern only the scholarships for higher education in France. For Morocco and Tunisia, accurate figures were not available. In the Belgian Congo there were no public funds for scholarships in 1951 nor in previous years. The breakdown of the 644 million francs for native education represents the planned distribution of the appropriated credits, but this proportion may not have been adhered to in the execution.

Trends of financial policy and practice

Financial policy in regard to education in the Non-Self-Governing Territories has followed a general pattern, similar in many respects to that which has developed over the years in the metropolitan countries.

In the Caribbean Territories under United Kingdom administration, the dual system of church and government control has always operated. In 1940–42, there were 1,185 church-owned schools out of a total of 1,662 schools; the position is very much the same today. In the early part of this decade, declining church revenues were insufficient to enable the building requirements to keep pace with the demands. The government made grants for the whole of the teachers' salaries and for other recurrent expenditure, and in some Territories, up to 50 per cent of the cost of building works, within the limits of available funds. Today the rising costs have made it increasingly difficult for the churches to bear their share of the cost of new buildings for elementary schools, even when it is as little as 25 per cent of the total. The government of Trinidad, since 1948, has undertaken to pay two-thirds of the actual cost of assisted denominational school buildings and the full cost of providing modern sanitary installations.

The policy of the metropolitan Government in this area has been to provide grants only for capital expenditure. Funds have been provided chiefly for school buildings and sanitation, the free provision of books and stationery, the training of teachers and pre-vocational training. The territorial governments assume the responsibility for recurrent annual expenditures, the chief item being the salaries of primary school teachers. In many Territories today, the expenditure for salaries is about 80 per cent of the budget for education. It is this permanently recurrent expenditure which has constituted the central problem of educational development for more than a decade.

Between 1946 and 1951, a total of £1,712,443 was allocated to the Caribbean Territories for educational expenditures under the Colonial Development and Welfare Act of 1945. Grants amounting to £100,0

TABLE 29

Review of recurrent expenditure by governments on education
(In thousands of units of local currency except for French and Belgian Territories)

Territory			1946	1947	1948	1949	1950	1951	1952
CARIBBEAN									
Barbados			£118	£195	£212	$1,160	$1,541	$1,652	...
British Guiana			1,443	1,628	1,762	2,146	2,727	2,806	...
British Honduras			129	201	221	248	268	304	...
Jamaica			651	686	780	908	1,578	1,742	...
Puerto Rico (public schools only)			19,541	22,488	24,207	25,358	27,261	30,339	...
St. Lucia			99	122	122	135	147	230	...
Trinidad			2,138	2,378	2,628	4,256	4,797	5,527	...
Virgin Islands (US)			348	305	375	432	536	520	544
AFRICA									
Belgian Congo:	1938	1945							
Ordinary budget (million BC francs)	19.8	67.0	78.0	126.0	188.6	244.9	287.6	358.4	482.0
Per cent of ordinary budget	2.52	3.38	3.90	3.67	4.0	5.37	5.96	7.23	7.71
French Equatorial Africa:	1939	1945							
Ordinary budget (million francs CFA)	3.8	28.6	48.4	54.9	111.4	222.0	286.6	...	...
Per cent of total ordinary budget	1.51	6.3	7.0	4.22	6.02	6.62	7.12	...	...
French West Africa:	1939	1945							
Ordinary budget (million francs CFA)	37.3	187.3	219.5	568.5	899.8	1,263	1,545	...	...
Per cent of total ordinary budget	4.05	6.39	5.26	6.1	7.34	6.35	6.87	...	...
Gold Coast:	1928	1938							
Territorial budget	199	213	467	743	745	903	1,066	1,540	...
Local authorities	...	...	95	169	323	420	494	...	...
Kenya:	1936	1944							
African education [a]	70	95	149	161	212	366	410	1,141[b]	...
European education	47	117	158	179	208	316	356	856	...
Asian education	37	64	97	109	137	238	269	576	...
Arab education	5	7	9	10	12	19	20	73	...
Total recurrent	171	319	486	538	748	940	1,051	1,379	...
Per cent of total territorial expenditure	...	...	...	...	...	11.34	12.1	14.2	...
By African councils	14	41	78	105	123	159	220	244	...
Morocco:	1939	1945							
Ordinary budget (million francs met.)	105	402	691	1,336	2,218	3,279	4,477	5,460	7,814
Per cent of ordinary budget	6.37	11.62	10.58	12.43	11.59	13.47	15.50	14.48	14.70
Nigeria:	1928-29	1945							
Recurrent expenditure	229	616	746	1,260	1,962	2,309	2,412	...	...
Per cent of total territorial expenditure	...	...	...	...	10.4	9.99	12.0	...	...
By native administrations	...	...	...	...	...	325	546	...	...
Northern Rhodesia:	1930	1940							
African education recurrent	32	55	178	241	300	391	413	441	563
Per cent of total territorial expenditure	...	...	5.1	5.3	5.52	5.55	3.97	4.11	3.32
By native authorities	...	...	7			9	16	26	34
European education recurrent	...	...	74	99	122	229	312	...	...
Per cent of territorial expenditure	...	...	...	...	...	...	3.1	...	...
Nyasaland:	1927	1940							
Recurrent	4	14	89	105	126	155	180	234	...
Per cent of total territorial expenditure	...	...	11.83	11.82	8.81	9.09	8.45	9.09	...
Sierra Leone:	1935	1940							
Recurrent	39	44	68	78	103	137	186	...	...
Per cent of total territorial expenditure	6.7	5.6	5.06	4.9	6.06	7.31	8.88	...	...
By native administrations	0	...	3	5	6	14	19	...	...

[a] Excluding grants to missions for African education.

[b] Including expenditure by non-governmental agencies.

TABLE 29 *(concluded)*

Review of recurrent expenditure by governments on education
(In thousands of units of local currency except for French and Belgian Territories)

Territory			*1946*	*1947*	*1948*	*1949*	*1950*	*1951*
Tunisia:	*1941*	*1945*						
Ordinary budget (million francs met.)	84	390	679	1,285	2,436	2,155	2,989	3,92
Per cent of ordinary budget	10.0	14.0	14.4	15.6	13.9	13.1	14.01	14.7
Uganda:	*1930*	*1944*						
African education	...	176	228	233	323	371	520	63
European education	...	11	5	7	9	29	52	8
Asian education	...	23	31	34	49	78	82	10
Total recurrent expenditure	65	211	264	375	410	523	700	87
Per cent of total territorial expenditure	4.67	8.71	9.11	...	...	8.0	8.74	7.11
By local governments	...	32	31	36	49	40	60	8
ASIA								
Brunei			20	74	108	143	452	37
Federation of Malaya			8,647	12,977	7,003	32,110	33,000	73,84
Hong Kong			6,493	9,000	13,500	20,000	19,000	21,61
		1940						
Sarawak		167	...	235	479	540	689	1 13
Singapore			1,693	4,057	5,845	7,834	11,230	19,02
PACIFIC								
American Samoa			72	...	76	100	137	20
		1936-37						
Cook Islands		9	15	20	26	35	42	4
Fiji			117	161	280	314	324	47
Hawaii			...	13,273	15,942	16,160	15,925	17,55
Papua			...	...	71	117	178	19
Solomon Islands			...	4	2	3	3	4
OTHER TERRITORIES								
Cyprus:								
Total expenditure	*1938*	*1945*						
Per cent of total territorial expenditure	124	241	404	473	614	933	1,077	1,05
	13.7	11.18	10.09	10.63	10.64	11.76	14.04	14.9

were made to the Windward and Leeward Island Territories to cover the cost of teacher training; the sum of £31,250 to Jamaica for books and stationery; £700,000 to British Guiana for a primary school building programme; the sum of £1,550,000 to Trinidad, £24,927 to Grenada and £21,717 to St. Lucia for schools. British Honduras received over £50,000 for a technical school, and the Turks and Caicos Islands received £21,310 for teacher training and schoolrooms. By the end of 1950–51, half a million pounds were spent in Jamaica from Colonial Development and Welfare Funds and £100,000 from territorial funds on school buildings.

In 1951, a conference of education officers from the Caribbean Territories of the United Kingdom was held in Barbados to consider the question of the rising cost of education. It was recommended that the territorial governments reduce the school-age range, adopt a double-shift system, simplify school-building plans to cover the minimum essential requirements only, with a considerable reduction in building costs, and extend, where possible, the principle of aid to "community" or basic schools.

In the Caribbean Territories of the United Stat the insular government of Puerto Rico and the m municipalities comprising the Virgin Islands are re responsible for the budgets of their respective Depa ments of Education, as well as for a number of sup liary educational services. The United States Gover ment contributes annually, as provided for by feder statutes, to help finance the school lunch, vocatio education and veterans' education (vocational rehab litation in Puerto Rico) programmes in the T Territories.

Puerto Rico, with its fifty-year-old university, a cultural college, vocational schools, private schools colleges, and new medical school, is able to offer m diversified and specialized training than the Vir Islands, where training is limited to the senior h school. The possibility of extending the educatio programme in the Virgin Islands to the junior coll level has been considered over a long period of ti

but additional financial resources would be needed to implement this plan. The United States Government, under the terms of Public Law 510 passed by the 78th Congress in 1944, plans to build primary and secondary schools in the Virgin Islands at a cost of over $1,000,000.

A committee of educational specialists from the United States Office of Education was assigned to the Virgin Islands in 1950 to assist in developing a long-range and comprehensive educational survey. The experts found that the schools did not have sufficient funds to provide the programmes and facilities needed; that the islands depended on United States appropriations for school plant construction. It did not consider that the sum of over one million dollars would be adequate to provide the amounts and types of school plant facilities and services required. It recommended that the question of more effectively organizing and financing education in the Virgin Islands be examined by the Educational Study Committee which the Governor established in 1950.

In 1949–50 the Government of Puerto Rico found necessary to establish a system of priorities, due to the lack of sufficient funds, to carry out the island-wide programme for the construction of school buildings as originally planned. An Educational Planning Commission was formed by the Department of Education to develop long-term plans for the most effective use of the resources available for educational purposes. As of 31 January 1951, the Government of Puerto Rico had appropriated the following funds for capital improvements under its six-year financial programme: Department of Education, $12,504,711; Insular Board for Vocational Education, $4,997,524; University of Puerto Rico, $2,783,500.

With the exception of British Somaliland, in the Territories in Africa under the administration of the United Kingdom, the missionary societies were the initial providers of educational facilities; these were financed from their own resources. Since the financial aspect of British colonial policy at the time was that the dependent territories should become self-supporting, little or no financial contributions were made by the metropolitan Government. When, however, the financial resources of the territorial government allowed, the latter began to participate, initially in the form of grants to the missions and later by the direct provision of educational facilities. Similarly, in time, as native administrations or local governments were established, contributions were made from the funds at their disposal either to assist in the cost of existing schools or to open and administer new schools within the area of their jurisdiction. In recent years, in line with the policy accompanying the promulgation of the Colonial Development and Welfare Act in 1940, whereby dependent Territories were to be assisted in the increased development of their total resources to the end that social and educational progress should go hand in hand with economic development, the metropolitan Government has made financial contributions, a substantial part of which is being devoted to education. At the same time, while still playing an influential role in the conduct of education, the financial contributions from the mission have decreased, while in some Territories school fees offset to a limited degree the costs of education. In general, therefore, in most Territories the trend of financial policy and practice, other than that relating to private education, is in the transitory stage towards the time when the whole cost of education in each Territory will have to be raised locally and defrayed from central government funds, local government funds and school fees.

Naturally, with Territories in such varying stages of development, the pattern at present is not uniform. It ranges from British Somaliland, with a total expenditure on education of £39,662 in 1951, of which £35,436 were contributed by the metropolitan Government, £3,226 consisted of school fees and £1,000 were contributed by Somalis towards the building of a second elementary school; to Territories such as Gibraltar and St. Helena where, in 1951, the total costs of education were defrayed from territorial funds. The following table illustrates the position, in 1950, of Territories at an intermediate stage:

Territory	*Currency*	*Territorial Government*	*Local authorities*	*Non-Govt. funds*	*School fees (Govt. schools)*	*Metropolitan Govt. funds*
Gold Coast	£	1,609,203	411,967	60,900	167,512	141,205
Sierra Leone	£	185,559	18,860	60,333	9,655	117,967
Uganda (African education)	£	519,762	59,615	216,220	27,681	26,000
Kenya (African education)	£	410,069	220,078	261,500	240,061 [a]	41,679
Seychelles	Rs.	286,300	715	60,430	24,716	175,999
Cyprus	£	1,071,335	210,352	35,670	158,387	7,085

[a] Tuition and boarding fees.

In Morocco and Tunisia, expenditures on education have to a large extent been borne from territorial funds. There has been no call on metropolitan funds except in the case of Tunisia, where an amount of 350 million francs needed for war-damage reconstruction was provided by France during the period 1945–1951.[2] In the French Territories south of the Sahara, a different policy has been followed and most invest-

[2] Tunisia: *Bulletin économique et social de la Tunisie*, March 1952, p. 67.

ment funds have come from FIDES. In regard to capital expenditures falling within the social field, two thirds of the FIDES funds are derived from a budgetary allotment of the French Government (metropolitan subvention) while the remaining third is made up by the Territory. Moreover, since the financial resources of the Territories are extremely limited, this third has been financed by means of an advance from the Caisse Centrale of Overseas France. The Territories are, however, obliged to repay these advances within 25 years and have to pay 1 per cent interest plus commission charges of 1 per cent.

FIDES expenditure for the building and equipment of schools amounted to 2,904 million francs of committed payments (*crédits de paiement*) during the period 1948–51 for the five Territories. This amount was shared between the different categories of education according to the following pattern: primary, 5.5 per cent; secondary, 31.1 per cent; technical, 38.9 per cent; teacher training, 11.8 per cent; higher education, 1 per cent; physical education and other, 1.7 per cent.

Technical training thus got the largest share, followed by secondary education. A smaller proportion was devoted to primary education, but this is made up by capital expenditure out of the territorial budget,[3] e.g. 492 million francs CFA in French West Africa in 1951. Moreover, a tentative policy is being considered which would tend to rely on a contribution from the local authorities.[4] Up to now these local authorities have contributed little or nothing to the financing of education, altough in some places, as in Madagascar, they erect village schools.

One is often reminded that social development is subordinated to economic development, and that in consequence the Territories should be furnished only with such educational facilities for which they can bear the running costs. In this connexion, however, the second conference of directors of education in French Africa recalled: "In no case, without great danger, can the development of education be interrupted or even slowed down for the benefit of economic development."[5]

Recurrent expenditures were, in general, not high before the war and only represented a small percentage of the total budget. This proportion has increased in an encouraging fashion, but shows a tendency to remain at about 6 to 7 per cent in French West Africa and French Equatorial Africa while in French North Africa the percentages reach 14 in Morocco and 16 in Tunisia, Territories where such percentages were already higher than in the others even before the war.

French Territories have developed public education and do not rely to a large extent on private education. This is not the same in the Belgian Congo, where it is considered that subsidized private education is a very economical means in the development of education. In this connexion it is stated in the ten-year-plan: "In order to judge the effort provided for the instruction and education of the natives at its correct value due account must be taken of the real value of the services provided by some 1,666 European missionaries who constitute the staff for the education of the natives. The annual cost to the colony of each of these missionaries may be estimated at about 75,000 francs, the total expenditure thus amounts to about 125 million per annum. If these 1,666 missionaries were government officials, then the annual cost per individual would be about 450,000 francs, the total expenditure about 750 million, or 7.5 billion for the ten-year period (as against 1.25 billion). A saving of some 6 billion over the ten-year period can thus be seen to result from the participation of the missionary teachers."

These estimates, made in 1948, have actually been outrun by increasing costs and the subsidies to private schools have reached 229 million CB francs in 1951 and 318 million in 1952. Moreover, most of the capital expenditure for both public and private schools is borne by public finance under the ten-year plan.

Since the inception of the ten-year plan, the emphasis seems to be on the development of technical education. Estimated capital expenditure on native education in the extraordinary budget for 1953 amounts to 566 million francs, the largest part of which will be devoted to technical schools.

Owing to the widely varying nature of conditions in Asian and Pacific Territories and the comparative scantiness of the information available, no detailed pattern appears. In general, contributions from the metropolitan Governments are combined with funds from local sources. In the case of the less financially developed Territories, such as the Cook Islands and Netherlands New Guinea, the whole and the half, respectively, of their educational expenditures are defrayed from metropolitan funds.

The outstanding trend, in the post-war years, is the great increase in funds spent on education, an increase that far exceeds the growth of population in the same period. In the Federation of Malaya, for example, the increase has been from M$8.6 million in 1946 to M$73.8 million in 1951; in Singapore, from M$7.5 to M$19 million; in Hong Kong, from HK$6.5 to HK$21.6 million; in Brunei, from M$20,000 to M$375,000; in Fiji, from £F117,000 to £F475,000; and in American Samoa, from $72,000 to $208,000.

To sum up, in the gradual progress towards the ultimate objectives of universal compulsory free primary education, of adequate provision of opportunities for those who wish to proceed further up the educational ladder and of reaching the stage when the total costs of education can be borne by the Territory, these appear from the tables set out above to be three main

[3] France: Ministère de la France d'outre-mer, *L'équipement des territoires français d'outre-mer, 1947–1950*, Paris, 1951, p. 134.

[4] France: "Enseignement outre-mer", *Bulletin de l'Inspection générale de l'enseignement et de la jeunesse du Ministère de la France d'outre-mer*, April 1952, p. 7.

[5] France: *Ibid.*, p. 15.

[6] Belgique, *Plan décennal pour le développement économique et social du Congo belge*, tome I, Brussels, 1949, p. 63.

problems of financial policy which have to be resolved in practice. They are, firstly, what proportion of territorial revenue should be devoted to education; secondly, of this proportion what should be allocated to primary, to secondary, to teacher training, to vocational, to adult and to higher education; and, thirdly, how should the cost of education, including both recurrent and capital expenditures, be divided between central government, local authorities' funds, school fees, grants to non-governmental schools and metropolitan funds. Against these practical problems must be set the increasing demand of the indigenous inhabitants for more and more education, a question of educational policy which is outside the scope of this study.

ANNEXES

ANNEX 1

STATISTICS OF ILLITERACY[1]

So long as a large portion of the world's population remains without a rudimentary knowledge of reading and writing, the problem of illiteracy will continue to be of importance and concern. In certain countries education has long been compulsory and almost universal, and the number of persons not able to read and write is confined to an irreducible minimum, composed mainly of those mentally incapable of such learning. Yet in many areas of the world the majority of the population may be completely illiterate. The size of the problem varies in different parts of the world and among different sections of the population. It has been estimated that as many as half of the world's people still cannot read and write.

The percentage of illiteracy in each continent in the population 10 years of age and over may be roughly estimated as follows:

	Percentage
Africa	75–84
America, North	10–15
America, South	40–50
Asia (excl. USSR)	65–75
Europe (excl. USSR)	5–10
Oceania	10–15
USSR	15–20
WORLD TOTAL...	45–55

Statistics on illiteracy are obtained mainly from national population censuses. Most of the countries with very low illiteracy rates have discontinued asking questions on literacy in their censuses; on the other hand, many countries where illiteracy is known to be relatively high have never yet taken a complete national census.

The following table presents available data on literacy in 108 countries and Territories, based on the most recent census or estimate since 1930. The information given in the table covers about 70 per cent of the world's population. The following countries, for which data are lacking, are believed to have extremely low rates of illiteracy: Australia, Austria, Denmark, Germany, Iceland, Japan, Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and certain small European States.

Definitions of literacy vary widely, ranging from simply "can read" to "can write a short letter to a friend and read the answer". Requirements as to language are sometimes introduced. No actual test of literacy has been found practical in census enumerations, and the word of the respondent or the judgment of the enumerator must be accepted with all the subjective elements of error involved. As far as possible the definition of literacy adopted and the population to which the data apply, have been stated in the table. The rate of illiteracy has been calculated by dividing the number of illiterates by the total number of literates and illiterates in the relevant population group, excluding, wherever feasible, persons unspecified for literacy.

[1] Prepared by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (United Nations document A/AC.35/L.136).

Percentage of population illiterate

Country	*Year of census (C) or estimate (E)*		*Criterion of literacy* [a]	*Age level*	*Percentage of illiterates*
AFRICA					
Algeria (Fr.) (European pop.)	1948	C	W	10 and over	8
Angola (Port.) ("civilized" pop.)	1940	C	R	All ages	23
Belgian Congo	1951	E	R	All ages	72
Cape Verde Islands (Port.)	1940	C	R	All ages	53
Ceuta (Sp.)	1940	C	...	10 and over	74
Egypt	1947	C	RW	5 and over	86
Gold Coast (U.K.)	1948	E	...	...	72
Mauritius and dependencies (U.K.)	1944	C	RW [b]	10 and over	25
Melilla (Sp.)	1940	C	...	10 and over	50
Morocco (Fr.)	1951	E	...	10 and over	98
Mozambique (Port.)	1940	C	R	All ages	93
Nyasaland (U.K.) (African pop.)	1945	C	RW [c]	All ages	45
Portuguese Guinea:					
"Civilized" pop.	1950	C	RW	All ages	98
"Non-civilized" pop.	1950	C	RW [d]	10 and over	

Percentage of population illiterate *(continued)*

Country	Year of census (C) or estimate (E)		Criterion of literacy [a]	Age level	Percentage of illiteracy
St. Helena and dependencies (U.K.)	1948	E	...	...	1
São Tomé and dependencies (Port.)	1940	C	R	All ages	87
Seychelles and dependencies (U.K.)	1947	C	RW	10 and over	65
Sierra Leone (U.K.)	1947	C	R	...	71
Somaliland (Fr.) (European and assimilated pop.)	1951	C	RW	10 and over	5
Somaliland Protectorate (U.K.)	1951	E	RW	All ages	99
Swaziland (U.K.) (African pop.)	1946	C	...	All ages	82
Uganda (U.K.)	1948	E	...	...	70
Union of South Africa (" Native " pop.)	1946	C	RW	10 and over	72
AMERICA, NORTH					
Alaska (U.S.)	1930	C	RW	10 and over	20
Bermuda (U.K.)	1950	C	RW	7 and over	3
British Honduras	1946	C	RW	10 and over	17
British West Indies:					
Bahamas	1943	C	RW	5 and over	24
Barbados	1946	C	RW	10 and over	8
Jamaica and dependencies	1943	C	RW	10 and over	26
Leeward Islands	1946	C	RW	10 and over	17
Trinidad and Tobago	1946	C	RW	10 and over	24
Windward Islands	1946	C	RW	10 and over	31
Canada (excl. Newfoundland)	1931	C	RW	10 and over	4
Newfoundland	1945	C	RW	10 and over	13
Costa Rica	1950	C	R	10 and over	21
Cuba	1943	C	R	10 and over	24
Dominican Republic	1935	C	RW	7 and over	74
El Salvador	1950	C	...	10 and over	60
Guatemala	1940	C	RW	7 and over	67
Haiti	1950	E	RW	10 and over	90
Honduras	1950	C	RW	10 and over	65
Mexico	1940	C	RW	10 and over	54
Nicaragua	1940	C	...	7 and over	63
Panama [c]	1940	C	RW	10 and over	36
Puerto Rico (U.S.)	1950	C	RW	10 and over	24
St. Pierre and Miquelon (Fr.)	1951	C	RW	10 and over	8
United States	1947	E [f]	RW	14 and over	3
Virgin Islands (U.S.)	1940	C	RW	10 and over	13
AMERICA, SOUTH					
Argentina	1947	C	RW	14 and over	14
Bolivia	1943	E	...	...	80
Brazil	1940	C	RW	10 and over	57
British Guiana [g]	1946	C	RW	10 and over	22
Chile	1940	C	R	10 and over	26
Colombia	1938	C	R	10 and over	44
Ecuador	1950	C	...	10 and over	44
Falkland Islands (U.K.)	1948	E	...	...	5
Peru	1940	C	R	10 and over	57
Uruguay	1938	E	...	...	15
Venezuela	1941	C	RW	10 and over	59
ASIA					
Aden Colony (U.K.)	1946	C	RW	10 and over	79
Bahrein	1941	C	...	" Adults "	88
British Borneo:					
Brunei [h]	1947	C	RW	10 and over	74
North Borneo [i]	1951	C	RW	10 and over	84
Sarawak [h]	1947	C	RW	10 and over	83
Burma	1931	C	RW	10 and over	60
Ceylon	1946	C	RW	5 and over	42
China	1946	E	...	All ages	56
Cyprus (U.K.)	1946	C	RW	10 and over	36
Federation of Malaya (U.K.) [i]	1947	C	RW	15 and over	62
French India (European and assimilated pop.)	1951	C	RW	10 and over	10
Hong Kong (U.K.) (Chinese population)	1931	C	RW [j]	11 and over	49
India	1931	C	RW	10 and over	91
Indonesia	1930	C	W	15 and over	92
Israel	1948	E [k]	RW	15 and over	6
Korea	1930	C	...	10 and over	69

Percentage of population illiterate *(concluded)*

Country	Year of census (C) or estimate (E)		Criterion of literacy [a]	Age level	Percentage illiterate
Macao (Port.)	1950	C	R	All ages	47
Pakistan	1951	C	...	All ages	86
Philippines	1948	C	RW	10 and over	39
Portuguese India	1940	C	RW	All ages	61
Ryukyu Islands (U.S.) [l]	1950	C	RW	10 and over	26
Singapore (U.K.) [l]	1947	C	RW	15 and over	54
Thailand	1947	C	R	10 and over	46
Turkey	1945	C	RW	10 and over	70
EUROPE					
Belgium	1930	C	RW	15 and over	6
Bulgaria	1934	C	RW	10 and over	31
Czechoslovakia	1930	C	RW	10 and over	5
Finland	1930	C	RW	15 and over	16
France	1946	C	RW	10 and over	3
Gibraltar (U.K.)	1951	C	RW [m]	5 and over	84
Greece	1946	E [n]	RW	8 and over	28
Hungary	1949	C	RW	7 and over	5
Italy	1931	C	R	10 and over	22
Malta and Gozo (U.K.)	1948	C	RW	10 and over	40
Poland	1931	C	...	10 and over	23
Portugal	1940	C	R	10 and over	52
Romania	1948	C	...	7 and over	23
Spain	1940	C	RW	10 and over	23
Sweden	1945	E [o]	RW	7 and over [p]	0
Trieste (Int. Adm.), Anglo-American Zone	1936	E	R	10 and over	5
Yugoslavia	1948	C	R	10 and over	25
OCEANIA					
American Samoa	1951	E	RW [m]	10 and over	2
British Solomon Islands	1947	E	...	...	95
Cook Islands (N.Z.)	1945	C	RW [q]	10 and over	4
Fiji (U.K.)	1946	C	RW	15 and over	36
Gilbert and Ellice Islands (U.K.)	1947	C	W	10 and over	10
Guam (U.S.)	1940	C	RW	10 and over	16
Hawaii (U.S.)	1930	C	RW	10 and over	15
Niue (N.Z.)	1945	C	RW	10 and over	13
Pacific Islands (U.S.)	1950	E	RW	...	25
USSR [r]	1939	C	...	9 and over	19

[a] R = ability to read; W = ability to write; RW = ability to read and write; (...) = information not available.
[b] Ability to read and write European characters.
[c] Ability to read and write English or the vernacular.
[d] Ability to read and write Portuguese.
[e] Excluding tribal Indians.
[f] Based on sample survey.
[g] Excluding "Amerindians" not individually enumerated.
[h] Excluding European population and all nomadic Punans reported as completely illiterate.
[i] Excluding European population.
[j] Read and write mother tongue.
[k] Based on sample tabulation for Jewish population only.
[l] Ryukyuan nationals only.
[m] Ability to read and write English.
[n] Based on sample population survey by the Second Allied Mission for the Observation of Greek Elections.
[o] Based on a sample taken at the 1945 census.
[p] Illiteracy estimated at less than 0.1 per cent, not including temporary illiterates among children at school.
[q] Ability to read and write the vernacular.
[r] Excluding Western Ukraine and Western Byelorussia.

ANNEX 2

SCHOOL-AGE POPULATION [2]

The school-age population of a country may be defined as the total population within the age limits of compulsory schooling as provided by the laws of the country. However, since compulsory education laws do not exist in many countries and, in those countries where they do exist, are often subject to local differences and various exceptions, it is not possible to compare internationally the size of the educational task by reference to the population within compulsory school age limits.

Alternatively, the school-age population may be considered as including all children within the usual ages of entering and completing the typical primary school according to the practice of each country. In view of the wide divergence among the school systems of different countries, this concept also renders difficult any international comparison.

A possible criterion for the comparison of the educational task in different countries might be to take an arbitrary age group, such as all children in the 5 to 14 years' age group. This constitutes a group for whom it is reasonable to expect that schooling will be planned in the educational development of a country, even though it may be a distant aim for many countries at the present time.

The following table gives the school-age population for 138 countries and Territories, which together account for approximately three-fifths of the total world population. The largest countries for which figures are lacking are China (except for Formosa) and the USSR. In addition, the following countries, each with a population of over 5 million, have been omitted from the table for lack of information: Afghanistan, Ethiopia, German Democratic Republic, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Nepal, Saudi Arabia, Sudan, Tanganyika, and Viet-Nam.

Where possible, two entries have been made for each country: one showing the compulsory school-age population or some other appropriate age group; the other showing the number of children in the 5 to 14 years' age group.

A rough estimation of the total school-age population in the world (5-14 years) may be given as follows (in millions):

Africa	43–46
America, North	39–41
America, South	27–29
Asia (exluding continental China and USSR)	170–185
Continental China	100–120
Europe (excluding USSR)	70–73
Oceania	2.4–2.6
USSR	42–50
WORLD TOTAL...	493–547

[2] Prepared by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization.

Estimated school-age population

Country	Year of census (C) or estimate (E)		Age group	Number of children (thousands)
Africa				
Algeria (Fr.):				
Europeans	1950	E	6-14	147
	1950	E	5-14	166
Moslems	1950	E	5-14	2,128
Angola (Port.)	1950	E	5-14	1,031
Basutoland (U.K.)	1951	E	6-18	186
Bechuanaland (U.K.)	1952	E	5-14	60
Belgian Congo:				
Native pop.	1951	E	...	2,100
Non-native pop.	1951	E	...	9
Cameroons (U.K.)	1951	E	6-11	261
Comoro Islands (Fr.)	1951	E	...	33
Egypt	1950	E	6-12	3,520
	1950	E	5-14	4,987
French Equatorial Africa	1951	E	...	861
French West Africa	1951	E	...	3,435
Gold Coast (U.K.)	1951	E	5-15	675
Kenya (U.K.)	1950	E	7-15	1,055
Libya	1952	E	...	172
Madagascar (Fr.)	1951	E	...	841
Mauritius (U.K.)	1951	E	5-12	84
	1950	E	5-14	108
Morocco (Fr.): Moroccan pop.	1950	E	5-14	2,072
Mozambique (Port.)	1950	E	5-14	1,292
Nigeria (U.K.)	1949	E	5-14	5,500
Northern Rhodesia (U.K.):				
African pop.	1949	E	...	330
Nyasaland (U.K.): Africans	1949	E	...	563
Portuguese Guinea	1950	E	5-14	120
Reunion (Fr.)	1951	E	6-14	49
Ruanda-Urundi (Belg.)	1950	E	...	1,100
St. Helena and dependencies (U.K.)	1950	E	5-14	1
São Tomé and Principe (Port.)	1950	E	5-14	9
Sierra Leone (U.K.)	1950	E	...	418

Estimated school-age population *(continued)*

Country	Year of census or estimate	(C) or (E)	Age group	Number of children (thousands)
Somaliland (Fr.)	1951	E	...	11
Southern Rhodesia (U.K.):				
European pop.	1951	C	7-15	20
	1951	E	5-14	24
South-West Africa (U. of S. Africa): European pop.	1950	E	5-14	8
Spanish Guinea	1952	E	...	30
Togoland (U.K.)	1950	E	5-14	84
Tunisia (Fr.): Moslems	1950	E	6-14	771
	1950	E	5-14	871
Uganda (U.K.)	1951	E	6-15	1,037
Union of South Africa:				
European pop.	1950	E	7-16	483
	1950	E	5-14	504
Non-European pop.	1950	E	5-14	2,553
Zanzibar and Pemba (U.K.)	1950	E	6-15	69
AMERICA, NORTH				
Alaska (U.S.)	1950	E	5-14	18
Bermuda (U.K.)	1951	C	7-13	5
British Honduras	1949	E	6-14	13
British West Indies:				
Barbados	1951	E	5-14	9
Jamaica and dependencies	1951	E	7-14	280
Leeward Islands	1951	E	5-13	29
Trinidad and Tobago	1949	E	5-15	143
Windward Islands	1946	C	6-15	67
Canada (excl. Yukon and N.W. Territories	1950	E	7-15	2,122
	1950	E	5-14	2,464
Costa Rica	1950	E	7-13	145
	1950	C	5-14	210
Cuba	1950	E	6-14	1,112
	1950	E	5-14	1,244
Dominican Republic	1950	E	7-14	483
El Salvador	1950	E	7-14	374
	1950	E	5-14	483
Greenland (Denmark)	1945	E	7-14	4
Guatemala	1950	E	6-14	695
	1950	E	5-14	782
Haiti	1950	E	7-12	480
Honduras	1950	E	7-15	326
Martinique (Fr.)	1952	E	6-12	63
Mexico	1950	E	6-14	6,052
	1950	E	5-14	6,838
Nicaragua	1950	E	7-14	219
	1950	E	5-14	280
Panama	1950	E	7-15	161
	1950	E	5-14	183
Panama Canal Zone (U.S.)	1950	C	5-14	8
Puerto Rico	1950	E	8-14	392
	1950	E	5-14	592
United States	1951	E	7-17	26,580
	1950	E	5-14	24,602
Virgin Islands (U.S.)	1950	C	5-14	7
AMERICA, SOUTH				
Argentina	1950	E	6-13	2,594
	1950	E	5-14	3,242
Bolivia	1946	E	7-14	633
Brazil	1950	E	7-12	8,413
	1950	E	5-14	14,021
British Guiana	1951	E	6-14	109
Chile	1950	E	7-15	1,276
	1950	E	5-14	1,435
Colombia	1952	E	7-12	1,440
Ecuador	1947	E	5-14	844
	1950	E	6-14	731
Falkland Islands (U.K.)	1946	C	5-14	[illegible]
French Guiana	1952	E	6-12	[illegible]
Peru	1950	E	5-17	2,[illegible]
	1950	E	5-14	2,1[illegible]
Uruguay	1950	E	6-14	[illegible]
	1950	E	5-14	[illegible]
Venezuela	1950	E	7-14	1,[illegible]
	1950	E	5-14	1,[illegible]
ASIA				
Aden Colony and Protectorate (U.K.)	1946	C	6-12	[illegible]
British Borneo:				
North Borneo	1951	C	5-14	[illegible]
Sarawak	1947	C	8-14	[illegible]
Burma	1950	E	6-11	2,[illegible]
	1950	E	5-14	4,[illegible]
Cambodia	1953	E	6-11	[illegible]
Ceylon	1950	E	6-12	1,[illegible]
	1950	E	5-14	1,[illegible]
China (Formosa only)	1950	E	6-12	1,[illegible]
	1950	C	5-14	1,[illegible]
Cyprus (U.K.)	1951	E	6-14	[illegible]
	1950	C	5-14	[illegible]
Federation of Malaya (U.K.)	1950	E	6-12	[illegible]
	1950	E	5-14	1,[illegible]
Hong Kong (U.K.)	1950	E	6-12	[illegible]
India	1950	E	6-11	54,[illegible]
	1950	E	5-14	86,[illegible]
Israel (Jewish population)	1951	E	5-14	[illegible]
Japan	1950	E	6-14	16,[illegible]
	1950	C	5-14	18,[illegible]
Jordan	1950	E	7-13	[illegible]
Korea	1952	E	6-12	3,[illegible]
Pakistan	1951	E	6-10	9,[illegible]
Philippines	1950	E	7-11	2,[illegible]
Qatar	1952	E	...	[illegible]
Ryukyu Islands (U.S.): Ryukyuans only	1950	C	5-14	[illegible]
Singapore (U.K.)	1951	E	6-18	[illegible]
Thailand	1950	E	7-14	3,[illegible]
	1950	E	5-14	4,[illegible]
Trucial Oman	1952	E	6-13	[illegible]
Turkey	1950	E	7-16	5,[illegible]
	1950	E	5-14	5,[illegible]
EUROPE				
Austria	1951	E	6-14	[illegible]
	1951	E	5-14	1,[illegible]
Belgium	1950	E	6-14	1,[illegible]
	1950	E	5-14	1,[illegible]
Bulgaria	1950	E	7-15	1,[illegible]
	1950	E	5-14	1,[illegible]
Czechoslovakia	1950	E	6-15	1,[illegible]
	1950	E	5-14	[illegible]
Denmark (excl. Faeroe Islands)	1951	E	7-13	[illegible]
	1951	E	5-14	[illegible]
Finland	1951	E	7-15	[illegible]
	1950	E	5-14	[illegible]
France	1951	E	6-13	5,[illegible]
	1950	E	5-14	8,[illegible]
German Federal Republic	1950	C	6-15	7,[illegible]
	1950	C	5-14	[illegible]
Gibraltar (U.K.)	1951	C	5-14	1,[illegible]
Greece	1950	E	7-13	1,[illegible]
	1950	E	5-14	1,[illegible]
Hungary	1950	E	6-14	1,[illegible]
	1950	E	5-14	[illegible]

Estimated school-age population *(concluded)*

Country	Year of census (C) or estimate (E)		Age group	Number of children (thousands)
Ireland	1950	E	7–15	22
	1950	E	5–14	26
Ireland	1950	E	6–13	427
	1950	E	5–14	555
Italy	1950	E	6–14	7,190
	1950	E	5–14	7,910
Liechtenstein	1950	E	6–14	2
Luxembourg	1947	C	6–13	31
	1950	E	5–14	38
Malta and Gozo (U.K.)	1948	C	5–14	59
Monaco	1951	C	5–14	2
Netherlands	1951	E	6–13	1,421
	1951	E	5–14	1,827
Norway	1948	E	7–13	292
	1950	E	5–14	481
Poland	1948	E	7–17	5,061
Portugal	1950	C	7–11	768
	1950	E	5–14	1,599
Romania	1950	E	7–14	2,608
Saar	1950	E	5–14	149
Spain	1949	E	6–12	4,338
	1950	E	5–14	4,724
Sweden	1950	E	7–14	777
	1950	E	5–14	1,016
Switzerland	1950	E	6–15	650
	1951	E	5–14	691
United Kingdom	1951	E	5–14	7,052
England and Wales	1950	E	5–14	5,861
Northern Ireland	1950	E	5–14	245
Scotland	1950	E	5–14	808
Yugoslavia	1948	C	7–13	2,446
	1951	E	5–14	3,147
OCEANIA				
American Samoa	1950	C	5–14	5
Australia	1950	E	6–15	1,251
	1951	E	5–14	1,351
Cook Islands (N.Z.)	1952	E	5–15	4
	1951	C	5–14	4
Fiji (U.K.)	1950	E	6–14	57
	1951	E	5–14	75
Gilbert and Ellice Is. (U.K.)	1951	E	6–16	8
	1947	C	5–14	8
Guam (U.S.)	1950	C	5–14	9
Hawaii (U.S.)	1950	E	5–14	94
New Guinea (Aust.)	1952	E	6–14	325
New Zealand:				
Excl. Maoris	1951	E	7–14	259
Incl. Maoris	1951	C	5–14	336
Pacific Islands (U.S.)	1952	E	5–14	10
Tokelau (N.Z.)	1951	C	5–14	0.4
Western Samoa (N.Z.)	1951	C	5–14	23