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EDUCATION IN THE NON-SELF-GOVERNING TERRITORIES

Report prepared by the United Nations Educational,
Scientific and Cultural Organization

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NOTE: The following symbols are used:

Three dots (...)	data not available
Dash (-)	magnitude nil or negligible
Slash 1948/1949	crop or financial year
Hyphen 1948-1949	annual average

EDUCATION IN THE NON-SELF-GOVERNING TERRITORIES

INTRODUCTION

1. Special reports on education in the Non-Self-Governing Territories have been prepared in 1950, 1953 and 1956. Resolution 743 (VIII), adopted by the General Assembly of the United Nations enumerates the objectives of education in Non-Self-Governing Territories as being:

"(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."

2. The present survey is an attempt to continue the cycle of special reports, while focussing attention on the progress made since 1946 towards the goals set by the General Assembly. The first section deals with educational policy, and includes a summary view of the expansion of educational facilities as a whole. Succeeding sections take up in some detail the financing of education and the several levels and types of schooling. Each section ends with a concluding note and the extensive tables on which the statistical analysis is based.

3. Since the main purpose is to show trends since 1946, available information from official sources has been presented from this point of view, rather than as a description of the status of education in the Territories. Two main methods are used: grouping the data for the Territories which permit of a comparison between 1946 and 1956; and selecting illustrative examples when topics (such as the curriculum) cannot be treated quantitatively.

I. EDUCATIONAL POLICY.

4. The policies and administrative practices of territorial Governments and of the Administering Members responsible for them have been directed in the main towards the development of educational services at all levels, with general emphasis on the growth of a primary system towards free and compulsory universal education, higher education, and vocational education; the promotion of measures to develop education for women and girls; and the eradication of adult illiteracy.

5. The goals have been stated by Administering Members with increasing clarity during the past decade, and it may be seen that they correspond closely to the broad objectives enumerated by the General Assembly of the United Nations. During the same period an increased participation of the indigenous population in all matters affecting education and trends towards more equal treatment in matters relating to education among the inhabitants of the Territories, whether indigenous or not, are to be noted. The following aspects of policy will be reviewed: the planned expansion of school systems; participation of local inhabitants; equality of treatment.

A. Planned expansion of school systems

6. A striking feature of the period has been the extensive use of planning by the Administering Members and the territorial authorities. As a rule, education services have been planned as part of wider programmes for economic and social development, stimulated by the provision of funds from the metropolitan countries. But even though placed in this wider framework, education has received a great deal of attention. Between 1945 and 1949 a number of important surveys of educational needs and problems appeared, and the educational authorities of most Territories set out the steps by which they expected to expand the school system. Two examples may be cited.

7. The Asquith Commission on Higher Education in the Colonies presented its recommendations for the United Kingdom territories in the Report of the Commission on Higher Education in the Colonies.^{1/} The relevance of this report in the preparations for self-government may be illustrated by two quotations:

^{1/} Cmd. 6647, London, H.M.S.O., 1945.

"Moreover, universities serve the double purpose of refining and maintaining all that is best in local traditions and cultures and at the same time of providing a means whereby those brought up under the influence of these traditions and cultures may enter on a footing of equality into the world-wide community of the intellect. In short we look on the universities as an inescapable corollary of any policy which aims at the achievement of Colonial self-government ... In the stage preparatory to self-government universities have an important part to play, indeed they may be said to be indispensable."

8. The Commission recommended the creation in the United Kingdom of an Inter-University Council for Higher Education in the Colonies to ensure the active interest and co-operation of United Kingdom universities. This was duly set up and reported in 1948^{2/} that its objective was "to create residential universities ... out of existing institutions where such exist, as in Malaya and East Africa, or as entirely new foundations where no suitable institutions are already in being, as in the West Indies."

9. The Ten-Year Development Plan for the Belgian Congo^{3/} published in 1949 covers demographic, social, agricultural and industrial development. The plans for educational development called for an expenditure of 7.3 per cent of investment funds, as distinct from recurring costs, a total of 1.800 million Belgian francs. The chapter devoted to education reviews the needs in primary, secondary, technical and vocational education, taking account of the special needs of boys and girls and the efforts made by private education in the Territory. Some idea of the expansion planned is shown by the following objectives for primary schooling:

2/ United Kingdom: Inter-University Council for Higher Education in the Colonies. Report 1946-47, Cmd.7331, London, H.M.S.O., 1948.

3/ Belgium: Plan Décennal pour le développement économique et social du Congo Belge, Brussels, 1949.

	No. of existing schools	No. of schools to be created in the period	Number of pupils graduating in the course of			Total investment costs	Total recurring costs in decade (million Belgian francs)
			the first year of the decade	the entire decade	last year of decade		
Lower primary	8,000	3,600	150	1,900	225	61	720
Upper primary	950	450	22.5	300	34	200	563

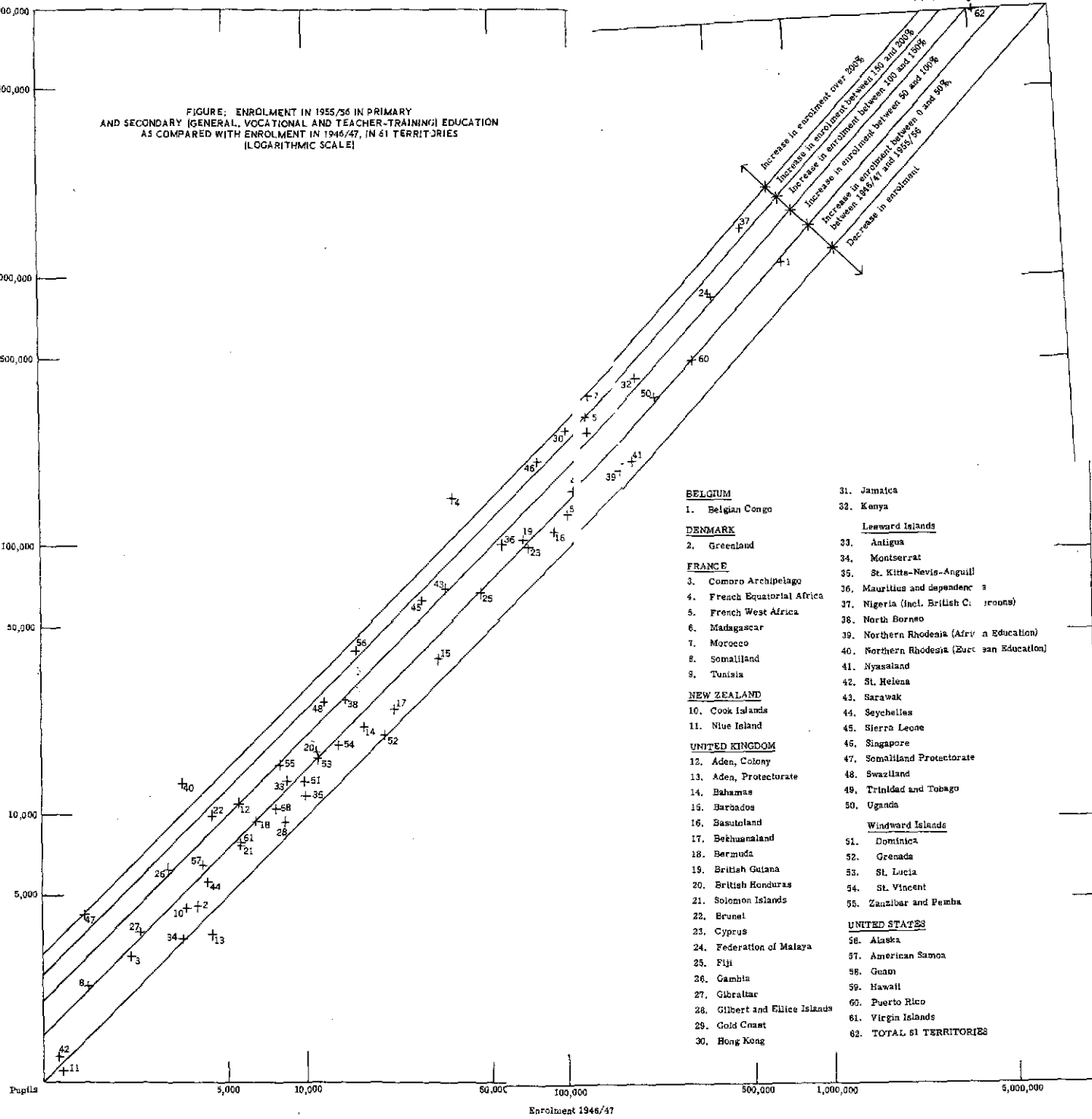
10. Since 1950 the number of surveys has increased. Some cover all aspects of educational policy; others stem from the efforts of the authorities in individual Territories to evaluate progress and, frequently, to re-formulate the development plans set up several years before.

11. Of the former type, mention may be made of the survey of education in French overseas Territories,^{4/} carried out in 1954, which reviewed educational policy and the general needs and trends in the individual Territories on primary, secondary, vocational and higher education as well as in teacher training, scholarships for study abroad, fundamental education and the special rôle of private education in the Territories. For the United Kingdom Territories in East and West Africa a comprehensive survey led in 1952 to the Cambridge Conference and the publication of the report on African education.^{5/}

12. Within the Territories, plans of educational development seem to have created a need for periodic reviews as well as for deeper studies of specific aspects of the school system. Examples may be taken from the Gold Coast and Morocco. The accelerated development plan of the Gold Coast, which began in 1952, represents a restatement of the objectives of the previous plan (1947-1956) in the light of experience and of rapid political progress.^{6/} In Morocco, the

^{4/} France: Ministère de la France d'outre-mer, L'enseignement dans les territoires d'Outre-Mer et territoires associés

FIGURE: ENROLMENT IN 1955/56 IN PRIMARY AND SECONDARY (GENERAL, VOCATIONAL AND TEACHER-TRAINING) EDUCATION AS COMPARED WITH ENROLMENT IN 1946/47, IN 61 TERRITORIES (LOGARITHMIC SCALE)



- BELGIUM**
- 1. Belgian Congo
- DENMARK**
- 2. Greenland
- FRANCE**
- 3. Comoro Archipelago
- 4. French Equatorial Africa
- 5. French West Africa
- 6. Madagascar
- 7. Morocco
- 8. Somaliland
- 9. Tunisia
- NEW ZEALAND**
- 10. Cook Islands
- 11. Niue Island
- UNITED KINGDOM**
- 12. Aden, Colony
- 13. Aden, Protectorate
- 14. Bahamas
- 15. Barbados
- 16. Basutoland
- 17. Bechuanaland
- 18. Bermuda
- 19. British Guiana
- 20. British Honduras
- 21. Solomon Islands
- 22. Brunei
- 23. Cyprus
- 24. Federation of Malaya
- 25. Fiji
- 26. Gambia
- 27. Gibraltar
- 28. Gilbert and Ellice Islands
- 29. Gold Coast
- 30. Hong Kong
- 31. Jamaica
- 32. Kenya
- Leeward Islands**
- 33. Antigua
- 34. Montserrat
- 35. St. Kitts-Nevis-Anguilla
- 36. Mauritius and dependencies
- 37. Nigeria (incl. British Cameroons)
- 38. North Borneo
- 39. Northern Rhodesia (African Education)
- 40. Northern Rhodesia (European Education)
- 41. Nyasaland
- 42. St. Helena
- 43. Sarawak
- 44. Seychelles
- 45. Sierra Leone
- 46. Singapore
- 47. Somaliland Protectorate
- 48. Swaziland
- 49. Trinidad and Tobago
- 50. Uganda
- Windward Islands**
- 51. Dominica
- 52. Grenada
- 53. St. Lucia
- 54. St. Vincent
- 55. Zanzibar and Pemba
- UNITED STATES**
- 56. Alaska
- 57. American Samoa
- 58. Guam
- 59. Hawaii
- 60. Puerto Rico
- 61. Virgin Islands
- 62. TOTAL 61 TERRITORIES

B. Participation of the inhabitants in educational policies and programmes

16. Here there is obviously a wide range of practice, based in part upon the degree of development of the indigenous people, ranging from those Territories which became fully self-governing in the period, to that found among the less developed peoples of French Somaliland or Papua under Australian administration.

17. Measures which lead to increased participation of the territorial peoples in the control of education may be typified at different levels by: constitutional reform; ministerial responsibility; creation of central councils or advisory bodies; devolution of centralized control; appointment to executive posts; participation in metropolitan conferences; and role of teachers' and parent-teachers' organizations. These are discussed in turn.

18. One such type of reform provides self-government. Another type of constitutional reform is one permitting greater local participation in educational policy making. The latter is to be found in those Territories where an elected representative has assumed ministerial responsibility, under whom the director of education, an officer of the Administering Power, becomes the executive officer. Such developments have occurred in West Africa, Asia and the Caribbean where a full Minister of Education and Social Welfare was established following the introduction of the constitution of 1 January 1951. Nigeria became a Federation by the Constitution of October 1954, each of the three regions having an Executive Council and an elected House of Assembly. Under this Constitution education is a responsibility of the regional Governments each of whom has a Minister of Education assisted by an advisory board and a Department of Education under a director. In Jamaica and Trinidad again a Minister of Education is responsible for educational policy, subject to the approval of the Governor in Executive Council, with the execution of policy in the hands of a director and the Department of Education.

19. Apart from constitutional reforms, action has been taken in a number of Territories to institute central councils at the federal or regional level to determine or advise in the determination of educational policy. Four examples may be quoted. In French Equatorial Africa a Grand Council, an elected assembly with twenty members with deliberative and consultative powers and competence, was set up at the federal level. In Alaska the territorial system of education was administered by a Territorial Board of Education, composed of five lay members,

one for each of the judicial divisions and one at large. With local school boards it determined all policy concerning education in Alaska public territorial schools. In the United States Virgin Island the municipality of St. Croix and the municipality of St. Thomas and St. John have school boards of five members appointed by the Governor, with largely advisory functions and authority to adopt curricula, prescribe regulations and recommend appropriations for educational purposes. In Hong Kong the Board of Education, an advisory body established in 1920, was in 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.

20. A further trend in the development of local control over education is to be found in the devolution of administrative authority from centralized control. Such a trend may be noted, for example, in the United Kingdom Territories in Africa. In Uganda local education authorities co-ordinate with African local governments the work of local voluntary agencies in their districts, plan future developments and allocate funds raised locally or provided by the central Government. The policy is to devolve to the local education authorities full responsibility for primary education. Similarly, in Sarawak local education authorities have been in existence since 1948, with authority to disburse central Government funds. Some authorities have devolved a stage further to village committees their responsibilities for school buildings and furniture, and the policy is to transfer more and more responsibility for the provision of primary education from the central Government to the local and municipal authorities.

21. Another form of increased local responsibility for educational control has been the appointment of indigenous people to executive posts in the territorial administration. An example may be quoted from American Samoa where in 1955 the indigenous personnel of the administrative staff of the Education Department included three Samoans holding the positions of Superintendent of Buildings and Personnel, Chief Supervisor and Samoan Consultant. In addition eight Samoan supervisors were responsible for the general instruction in the schools.

22. A further feature of the period has been the increased possibility given to territorial inhabitants to influence educational policies and programmes by participation in metropolitan or regional conferences either as representatives or specialists. One example is the United Kingdom's Colonial Office Summer Conferences on African Administration held annually at Kings' College, Cambridge, which have discussed such topics as African local government (1947), encouragement of initiative in African society (1948) and industrial development and town growth (1954). At these conferences, African communities have been represented by ministers, members of legislative bodies and non-official leaders. The conferences called by the Caribbean and South Pacific Commissions, have since the outset been based on the practice of including representatives of local inhabitants on the territorial delegations.^{8/} A further example is provided by the Department of Education of the Ministry of Overseas France which calls annual conferences of the heads of overseas education services. These conferences, it is claimed, constitute a superior education council which takes into account the interests of the indigenous populations.

23. Parent-teacher associations such as those found in Madagascar are another form of local participation in educational practice. These are attached to schools at the primary and secondary level and the Department of Education keeps in close touch with them.

24. In a similar fashion teachers' organizations or associations may, by their own activity or through representatives on educational authorities, play a role in the shaping of educational policy and practice. An example may be taken from Jamaica whose Union of Teachers was founded in 1894. Its objectives are stated to be the creation of local associations of primary school teachers and to concentrate their interests and influence by affiliation with the central body: to obtain the benefit of the collective experience of teachers on practical educational questions and to promote improved legislation on the subject of popular education. There were fifty-two associations and ten federations of

^{8/} See Report of the West Indian Conference held in Barbados 21-30 March 1944, p.1 and Report of the Secretary-General of the South Pacific Commission on the First South Pacific Commission, 1950, p. 4.

teachers affiliated with the Union in 1952, which itself is affiliated with the Caribbean Union of Teachers and the National Union of Teachers of Great Britain. Five of the twenty-four members of the Education Authority of the Territory were nominated by the associations.

25. In Territories such as the Belgian Congo, Solomon Islands and Netherlands New Guinea, where primary education is largely conducted by mission bodies, control by the indigenous population, apart from their representation on subsidy voting bodies or advisory councils, is exercised principally through the councils of the missions. These latter in turn have an advisory role when the Government determines educational policies and programmes.

26. A territorial example of indigenous participation. To complete this review of the forms of participation of indigenous inhabitants in the shaping of educational policy and practice during the period, the position in one Territory, Uganda, in the years 1956-1957, is examined below as an illustration of how these may be developed at various levels.

27. As in other United Kingdom Territories, education in Uganda is mainly organized through voluntary bodies with the Government giving financial assistance and, since the creation of an Education Department in 1925, general direction and supervision. The Minister of Social Services (Education, Medical, Labour and African Housing Departments) has an African Assistant Minister with the same status as himself. A Central Advisory Council for African Education has existed since 1924. There is also an Advisory Council for Asian Education and an Advisory Council for Goan Education. An Advisory Council on Technical Education and Training was set up in 1952 and an Advisory Council for Adult Education in 1957.

28. Local education authorities were set up in 1942 to replace the old district boards of education. In the same year the Advisory Council for African Education was reconstituted to include women representatives and African members from all provinces. The 1952 de Bunsen Committee recommended inter alia that full responsibility for primary education should be devolved to the local education authorities. By 1956 such responsibility had been transferred in most areas and departmental staff seconded to their service.

29. During 1955-1956 encouragement was given to the establishment of boards of governors and management committees for schools at all levels, though in practice primary schools tended to be grouped together to form such boards or committees.

30. Through their education committees the local education authorities, besides playing a dominant role in co-ordinating the work of voluntary agencies in their districts and disbursing local and central funds, assist in the drawing up of annual territorial budgets and longer term development plans.

31. Parents associations exist in many areas and a teachers' association is active in matters affecting the status and conditions of service of teachers.

32. Local education authorities have played a part, along with central authorities, in territorial educational planning and in providing representatives for metropolitan conferences and meetings.

C. Equal treatment in matters relating to education

33. The present survey examines two aspects of the problem of equal treatment: by racial, religious and cultural groups, and by sex. The information is treated by example with analysis which attempts to bring out both the difficulties involved and the solutions applied to achieve equality of opportunity.

34. To some extent, statistics are available from Territories with plural populations, summarizing the number of schools and pupils in the various population groups and, wherever possible and relevant, 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 73e full data on the costs and methods of financing the separate groups of educational institutions. In some cases this 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.

35. The review which follows examines examples of Territories which have maintained separate systems for different ethnic or social groups; notes some examples of progress towards unitary schools systems; also notes the progress

made in the education of girls and attempts some tentative conclusions.

Territories with separate systems have on the whole made progress in providing equality of opportunity for all inhabitants.

36. The practical problems involved in the application of the principle of equality of treatment vary in both degree and kind among Territories. In Territories with several ethnic groups, authorities may be faced with a shortage of trained teachers, with problems of geography or with social and cultural traditions to be overcome. An example of the difficulties which may be faced in one Territory may be illustrated by the position in Fiji.

37. The total estimated population by racial groups in Fiji in 1954 was estimated^{9/} to be as follows:

<u>Indigenous</u>	Fijians	143,100
<u>Non-Indigenous</u>	Indians	160,303
	Europeans	8,460
	Part-European	7,748
	Chinese	3,985
	Other	9,793
	Total:	<u>333,389</u>

38. This population is distributed over 100 islands, spread over 10,000 square miles of the Pacific Ocean. The Fijian population is spread over the whole area; the Indian population is found mainly in the few towns and the sugar belts of the two largest islands; the European community is found mainly in Suva, the capital, with isolated families or groups throughout the archipelago.

39. The school system comprises Fijian schools, Indian schools, European schools and multi-racial schools. The great majority of these are co-educational. The medium of instruction for the first four years in Fijian schools is Fijian (Bau dialect) and in Indian schools, Hindustani, or Tamil, Telugu or Gujarati. Arabic scripts are taught in a few Moslem schools. English is taught from the beginning and generally becomes the language of instruction from the fifth year. The distribution of schools at the different levels for these communities in 1954 is shown in the following summary table.

^{9/} United Nations: Non-Self-Governing Territories, 1955 (United Nations Sales No. 1957 VI.B.1).

Schools in Fiji, 1954

	Fijian		Indian		European		Mixed or other		Total
	Govt.	Private	Govt.	Private	Govt.	Private	Govt.	Private	
Primary	6	281	9	131	-	15	1	13	456
Secondary	5	5	2	5	4	1	4	3	29

40. The corresponding enrolments for 1954 by race, sex and level for government and private schools were:

School enrolments in Fiji by type, 1954

	Primary		Secondary	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
<u>Fijian</u>				
Government		695	185	23
Private	13,617	12,557	216	26
<u>Indian</u>				
Government		1,785	100	17
Private	13,080	9,374	549	161
<u>European</u>				
Government		508	91	123
Private		669	-	42
<u>Mixed or Other Schools</u>				
Government		42	(88) ^{a/}	(87) ^{a/}
Private	2,453	1,396	310	89
Totals:	<u>32,849</u>	<u>25,979</u>	<u>1,451</u>	<u>481</u>

a/ Post-secondary.

41. The total expenditure from territorial funds on education in 1954 amounted to £580,805. On the basis of the enrolment figures, and allowing for Chinese pupils in Indian schools and pupils in schools for more than one race, the amount spent from territorial funds by race and per pupil on education may be calculated for the years 1950 and 1954 as follows:

/...

School expenditure in Fiji, by race

	<u>Total Expenditure</u>		<u>Expenditure per pupil</u>	
	1950	1954	1950	1954
	£	£	£	£
Fijian	153,842	275,121	5.14.10	9.4.1
Indian	97,770	232,608	4. 6. 3	8.5.2
European	34,873	73,076	15.19. 6	17.16.7

42. It will be seen from the above figures that in 1954 the number of schools and the enrolment in the different school systems, corresponds proportionately to the racial composition of the population.

43. Some examples of progress made between 1946 and 1956 in the provision of equal opportunities in plural societies with separate school systems may be given from selected Territories.

44. Kenya. In Kenya separate schools are maintained for Europeans, Africans, Asians and Arabs. Education is compulsory for all European children between the ages of seven and fifteen and, in the three main towns, for Asian boys of the same age.

45. A Ministry of Education, Labour and Lands was established in 1954. In the formulation of policy the Minister has the help of African, Arab, Asian, European, and Goan Advisory Councils on Education, composed of government officials and members of the respective communities. There are also Advisory Councils on Higher Education, and on Technical Education and Vocational Training.

46. An Education Department, under the Minister, is administered by a director of education, who is assisted by a deputy and five assistant directors for African, Asian, European, technical, and girls' education respectively. Regional education boards, with African representation, advise the director on the organization and financing of secondary education and teacher training, while district education boards, on which the African district councils and the school managers are represented, advise on primary and intermediate education.

47. The majority of African schools at the primary and intermediate level are under mission management, the full cost of approved schools being met from public funds. Missions and the Government participate equally in secondary education, the full cost being met by the Government. Most of the Asian schools are maintained by religious communities; these are eligible for grants-in-aid towards approved capital expenditure, while recurrent grants are designed to meet the difference between the cost of the school and their fee revenue.

In European education, there are private schools, some of which are grant-aided.

48. Fees, for which remission is granted to all races in cases of financial hardship, are paid in all government schools as follows:^{10/}

Fees in Kenya schools, 1956
 (shillings per annum)

<u>Type of school</u>	<u>Tuition fee</u>	<u>Boarding fee</u>
European:		
Primary	100	600
Secondary	220	600
Asian:		
Primary	33	-
Secondary	87	-
Training Colleges	100	140
Arab:		
Primary	2-12	-
Secondary	18	100
African:		
Primary	20	-
Intermediate	45	145
Secondary	-	250

49. European, Asian and Arab education is based on a seven-year primary course plus a four-year secondary course. African education below the secondary level is organized into a four-year primary course followed by a four-year intermediate

^{10/} Kenya: Education Department, Annual Summary, 1956, Nairobi, 1957.

course. Most African primary schools are co-educational and teaching at this level is in the vernacular. English is introduced as a subject usually during the third year and becomes the language of instruction in the intermediate school; the Kenya African Preliminary Examination taken at the end of this course is written in English. Although it is the policy of the Government to combine the present primary and intermediate courses into an eight-year primary course which will eventually be available for all African children, limitations of finance, buildings and staff in 1956 made it impossible to provide intermediate education for more than 24 per cent of those who completed the primary school course.^{11/}

50. The following table summarizes the progress made in the different school systems by number of schools, teaching staff and enrolment between 1946 and 1956.

Kenya: Growth of schooling by ethnic group

Level of education and type of institution by race	Number of Institutions		Teaching Staff		Students enrolled	
	1946	1956	1946	1956	1946	1956
<u>Primary</u>						
European:						
Government	8	15	123 ^{a/}	196	1,534	4,686
Private <u>b/</u>	13	31	91	95	905	2,514
Asian:						
Government	9	25	228 ^{a/}	502	8,087	16,635
Private <u>b/</u>	60	94	307	616	8,871	17,937
Arab:						
Government	6	8	36 ^{a/}	93	819	2,125
Private <u>b/</u>	1	1	5	3	95	167
African:						
Government	67	19	232 ^{a/}	72	8,063	1,762
Private <u>b/</u>	2,192	3,487	4,762	9,476	200,122	441,111
<u>Secondary</u>						
European						
Government	2	5	...	122	614	1,842
Private <u>b/</u>	5	8	...	89	158	717
Asian:						
Government	5	10	...	227	545	3,833
Private <u>b/</u>	7	10	...	81	264	1,737

^{11/} Ibid., p. 13.

Kenya: (continued)

Level of education and type of institution by race	Number of Institutions		Teaching Staff		Students enrolled	
	1946	1956	1946	1956	1946	1956
<u>Secondary (continued)</u>						
Arab:						
Government	1	1	...	10	24	129
Private <u>b/</u>	-	-	...	-	-	12
African:						
Government	1	9	...	89	31	1,196
Private <u>b/</u>	4	12	...	82	364	1,390

a/ Including teaching staff of secondary and teacher training education.

b/ Includes both aided and unaided schools.

51. In 1956 the percentage of girls in primary schools of all types was: Europeans, 48.3 per cent; Asians, 47.0 per cent; Arabs, 25.0 per cent; Africans, 26.2 per cent. In secondary schools the corresponding percentages were: Europeans, 50.4 per cent; Asians, 34.0 per cent; Arabs, 7.1 per cent; and Africans, 8.7 per cent.

52. For African education the number of teacher training establishments increased from 27 to 52 between 1946 and 1956 and the corresponding enrolments at these establishments from 738 to 2,931 (of whom 856 were female students). The number of Asian establishments increased from one to three in the same period and the enrolment at these from eleven to 190 (of whom 114 were female students).

53. A comparison of expenditure on education for the two years 1946 and 1956 on the different school systems is as follows:

/...

Kenya: Educational expenditure by ethnic group
 (pounds sterling)

Group	1946		1956	
	Total		Total	of which non-recurrent
	470,401 ^{a/}		4,364,167 ^{b/}	(378,611)
European education	158,086	European education	848,203	(2,401)
Asian education	97,276	Asian	808,181	(2,432)
Arab Education	9,017	Arab education	55,514	(453)
African education	148,843	African education	2,652,269	(373,325)
(Administrative and general)	31,601		...	
(Colonial Development and Welfare Vote)	5,578		...	

a/ Expenditure by Education Department only. Total expenditure of the Department of Education for 1946: £486,464; expenditure of local authorities: £84,000; expenditure of voluntary agencies: £227,000.

b/ Includes expenditure by central government: £3,782,978; expenditure by local authorities: £492,399; expenditure by voluntary agencies: £88,790.

54. Higher education in Kenya is provided at Makerere College in Uganda (which since November 1949 has been a College of the University of London), the Royal Technical College of East Africa (which admitted its first students in April 1956) and by study overseas. In July 1956, fifty-four Kenya students were admitted to Makerere College (four Asians, two Arabs, and the remainder Africans). Total enrolment of Kenya students at the College was 222 in 1956. The total enrolment at the Royal Technical College of East Africa in 1956 was 210 of whom 136 were Kenya students.^{12/}

55. Of the total of 1,195 students studying overseas in 1956, 219 were Europeans, 802 Asians, 11 were Arabs and 163 Africans. The Government has a system of bursaries to assist students of all races to meet the costs of higher education overseas. In 1956 the following students held such bursaries: Europeans 47 (cost £3,950); Asians 45 (cost £4,153); Goans 13 (cost £909); Arabs 7 (cost £2,543); Africans 17 (cost £5,426).

^{12/} Ibid., pages 20-1.

56. Morocco. The mid-year estimate of the population in 1954 showed a total of 8,340,000 inhabitants distributed as follows:^{13/} Moroccan Moslems 7.7 million; Moroccan Jews 200,000; non-Moroccan Europeans 440,000.

57. At the beginning of the period education was provided in three different types of school: European, Moslem and Jewish. Between 1950 and 1954, however, as a result of social evolution the school populations overlapped and there was a tendency to fusion, the system in 1954 being reported^{14/} to consist of Franco-Moroccan primary and secondary schools open to all children, fully Moslem primary and secondary schools and primary schools for Jewish children. The delegate of the Grand Vizir supervised the teaching of Arabic and of the Koran in all purely Moroccan modern schools, traditional Moslem education being under the personal supervision of the Sultan. A Director of Education in Rabat had overall responsibility for educational matters assisted by the delegates of the Grand Vizir and Moroccan representatives in the Conseil du Gouvernement. A Higher Council for Technical Education was established in 1954. Public higher and technical education retained a unitary character throughout the period without divisions as to religious or ethnic origin.

58. A comparison of public expenditure on education by source of funds and object of expenditure for the years 1952 and 1956 is as follows:

Public expenditure on education in Morocco

(French francs)

	1952		1956	
	General budget	Investment fund	General budget	Investment fund
<u>Franco-Moroccan education</u>				
Primary	1,431,000	500,000	2,490,000	441,000
Secondary	1,457,000	125,000	2,280,000	83,000
<u>Moroccan education</u>				
Moslem	3,045,000	1,500,000	8,075,000	...
Jewish	338,000	80,000	636,000	

^{13/} United Nations: Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories. Report of the Secretary-General. A/3115. 18 April 1956. p.3.

^{14/} Ibid., page 45.

59. Enrolment of Moroccan pupils in public primary schools increased between 1946 and 1955 by 245 per cent, while for European pupils the increase was of the order of 95 per cent. The increase in public secondary school enrolment of Moroccan pupils was 370 per cent and that of Europeans 64 per cent. In the years 1952-1956 public expenditure from the general budget on Moroccan education increased by 157 per cent and that on Franco-Moroccan education by 64 per cent.

60. Tunisia. Until the end of the Protectorate status in 1956, Tunisia also maintained separate school systems. Primary education was organized into three types of schools: the French school, intended more particularly for non-Moslems with instruction until 1950 exclusively in French, but from 1951 with spoken Arabic included as a subject of the curriculum; the Franco-Arabic school, where both French and Arabic were taught with a view to bringing French and Arabic curricula into balance; and the private modern Koran school which, from 1953, became subject to the same system of supervision and diplomas required of teaching staff as the Franco-Arabic schools.

61. Secondary education was made up of three sections: the "classical" and the "modern" as in France, and the "Tunisian" which stressed Arabic and local culture and interests and issued a local diploma at the end of this bilingual and bicultural course.

62. The main advisory body was an Education Council, composed of representatives of the population, three being Tunisian and three French. Other councils and committees with popular representation, such as the boards of trustees of colleges and lycées and the patronage committees of industrial and modern Koran schools, took part in the administration of schools. The structure of the school system does not make it possible to distinguish expenditure on indigenous and non-indigenous education for comparative purposes.

63. Malaya. The Federation of Malaya maintained four different types of schools (English, Malay, Chinese and Indian) during the period under review. However, as a result of committee reports issued in 1951 and 1952, the Education Ordinance of December 1952 visualized the transformation of the existing schools into national schools and the establishment of national schools where no schools existed. In these national schools the main medium of instruction would be

either English or Malay (with the other as a subject) but would provide facilities for instruction in Kuo-Yu (Chinese) and Tamil where parents or guardians in sufficient numbers requested it.

64. Financial stringency and shortage of teachers prevented the rapid implementation of this plan. The first school to be planned and built as a national school was opened near Kuala Lumpur in October 1954.

65. Whereas the vernacular Malay, Chinese and Tamil schools provided for one community only, the English schools with a few exceptions offered facilities for primary and secondary education of the children of all communities of the Federation.

66. An Education Committee appointed in September 1955 was given inter alia the following terms of reference:

"To examine the present education policy of the Federation and to recommend any alterations or adaptations that are necessary with a view to establishing a national system of education acceptable to the people of the Federation as a whole which will satisfy their needs and promote their cultural, social, economic and political development as a nation, having regard to the intention to make Malay the national language of the country while preserving and sustaining the growth of the language and culture of other communities in the country." 15/

67. For primary schools the 1956 Committee recommended that a variety be permitted, falling into two broad types: "(a) Standard Primary Schools in which the medium of instruction shall be the Malayan national language; (b) Standard-type Primary schools in which the main medium of instruction may be Kuo-Yu or Tamil or English".^{16/} The Committee recognized, however, that until fully trained teachers were available to staff these schools it would be necessary to maintain non-standard schools with less qualified teachers.

68. Similarly for secondary schools the Committee recommended evolution towards a national secondary school open to pupils from all types of primary schools using the language medium of the parents' choice in entrance competitions. In these secondary schools more than one language could be used as the medium of instruction, depending on local circumstances, but Malay and English would remain compulsory subjects in all.

15/ Federation of Malaya: Report of the Education Committee 1956, Kuala Lumpur, 1956, p. 1.

16/ Ibid., p. 9.

69. In 1951 Kirkby College in England was taken over for the training of Malayan teachers. An intake of 150 students each year continued, the first graduates returning to Malaya in 1953. Students at this College were trained for service in national or English type schools.

70. Madagascar. A reform of the education system was carried out in Madagascar between 1952 and 1956. The object of this reform was to bring education of all types up to the level of metropolitan education. The former European and local types of school were reorganized so as to unify the public education system. The two forms of primary school which remain are differentiated only by the language of instruction used in the initial classes - French in the "metropolitan" schools, Malagasy in the "Madagascan" schools. In the latter, a transition is made to French, so that by the time the primary course is completed, pupils from either form of school enter secondary schools on equal footing. Primary schools of the metropolitan form were opened to all children with sufficient knowledge of the French language to profit from instruction in that language. The teaching of Malagasy in this type of school is optional.

71. This new programme made necessary a reform of teacher training with provision of normal training schools instead of post-primary training classes. In addition, a metropolitan type teacher-training section was opened at the Antananarivo lycée leading to the baccalauréat and the teaching diploma. In-service training or refresher courses were organized and some Malagasy-speaking teachers sent each year for training in metropolitan normal schools.

72. French Equatorial Africa. A reorganization of the education system has also been in progress in French Equatorial Africa designed to give equality of educational treatment to all inhabitants of the Territory. This reform provides for the standardization of primary education, the improved training of teachers, the organization of secondary schools on the model of secondary education in France, and the reorganization of vocational training to meet local needs. All establishments are open to the European and indigenous populations, whether urban or rural, on the same terms, no distinctions being made as to religion or race. Where numbers permit special schools are, however, opened for girls, it being held that this avoids disturbing the balance of the African family. The enrolment of girls has lagged behind that of boys, particularly in the northern Territories.

In 1954-1955, for example, of a total primary enrolment of 133,578, 25,215 were girls; of a total secondary school enrolment of 2,957, 433 were girls.

73. Belgian Congo. Separate school systems for European and indigenous pupils were maintained in the Belgian Congo, the indigenous schools being separately organized for boys and for girls. The Administration considers^{17/} that it is in the interests of the indigenous inhabitants to have their own educational system adapted to their way of life, needs and language. French is used as the first language and as the language of instruction in intermediate and general schools and secondary modern and classical schools. In other schools a lingua franca (generally Kikongo, Lingala, Tshiluba and Kiswahili) is used for teaching and as a first language. The language of instruction is generally chosen, so far as is possible, for its affinities with the pupils' mother tongue.

74. The European type of education comprises a six-year primary or preparatory course leading to a six-year secondary school and thus to higher education. The mass education system for African boys comprises a pre-primary school (two years), lower and upper primary school (two to five years), post-primary vocational courses (two to three years) and adult courses. Mass education for African girls is organized along the same lines, but the post-primary course takes the form of a teacher-training or home economics course. Selective education for African boys comprises an upper primary school and secondary education. The secondary education is either general (six years) leading to higher education, or special, e.g., administrative and business training (six years), teacher training, technical training as surveyors, training for medical work, schools of agriculture and animal husbandry. The intermediate schools train boys for clerical posts (four years), and as lower and upper primary school teachers (four years). In addition to the post-primary vocational courses, vocational training is provided in intermediate schools (four years) and secondary schools (six years), which provide the groundwork for higher technical education. Indigenous pupils are also admitted to the Leopoldville vocational secondary school.

75. Since 1953, indigenous pupils have also been admitted to European schools, subject to certain educational and family qualifications.

^{17/} United Nations. Non-Self-Governing Territories, 1955, p. 64.

76. Separate school systems for Africans, Asians and Europeans were also maintained in Nyasaland and Northern Rhodesia and for Malay, Chinese, Indian and European and Eurasian pupils in Singapore. In 1954 Nyasaland adopted a five-year plan for the consolidation and completion of the primary schools system, the devolution of control of primary schools to district education committees and the expansion of teacher-training facilities. In Singapore provision was made for pupils of vernacular schools to enter government English schools (schools for children of all races in which the medium of instruction was English) by means of a "special class" system. New English government schools were opened in 1950 and enrolled children from vernacular schools, where, after a two-year intensive course in English, they could take their place in the main stream of the English schools. A scheme was launched in 1954 for the introduction of bilingual education and increased grants-in-aid for Chinese schools so that they could provide education centred on Singapore and Malaya. Later, full financial aid was offered to these schools on the same basis as to English schools. In the same year the construction and staffing of Nanyang University for the Chinese community was begun.

D. Concluding note

77. This review has shown that in the period 1946-1956 there has been some marked progress both in the participation of indigenous people in the control of education as well as in equality of opportunity and treatment. A notable feature of the period has been the use of long- and short-range planning of educational expansion and development, stimulated in part by the availability of metropolitan and investment funds. Political and constitutional changes have given complete independence to a number of Territories while in others local autonomy in such matters as education has been achieved through the creation of territorial legislative bodies and the vesting of control of education in the hands of locally appointed or elected ministers. The use of territorial advisory bodies with indigenous participation has been a general trend. United Kingdom Territories have made progress in the devolution of control of primary education from central territorial bodies to local, regional or district educational authorities. This shift in administrative responsibility has been accompanied by a substantial shift in financial and planning responsibility for primary schooling. Wide use has been made of metropolitan conferences on education with indigenous participation to define the needs of Territories and recommend future developments.

78. Within the broad terms of the General Assembly's resolutions on equal treatment in matters relating to education, the period has equally been marked by gradual progress. French Territories, particularly in the latter years, have progressed towards a unitary system of education. In other Territories where separate systems have been maintained for either separate religions or ethnic groups, progress, whether measured by proportionate enrolment, public expenditure on the separate systems, or fees paid by pupils where these are demanded, has been steady.

79. As far as the education of girls is concerned, from the figures given in the preceding review and more completely in the later section on primary education (paragraphs 185-291), it appears that there has been improvement in the majority of Territories, though progress has been steady rather than spectacular. Thus, of fifty-nine Territories for which percentage figures of girls in primary enrolment is known, over half (or thirty) show girls as 45 per cent or more of such enrolment. For the twenty-nine Territories where the percentage is under 45 per cent, the past decade reveals progress in seventeen Territories and a diminution in four. For eight Territories no comparisons are possible.

80. From these figures and from policy statements and annual reports, it is evident that metropolitan and territorial authorities have given close attention to the problem of the education of girls. Among the measures reported are the setting up of commissions of inquiry, the appointment of women education officers and an emphasis on the recruitment and training of women teachers. Such special measures have been taken to correct the marked disparity between the education of boys and girls and to provide education for girls in keeping with their special interests and future employment.

81. The section may appropriately be concluded by recalling the three principles on which the Ten-Year Plan for Education adopted in Singapore in August 1947, was based:

- "(i) that education should aim at fostering and extending the capacity for self-government and the ideal of civic loyalty and responsibility;
- "(ii) that equal opportunity should be afforded to the children - both boys and girls - of all races;

"(iii) that upon a basis of free primary education there should be developed such secondary, vocational and higher education as would best meet the needs of the country."^{18/}

^{18/} Singapore: Annual Report 1955, Singapore, pp. 188-189.

II. THE FINANCING OF EDUCATION

82. The main points of inquiry for this survey are: (a) to examine budgets for education over the ten-year period in order to discover trends in the budget totals and in the component sources of funds (central and local authorities in the Territories, voluntary agencies, metropolitan assistance, fees); and (b) to analyse the objects of expenditure from the point of view of proportionate allocations to recurrent and capital costs and to the various levels of education. From such analyses it may be possible to sum up broad trends in financial policy in relation to educational policy in general.

83. At the outset it may be remarked that the method of presenting financial data varies a great deal from one Territory to another. The largest element of difference arises from the accounting practices of the Administering Member, and it is preferable for this reason to tabulate statistics by Administering Member. Figures relating to the 1946-1956 period are placed in sixteen tables at the end of this section. The tables give wherever possible the data for an early year, around 1946, for the latest year, around 1956, and for an intermediate year. The first three tables cover forty-four Territories under United Kingdom administration, by source of funds and objects of expenditure, with details also of the Colonial Development and Welfare Scheme. Five tables relate to Territories under French administration: one giving public expenditure in six Territories, two separate tables for Morocco and Tunisia, and two with details of the Fonds d'investissement pour le développement économique et social (FIDES). Territories under United States administration are shown in four tables: two give public expenditure on primary and secondary schooling in six Territories by source of funds and by object; and two more cover higher education in the four Territories which have higher establishments. Individual tables are shown for Papua (Australian administration), the Belgian Congo (Belgian administration), Greenland (Danish administration) and the island Territories under New Zealand administration.

84. The following analysis is based mainly upon the data contained in these tables.

A. The level of education budgets

85. A glance at the statistics will show several problems confronting an effort to study the total sums spent on education. In the United Kingdom tables, the years

for which data are available vary a great deal. Generally, the grand total of education expenditure should correspond to the aggregate of public funds (coming from central and local authorities and from non-territorial sources) and private funds. In many cases the expenditure by voluntary agencies is not known. The most important distortion for the comparison of data is that concerning the income which accrues to educational agencies (both public and private) from internal sources - such as fees, services, hire of buildings, sale of articles made in schools, etc. Whenever the source material clearly shows whether such income is included in educational revenue, a note is made in table 2, the last column but one. Usually, the information is lacking. It is likely that for many Territories the sum involved is not great, but cases do arise (e.g. Hong Kong) where internal sources constitute an essential part of the total education budget. Certain differences in total may also be observed between tables 2 and 3, because the breakdown of expenditure is not available for all spending agencies.

86. For Territories under French administration, data are fairly homogeneous, but the total of public expenditure does not include funds coming from metropolitan France under the FIDES scheme. In United States Territories, figures are reported separately for primary and secondary schooling and for higher education. The remaining tables, for Australian, Belgian, Danish and New Zealand Territories, carry sufficient explanatory notes to show what elements are included and excluded.

87. This brief survey of the data points to one important conclusion: comparisons cannot be made between Territories under different Administering Members; and only very cautious comparisons are possible between those under the same administration.

88. Territories under United Kingdom administration - Africa. Using the data in table 2, the simplest way to study the growth of education budgets is to make a compound interest calculation, i.e., relate the latest to the earlier year by assuming that the budget rose by the same percentage each year. This device can of course give a false impression if one of the two budgets was exceptionally low or high; but it does have the value of producing an average annual rise instead of the variable time-span of the original figures.

89. In the African Territories, total public expenditure is used. Educational expenditure rose annually as follows:

	<u>Per cent</u>
Gold Coast, Sierra Leone	32
Nyasaland	26
Kenya, Uganda	25
Nigeria	24
N. Rhodesia (African education)	23
Somaliland	17
Gambia, Zanzibar	15
Bechuanaland	13
Swaziland	10
Basutoland	7

90. These figures show wide differences in the rate of expansion, due no doubt to variations in wealth between the Territories. On the whole, expansion has been rapid, and percentages such as those recorded for Gold Coast and Sierra Leone represent a remarkable local effort to develop education.

91. Another way of analysing educational expenditure is to relate it to total government expenditure, but here the available data do not permit of any survey of trends. Figures for a single year are known for eight Territories, as follows:

- (a) Expenditures on education as a percentage of territorial revenue:
 Gambia: 6 per cent in 1956
- (b) Education expenditure as a percentage of total territorial expenditure:
 Kenya: 12.1 per cent in 1950
 Uganda: 8 per cent in 1949
- (c) Recurrent expenditure on education as a percentage of total territorial recurrent expenditure:
 Basutoland: 17 per cent in 1956
- (d) Recurrent expenditure by the Education Department as a percentage of total recurrent expenditure:
 Bechuanaland: 7 per cent in 1955
 N. Rhodesia (African education): 15.4 per cent in 1955/1956
 Nyasaland: 12 per cent in 1954/1955
 Sierra Leone: 16 per cent in 1956

While no direct comparisons are possible, the considerable variation in percentages is a point of interest. It may be noted also that the level of public support for education, as shown by these figures, does not seem to be correlated directly with the proportionate rise in educational budgets. This is due to the problem of the lack of funds in Territories which have few resources for economic development. Thus, for example, Basutoland appears to have expanded its educational expenditure over the decade 1946-1956 at the modest rate of 7 per cent per year; however, in terms of total government expenditure, the same Territory devoted in 1956 a higher proportion of its funds to education than did any of the others for which figures are available.

92. Territories under United Kingdom administration - Caribbean. Taking the Leeward and Windward each as a group of four territories, data are available for fifteen Territories. Table 2 shows that education budgets have risen steadily in all cases. For most Territories, it is preferable to work with the total public expenditure, but for two (Antigua, Montserrat) the total public and private expenditure must be taken and for one (Trinidad and Tobago) the central Government expenditure has to be considered by itself. When the average rise per year in education budgets is calculated, the following order results:

	<u>Per cent</u>
Antigua	28
Trinidad: St. Kitts	20
Bahamas	19
Dominica	17
Barbados; Bermuda; St. Vincent	16
Virgin Islands	14
Jamaica, Br. Guiana, St. Lucia	13
British Honduras	12
Montserrat; Grenada	10

No comparable figures are available for the world as a whole, but it is interesting to bear in mind a recent statement based on data from about forty sovereign States:^{19/} "The average percentage increase (compared in each case with the

^{19/} UNESCO and International Bureau of Education: International Yearbook of Education, 1956, Paris and Geneva, p. 15.

preceding year) in expenditures on education was in the region of 11 per cent or 12 per cent in 1954; 10 per cent to 11 per cent in 1955; and in 1956 a definite rise is noted, 14 per cent."

93. One may turn next to examine what proportion education expenditure has made up of total government expenditure. The data seldom permit a comparison over the ten-year period which would establish whether education was receiving increasing attention. Moreover, even the ratio for a single year must be computed with differing formulas thus reducing comparability between territories. For the group of fifteen territories, however, the following percentages emerge. They reveal considerable variations in policy.

Trend: British Guiana, 9.4 per cent in 1948, to 13.3 per cent in 1956 (but different basis of calculation for the two years)

Single figures: (a) Education expenditure as percentage of territorial revenue:

Bahamas: 9.5 per cent in 1956
Bermuda: 16.4 per cent in 1956
British Honduras: 11.1 per cent in 1956
St. Kitts: 10.5 per cent in 1956

(b) Education expenditure as percentage of total territorial expenditure:

Jamaica: 13.2 per cent in 1950

(c) Recurrent expenditure by Education Department as percentage of territorial recurrent expenditure:

Antigua: 6 per cent in 1955
Grenada: 12 per cent in 1956
Montserrat: 13.4 per cent in 1956
Trinidad: 12.8 per cent in 1955

94. Territories under United Kingdom administration - Asia. In this group, public expenditure on education may be examined over the period in three cases only; for Brunei and North Borneo, the total of public and private expenditure must be used, and for Hong Kong the expenditure of the central Government alone. If one may place together such disparate bases, the annual increase in education expenditure has been as follows:

	<u>Per cent</u>
Brunei	50
North Borneo	48
Sarawak	36
Federation of Malaya	28
Hong Kong	26
Singapore	25

In the group as a whole, and particularly in the Territories of Brunei, North Borneo and Sarawak, the increase has been very pronounced. This is due in part to the process of reconstruction after the war - as economics became re-established, educational services profited in proportion.

95. The relation of educational to total territorial expenditure can be traced only in three cases. The Federation of Malaya devoted 10.2 per cent of its spending to education in 1950, and the figure rose to 13.6 per cent in 1954. In Hong Kong the percentage was 11 per cent in 1954/55; and in North Borneo, 5.6 per cent in 1954.

96. Territories under United Kingdom administration - Other. These fall into several geographical areas. Of the three Territories in the Pacific, no comparison with an earlier year is possible for the Solomon Islands; the other two produce the following figures: 18 per cent rise per year for Gilbert and Ellice, 17 per cent for Fiji. In the case of Fiji, 8.8 per cent of the total expenditure went to education in 1947, and 12.5 per cent in 1954.

97. The two Territories in the Mediterranean, Cyprus and Gibraltar, both record an annual rise of 12 per cent. In 1949, Gibraltar devoted 3.1 per cent of its public spending to education.

98. In the Indian Ocean, the annual rise in educational expenditure has been more pronounced: 31 per cent for Seychelles, 27 per cent for Aden and 25 per cent for Mauritius. In relating educational to total expenditure, it appears that Seychelles in 1955 devoted 12 per cent of its recurrent expenditure to the Education Department, and Mauritius in 1955-1956, 9.2 per cent.

99. For the remaining Territories, the annual rise in educational expenditure was 10 per cent in the Falkland Islands and 7 per cent in St. Helena.

under French administration. Available statistics cover eight
 1. Although these differ in region and in stage of development,
 figures for educational finance may be treated together. It should
 budgets of departments of education are shown in the tables,
 private agencies or to contributions from metropolitan France.
 es internal comparisons within the group, it precludes
 preceding data for Territories under United Kingdom
 of educational budgets has occurred at the following annual

	<u>Per cent</u>
nd	47
	36
	30
pelago	29
Africa	28
	27
	23
	20

h of educational budgets has been rapid, and
 occo and New Hebrides.
 total territorial budget can be traced over a
 omoro Archipelago, the proportion of public funds
 per cent in 1948 to 10.8 per cent in 1955. For
 figure is available:
 entage of total territorial budget:
 nt in 1955
 cent in 1954
 per cent in 1955
 : 6.8 per cent in 1955
 + in 1954

As was noted with other groups, these figures vary considerably to be correlated with the figures showing expansion of education. 103. Territories under United States administration. Statistics for six Territories, but in two cases (American Samoa, Guam) no data available over a long enough period of time. The proportionate rise per cent in expenditure on primary and secondary schooling in the other Territories is as follows:

	<u>Per cent</u>
Alaska	25
Virgin Islands	13
Hawaii	7
Puerto Rico	5

The comparison of educational with total expenditure cannot be made as data is lacking.

104. Territory under Australian administration - Papua. The steady rise in the Department of Education expenditure from 1946 to 1955 amounting to about 24 per cent per year. The ratio of this territorial expenditure has risen from 1.6 per cent in 1946-47 to 3.9 per cent in 1954-1955.

105. Territory under Belgian administration - Belgian Congo. The recurrent expenditure rose steadily from 1948 to 1957, the earliest and latest years producing an average of 26 per cent per year. Figures are available for territorial capital expenditure, and the ratio of educational expenditure to express the educational as a fraction of the total budget is as follows:

106. Territory under Danish administration - Greenland. The expenditure on education (including church affairs) has risen from 1.6 per cent in 1946-47 to 3.9 per cent in 1954-1955. The ratio of educational expenditure to express the educational as a fraction of the total budget is of the order of 23 per cent per year.

107. Territories under New Zealand administration. The ratio of educational expenditure to express the educational as a fraction of the total budget is of the order of 23 per cent per year.

B. Sources of funds for education

108. Funds for education are derived from several sources: territorial central revenue, local taxation, the resources of voluntary agencies, school fees and other internal sources, and extra-territorial funds provided by the Administering Authority. In individual Territories practices vary under the influence of two factors: the prevailing policy of the Administering Authority (for example, in respect to local government and the power to raise local taxes) and the historical and present-day conditions within the Territory itself.

A survey of the composition of education budgets made in sufficient detail, would therefore be a matter of studying each Territory separately, with little occasion for comparison regionally or internationally between Territories. Since the present report cannot go into such detail, attention will be here limited to the broader aspects of the policy of the Administering Authority.

109. United Kingdom administration. In general, educational policy has favoured a decentralized administration. Mission societies, churches and voluntary agencies were at first permitted and later encouraged to take the initiative in setting up schools, the role of government being conceived as one of co-ordination and the provision of financial support subject to certain standards. In government itself there has been a deliberate effort since 1946 to foster local government bodies, with some responsibility for primary and secondary schooling. During the same period, assistance has also become available from United Kingdom funds, under Colonial Development and Welfare schemes for projects which have been directed mainly to school building and other capital outlay. It is thus likely that funds for education in Territories under United Kingdom administration will come from a wide variety of sources.

110. Table 2 shows the available statistics but it should be noted that public territorial expenditure is given by the spending body and not by the real source of funds. Thus, grants from central Governments to local authorities are usually included under expenditure by local authorities. In the table, expenditure by the central Government comprises both the Department of Education and such expenses of other departments (Public Works, Labour, etc.) as pertain to education - this latter element often being incomplete.

111. African Territories (United Kingdom). The role of voluntary agencies in education has traditionally been important in these Territories, and official reports often contain data on the funds contributed by voluntary agencies from their own sources. No information is available for Nigeria, and it is known that private sources are not significant in Somaliland. In the other cases, some evidence of trends may be obtained. Voluntary agency expenditures from their own resources are here expressed as a percentage of the total public plus private expenditure on education:

- (a) A relative rise in voluntary contributions to total expenditure
 - Basutoland: 4 per cent in 1946, 26 per cent in 1956
 - Uganda: 19 per cent in 1949, 28 per cent in 1956
- (b) A relative fall in voluntary contributions
 - Gambia: 11 per cent in 1947, 4 per cent in 1956
 - Gold Coast: 2 per cent in 1949-1950, 1 per cent in 1954-1955
 - Kenya: 28 per cent in 1946, 11 per cent in 1950, 2 per cent in 1955-1956
 - Northern Rhodesia (African education): 8 per cent in 1948-1949,
4 per cent in 1955-1956
 - Nyasaland: 42 per cent in 1946, 19 per cent in 1954-1955
 - Sierra Leone: 13 per cent in 1950, 3 per cent in 1956
 - Swaziland: 18 per cent in 1951, 9 per cent in 1956
 - Zanzibar: 15 per cent in 1949, 11 per cent in 1956
 - Bechuanaland: 4-1/2 per cent in 1956, no earlier figure available.

These figures show the large place occupied by voluntary agencies in African education, although variations among the Territories in this respect are considerable. The main trend appears to be a diminution of the financial contribution by these agencies: with a rapid expansion of school facilities and rising costs, a rising proportion of the cost of education is borne by government.

112. During the past decade, the effort to develop local government has been particularly pronounced in the African Territories. There is some interest in examining the funds administered by (although not necessarily raised by) local authorities in education. Data are not available for Nigeria and

Nyasaland; and local expenditures appear to be nil in Basutoland and Zanzibar. The proportion of public expenditure on education attributed to local authorities in the remaining Territories may be classified as follows:

(a) Local expenditures stable

Gambia: 5 per cent in 1947, 6 per cent in 1956

Gold Coast: 20 per cent in 1949-1950, 8 per cent in 1954-1955,
18 per cent in 1955-1956

Kenya: 15 per cent in 1946, 11 per cent in 1950,
12 per cent in 1955-1956

Sierra Leone: 10 per cent in 1946, 4 per cent in 1950, 11 per cent
in 1956

Swaziland: 9 per cent in 1946, 5 per cent in 1951, 9 per cent in 1956

Somaliland: 6 per cent in 1956, no earlier figure available

(b) Rise in local expenditures

Bechuanaland: 33 per cent in 1945-1946, 54 per cent in 1955,
45 per cent in 1956

Northern Rhodesia (African education): 3 per cent in 1948-1949
83 per cent in 1955-1956

Uganda: 6 per cent in 1949, 55 per cent in 1956.

Hence for most Territories the place of local authorities in educational finances has been maintained at a significantly high level. In Bechuanaland decentralization of the control of education to tribal authorities has continued throughout the period under review; and in Northern Rhodesia and Uganda very considerable grants by the central to local authorities have been a feature of the past ten years.

113. Little information is available on the total sums derived from fees and other internal sources of revenue. During the period Gold Coast, Nigeria and Basutoland have abolished fees for primary schooling, and the general trend elsewhere has been to remove these charges in government primary schools while leaving voluntary agency and local authority schools the option of charging fees on a fixed scale. Secondary schools, whatever the maintaining authority, usually have tuition fees, and revenue from this source makes an important contribution to the costs of running the schools.

114. Funds from non-territorial sources, mainly under Colonial Development and Welfare schemes, have contributed a great deal to the development of African education. When these funds are expressed as a percentage of the total public expenditure on education the following figures result:

(a) non-territorial sources, for a single year

Gold Coast: 12 per cent in 1949-1950

Kenya: 32 per cent in 1950

Nigeria: 4 per cent in 1947

Northern Rhodesia (African education): 13 per cent in 1948-1949

Somaliland: 16 per cent in 1956

Uganda: 12 per cent in 1956

(b) trends in non-territorial sources

Basutoland: 5 per cent in 1946, 4 per cent in 1954, 4 per cent in 1956

Bechuanaland: 31 per cent in 1946, 3 per cent in 1955,

21 per cent in 1956

Gambia: 58 per cent in 1947, 6 per cent in 1956

Nyasaland: 48 per cent in 1946, 19 per cent in 1953-1954,

17 per cent in 1954-1955

Sierra Leone: 22 per cent in 1946, 30 per cent in 1950,

25 per cent in 1956

Swaziland: 51 per cent in 1946, 33 per cent in 1951,

16 per cent in 1956

Zanzibar: 42 per cent in 1949, 2 per cent in 1956.

Despite variations between Territories and fluctuations during the period under review, the figures show that a considerable part of public expenditure comes from non-territorial sources, and that a high level has been maintained throughout the decade.

115. Caribbean Territories (United Kingdom). Despite the importance of voluntary effort in education in this region, where many primary and secondary schools are owned and managed by denominational bodies, the financial statistics do not give enough information for the study of trends. Data on voluntary contributions to the cost of education are lacking for Bermuda, Jamaica, Trinidad,

and St. Kitts and the Virgin Islands in the Leeward group. For other Territories the proportion of the total education expenditure coming from voluntary sources is:

- (a) low percentages: under 1 per cent in Barbados (1948 and 1953) and St. Vincent (1952 and 1956); 1 per cent in Grenada (1956); 1-1/2 per cent in Montserrat (1952 and 1956); and 2 per cent in British Guiana (1948-1949)
- (b) more substantial percentages: 8 per cent in Dominica (1947) falling to 6 per cent in 1954; 10 per cent in Santa Lucia (1953); 17 per cent in Bahamas (1952); 20 per cent in British Honduras (1947); and 50 per cent in Antigua (1954).

The few Territories with data for two or more years do not reveal much change in voluntary contributions during the period.

116. The extent to which local bodies raise funds for education appears to be limited. Data on this question are lacking for Trinidad and Tobago; but at various times during the 1946-1956 period, it was reported that no local contributions were made in Bahamas, Bermuda, British Guiana, British Honduras, and the Leeward and Windward Islands. In Barbados, local authorities accounted for 0.8 per cent of the total educational expenditure in 1948-1949 and 0.5 per cent in 1953-1954. For Jamaica the corresponding figure was 4 per cent in 1950.

117. Throughout the region primary education is free (except in British Honduras) and nominal fees are charged in secondary schools. Revenue from internal sources is not likely to make up a significant part of the total budget for education, but certainly contributes to the maintenance of private secondary schools.

118. Funds from non-territorial sources are derived mainly from the United Kingdom under Colonial Development and Welfare schemes. Statistics on this point are more plentiful, and are lacking only in two cases, Bahamas and Bermuda. For the others, the proportion of non-territorial funds to total public expenditure has been as follows:

- Barbados: 0.4 per cent in 1948-1949, 3 per cent in 1953-1954
- British Guiana: 6 per cent in 1948-1949 and 6 per cent in 1956
- British Honduras: 2 per cent in 1947, 13 per cent in 1955,
12 per cent in 1956

Jamaica: 5 per cent in 1950, 4 per cent in 1955
Leewards-Antigua: 5 per cent in 1947, 0.3 per cent in 1954
 Montserrat: 4 per cent in 1952, 1 per cent in 1956
 St. Kitts: 2 per cent in 1951
 Virgin Islands: 2 per cent in 1955
Trinidad and Tobago: 4 per cent in 1955
Windwards: Dominica: 18 per cent in 1947, 13 per cent in 1954
 Grenada: 19 per cent in 1947
St. Lucia: 11 per cent in 1947
St. Vincent: 4 per cent in 1952, 7 per cent in 1956.

119. In interpreting these figures, it should be borne in mind that allocations for capital development are likely to fluctuate from year to year. The figures indicate both the importance of non-territorial funds to territorial budgets and a certain consistency of level over the past decade. A recent official statement from the British Caribbean region may be quoted in this regard:

"Progress in the early part of the twentieth century was slow, and it was not until the passing of the Development and Welfare Acts by the British Parliament in 1940 that substantial advance was made. Numbers had grown, but the same schools, some nearly a hundred years old, continued to accommodate them. The supply of teachers was sluggish and facilities for training very meagre. It has been since the Second World War that conditions have begun to improve". 20/

120. Asian Territories (United Kingdom). Some data on expenditures by voluntary agencies are available for each of the seven Territories in this group. The figures show that voluntary sources make an important contribution to educational finances, particularly in Brunei, North Borneo and Sarawak. But if any trend may be interpreted, it is that the proportionate part borne by private sources has diminished during the past ten years. The percentages that follow express voluntary agency expenditures in a relation to total public plus private expenditures:

20/ UNESCO: World Survey of Education: II Primary Education, Paris, 1958, p. 1175.

- (a) voluntary agency expenditures for a single year
 - Brunei: 16 per cent in 1956
 - Hong Kong: 8 per cent in 1954-1955
- (b) trends in voluntary agency expenditures
 - Malaya: 13 per cent in 1950, 5 per cent in 1954
 - North Borneo: 38 per cent in 1951, 29 per cent in 1954
 - Sarawak: 68 per cent in 1948, 28 per cent in 1954
 - Singapore: 26 per cent in 1951, 3 per cent in 1955

121. Evidence on the role of local authorities must be interpreted with care. The Territories differ widely in the stage of development of their educational systems and also in the degree to which a policy favouring local government might be applied. Relevant data for Brunei are lacking. In Hong Kong and the Federation of Malaya there were no local contributions to education in 1954. For the other Territories local as a percentage of total public expenditures was as follows:

- North Borneo: 1 per cent in 1954
- Sarawak: 3 per cent in 1948 and again in 1956
- Singapore: 46 per cent in 1951, 6 per cent in 1955

If anything, these figures show that local funds are diminishing relative to the rising amounts spent by the central authorities.

122. Revenue from fees is likely to be considerable in most of these Territories. Primary schools run by government and local bodies are free in North Borneo and Singapore; and the 1952 Ordinance in Malaya introduced free primary schooling, but this was not fully implemented by 1956. In Hong Kong school fees are paid by the majority of pupils. Under the Education Ordinance of 1952 there must be displayed in every classroom an official notice setting out the inclusive fees for that class. Receipts from this source are paid into colonial revenue. At the secondary level, since places are available for only a limited number of students, all Territories follow the practice of charging tuition fees.

123. Funds from extra-territorial sources, mainly Colonial Development and Welfare schemes, appear to be of varying importance in this group. No data are available for Brunei and Singapore. For the others, the relevant figures,

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showing extra-territorial funds as a percentage of total public expenditure are:

(a) single year

Hong Kong: 0.2 per cent in 1954-1955

Sarawak: 36 per cent in 1948

(b) trend

Malaya: 0.1 per cent in 1950, 1 per cent in 1954

North Borneo: 7 per cent in 1951,

18 per cent in 1954

124. Other Territories (United Kingdom). The contribution of voluntary agencies to educational finance may be seen in the following figures. In each case voluntary agency expenditure is shown as a percentage of public plus private expenditure, and few trends are obtainable:

Pacific Territories - Fiji 18 per cent in 1954;

Gilbert and Ellice Islands 8 per cent in 1956;

British Solomon Islands not available

Mediterranean - Cyprus 3 per cent in 1955-1956 and

Gibraltar 2 per cent in 1949.

Indian Ocean - Seychelles 23 per cent in 1947,

18 per cent in 1955; Aden 12-1/2 per cent in 1946;

Mauritius not available.

Remaining - St. Helena insignificant; Falklands

7 per cent in 1956.

Expenditure by local authorities is not applicable to the Falkland Islands, Gibraltar, St. Helena and Seychelles, and no figures are available for Mauritius and the Solomon Islands. Elsewhere, the percentage of local to total public expenditure was: Aden 34 per cent in 1946, 18 per cent in 1955-1956; Cyprus 36 per cent in 1955-1956; Fiji 3 per cent in 1954, 14 per cent in 1956; Gilbert and Ellice Islands 3 per cent in 1956. In Aden, Cyprus and Fiji, it appears that local funds make an important contribution to education.

125. All these Territories, except Fiji, have free primary education and tend to charge fees for secondary schooling. Revenue from fees is not likely, therefore, to form an important element in educational finances.

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126. Assistance to education from non-territorial funds is known to have been nil in recent years in Cyprus and Gibraltar. Figures are not available for the Solomon Islands. For Fiji and Gilbert and Ellice, 4 per cent of public expenditure in 1956 came from non-territorial sources; for Aden, 26 per cent in 1946 and 4 per cent in 1955-1956; Mauritius, 9 per cent in 1950-1951; Seychelles, 32 per cent in 1955; Falklands, 7 per cent in 1956; and for St. Helena, 100 per cent in 1955.

127. Colonial Development and Welfare Funds. A summary table showing expenditure by the United Kingdom Government over the past ten years is given at the end of this section (table 4). The budgets of the Territories take into account funds made available under Colonial Development and Welfare schemes and the preceding survey has touched on the relative importance of these funds.

128. French Administration. From the statistics in table 5 it will be seen that the categories used for analysing the sources of funds for education in United Kingdom territories cannot be applied here. The budgets of the central Governments of the Territories reflect expenditures by the public authorities, the funds being derived from territorial revenue. The figures do not include contributions from metropolitan France under the FIDES scheme, and these are separately recorded in tables 8 and 9.

129. Tuition in public schools is free in all the Territories covered by this review. Private schools, which in most Territories receive state support, may charge small fees. For the public sector, therefore, internal sources such as fees are not relevant. The sums spent by voluntary agencies, whether from fee-income or other sources, are not available.

130. Educational administration in these Territories is centralized, and the territorial budget therefore carries all costs of education. Whereas local authorities (in the sense of communes or districts) do not have budgets of their own for education, it may be noted that in three geographically large Territories, French Equatorial Africa, French West Africa and Madagascar, the financing of education is devolved from the central to an intermediate level of government. What are termed "local budgets" in Equatorial and West Africa correspond to the budgets of the Territories making up these federations; just as in Madagascar the provinces are responsible for most of the costs of

schooling. In French Equatorial Africa, local budgets in 1949 made up 80 per cent of the total of local and central budgets; in 1955 the proportion was 86 per cent. In French West Africa, the figure was 89 per cent in 1948, 89 per cent in 1955 and 86 per cent in 1956. In Madagascar, provincial budgets were 74 per cent of total public expenditure in 1955.

131. The contribution to territorial budgets from metropolitan funds may be seen in the two tables on FIDES. These summary tables give the sum spent during the first plan, 1946-1953 (a seven-year period) and the second plan (July 1953 to June 1957 for public education, July 1954 to June 1957 for private education - a four-year period). The totals provided to the six territories under these plans came to 11,684 and 9,805 million francs respectively; if the respective time-spans are taken into account, these figures indicate that assistance from French funds has increased considerably during the period under review. The tables also give the FIDES funds by Territories; but since expenditures took place over a period of time, there would be little meaning in relating them to territorial expenditures for single years.

132. United States Administration. In this group of Territories, the sources of funds (table 10) for primary and secondary schooling are shown as state (territorial), local and federal (United States Government). The statistics pertain to the public school system; no account is taken of the expenditures incurred by private agencies in running their schools, nor of the private funds raised for this purpose. In all the Territories public schooling is free, so that internal sources such as fees make no contribution to the cost of public education.

133. The relative place of local contributions in the total public expenditure has been:

Alaska: 30 per cent in 1947-1948, 16 per cent in 1953-1954,
27 per cent in 1955-1956

American Samoa: not available

Guam: 100 per cent in 1953-1954 and 1955-1956 (for recurrent costs)

Hawaii: 17 per cent in 1947-1948, 8 per cent in 1953-1954,
15 per cent in 1955-1956

/...

Puerto Rico: 5 per cent in 1947-1948

Virgin Is.: 89 per cent in 1946-1947, 82 per cent in 1953-1954,
89 per cent in 1955-1956

134. Aid by the Federal Government is available for a variety of purposes, including the school lunch programme. Statistics show that such assistance has remained steady, after a rapid rise around 1948 in Alaska and Hawaii.

The proportion of federal funds to total public expenditure has been:

Alaska: 2 per cent in 1947-1948, 22 per cent in 1953-1954,
19 per cent in 1955-1956

American Samoa: not available

Guam: nil

Hawaii: 1 per cent in 1947-1948, 13 per cent in 1953-1954,
9 per cent in 1955-1956

Puerto Rico: 19 per cent in 1947-1948, 15 per cent in 1953-1954

Virgin Islands: 11 per cent in 1946-1947, 18 per cent in 1953-1954,
11 per cent in 1955-1956.

135. Australian Administration - Papua. As table 14 shows, the main sources of revenue for education are territorial funds, funds provided by the Australian Government, and the resources of voluntary agencies. The relative contribution of voluntary agencies to total expenditure appears to have risen steadily - from 19 per cent in 1948-1949 to 26 per cent in 1955-1956. Assistance by the Australian Government is known for one year only, 1948-1949, when it made up 34 per cent of total public expenditure.

136. Belgian Administration - Belgian Congo. The provision of funds by voluntary agencies and local bodies is not shown in available statistics, which refer specifically to credits for education carried in the budget of the Belgian Congo Government. Assistance from metropolitan Belgian sources is provided through the Fonds du Bien-Etre Indigène (FBI), the funds being devoted to building and equipping schools under the development plan of the Territory. While no direct comparisons are possible, it may be noted that the FBI funds have remained fairly constant - making up 5 per cent in 1953, 6 per cent in 1954, 4 per cent in 1955 of territorial expenditure - and thus contributing considerably to capital outlay in education.

137. Danish Administration - Greenland. Available data do not permit any analysis of finances by source.

138. New Zealand Administration. The final table at the end of this section shows only territorial expenditure on education. The New Zealand Government gives a general annual subsidy to the Cook Islands, Niue and Tokelau. In the Cook Islands the cost of education is met by revenue from within the group, plus the subsidy. Recurrent expenditure on education is about 22.5 per cent of the total recurrent territorial expenditure. "As the amount of true revenue in the group is small and education services are provided free of any direct charge on the Maori people, it can be said that almost the entire cost of education is provided for out of the general subsidy provided by New Zealand".^{21/}

C. Objects of expenditure

139. The value of an analysis of the spending pattern of the Territories lies in the light it may throw on educational policies, and possibly on shifting emphases in these policies.

140. The principal points of inquiry are these. First, the distribution of public funds between recurrent and capital objects of expenditure; the latter item represents chiefly the construction and equipping of schools, and in rapidly developing school systems (such as the African Territories) one may expect to find a fairly high proportion of funds devoted to this purpose. Second, it is of interest to examine how funds for recurrent costs are distributed over the main categories - administration, primary, secondary and technical, teacher, and higher education. And third, the question may be asked as to how far public funds are devoted to the support of voluntary agency or private schools.

141. As before, it seems advisable to consider the Territories in separate groups, by Administering Member.

142. United Kingdom Administration. The main statistics are reported in table 3 at the end of this section. It will be noted that the table shows

^{21/} Ibid. page 784.

the purposes for which public funds are expended, without reference to the spending body. As remarked in the analysis above, the role of voluntary agencies is considerable in most Territories, and the Government usually provides grants to agencies running schools which fulfil certain standards. There is little interest in examining further the proportion of funds devoted to "private" schooling, for the object of official policy is to support schools in terms of standards rather than of maintaining body. Apart from a deliberate encouragement of local government authorities in a number of Territories (in part by financial support from the centre) there has been little change in policy over the past ten years.

143. The inquiry for United Kingdom Territories is therefore limited to the questions of capital outlay and the various levels of schooling in recurrent expenditure.

144. African Territories (United Kingdom). When one expresses capital expenditure as a percentage of total expenditure on education, the following figures are obtained. In one case, Nigeria, the necessary data are not available:

Basutoland: 15 per cent in 1954, 21 per cent in 1956
Bechuanaland: 23 per cent in 1945-1946, 17 per cent in 1955,
30 per cent in 1956
Gambia: 2 per cent in 1947, 24 per cent in 1956
Gold Coast: 19 per cent in 1946-1947, 22 per cent in 1949-1950,
34 per cent in 1954-1955
Kenya: 36 per cent in 1950, 9 per cent in 1955-1956
Northern Rhodesia (African education): 19 per cent in 1948-1949,
20 per cent in 1955-1956
Nyasaland: 18 per cent in 1953-1954, 19 per cent in 1954-1955
Sierra Leone: 26 per cent in 1950, 26 per cent in 1956
Somaliland: 6 per cent in 1956
Swaziland: 16 per cent in 1946, 17 per cent in 1951,
12 per cent in 1956
Uganda: 4 per cent in 1949, 22 per cent in 1956
Zanzibar: 29 per cent in 1949, 14 per cent in 1956.

These figures show that a high percentage of funds is devoted to building and equipping schools, and that over the past decade the level has been maintained, and perhaps even increased.

145. In examining the distribution of recurrent expenditure, it is proposed to omit three of the columns in table 3, viz., scholarships, board and lodging, and other recurrent expenditure. Several of the Territories, however, such as Kenya and Northern Rhodesia, show relatively high expenditures on boarding establishments. The other heads of expenditure may be studied as percentages of total recurrent expenditure.

146. Administrative expenditure stood at 10 per cent in Basutoland (1954), 16 per cent in Bechuanaland (1955), 11 per cent in Somaliland (1956), 5 per cent in Zanzibar (1956); in Gold Coast, it fell from 7 per cent (1949) to 6 per cent (1954); in Kenya from 5 per cent (1950) to 4 per cent (1955); and in Uganda from 9 per cent (1949) to 4 per cent (1956). A rise took place in Northern Rhodesia, from 12 per cent in 1948 to 13 per cent in 1955; in Nyasaland, from 5 per cent in 1953 to 7 per cent in 1954; and in Sierra Leone, from 8 per cent in 1950 to 13 per cent in 1956. These percentages do not represent any significant changes during the period, and even the differences between Territories are due in large part to the differing conditions - geographical and social - which affect the administration of schools.

147. The varying proportions of recurrent expenditure devoted to the several levels of schooling reflect both official policies and the actual stage of development. Taking the four main categories - primary, secondary (including technical), teacher and higher education - one may first record the Territories for which figures for only a single year are available:

Basutoland (1954): 65 per cent; 11 per cent; 7 per cent; 2 per cent.

Bechuanaland (1955): 71 per cent; 9 per cent; 4 per cent.

Somaliland (1956): 67 per cent; 9 per cent; 3 per cent.

Zanzibar (1956): 62 per cent; 23 per cent; 5 per cent.

148. In Territories where comparison between two years is possible, there is one instance of a shift in policy. Gold Coast in 1949/50 spent 53 per cent, 7 per cent, 9 per cent and 12 per cent respectively on the four levels; by 1954/55

the proportions were 34 per cent, 21 per cent, 14 per cent, 20 per cent. The change is due in part to a transfer of middle schools from the primary to the secondary category; but increased spending on teacher training and higher education is also evident. On the other hand, the spending pattern in Kenya, Northern Rhodesia, Nyasaland, Sierra Leone and Uganda does not appear to have changed significantly, and figures for the latest year may suffice.

Kenya (1955/56): 62 per cent, 26 per cent, 8 per cent.

Northern Rhodesia (1955/56): 74 per cent, 8 per cent, 5 per cent.

Nyasaland (1954/55): 68 per cent, 14 per cent, 11 per cent.

Sierra Leone (1956): 34 per cent, 24 per cent, 7 per cent, 15 per cent.

Uganda (1956): 58 per cent, 28 per cent, 8 per cent.

149. It may be noted that Territories, like Kenya and Uganda, which make expenditure on higher education, do not reflect these sums in the budgets of the Department of Education.

150. Caribbean Territories (United Kingdom). The proportion of education expenditure devoted to capital purposes may be judged from these figures:

Bahamas: 17 per cent in 1952; 23 per cent in 1956

Barbados: 7 per cent in 1948/49; 10 per cent in 1953/54

Bermuda: 18 per cent in 1956

British Guiana: 12 per cent in 1948/49; 7 per cent in 1956

British Honduras: 2 per cent in 1947

Jamaica: 5 per cent in 1950

Leewards - St. Kitts: 8 per cent in 1956

Trinidad and Tobago: 6 per cent in 1955

Windwards - Dominica: 12 per cent in 1954

Grenada: 12 per cent in 1956

St. Vincent: 8 per cent in 1956

There are too few cases for a discussion of trends, but it is clear that during the period most Territories have devoted a considerable proportion of public funds to the building of schools. The statement quoted earlier, on the beneficial effect of the Colonial Development and Welfare schemes may be recalled here.

151. The distribution of current expenditure among various purposes reveals a low cost structure for education administration in this region. The relevant figures (administration costs as percentage of total recurrent expenditure) are: 4 per cent in Bahamas (1952); 2 per cent in Barbados (1946/47) and 5 per cent in 1953/54; 4 per cent in Bermuda (1956); 3 per cent in British Guiana (1948/49); 8 per cent in British Honduras (1955); 4 per cent in Jamaica (1950); around 4 per cent or 5 per cent in the Leewards (1956); 5 per cent in Trinidad and Tobago (1955); between 4 per cent and 6 per cent in the Windwards (1954 to 1956). The long historical growth of the Caribbean school systems may be a factor which makes for an inexpensive administration; but whatever the reason this element of expenditure has not varied much during the period under review.

152. The spending pattern, as between primary, secondary (with technical), teacher and higher education also shows considerable consistency within the region. Taking these levels as percentages of total recurrent expenditure we have:

Bahamas (1952): 65 per cent; 19 per cent; 4 per cent;
Barbados (1953/54): 66 per cent; 20 per cent; 1 per cent; 6 per cent;
Bermuda (1956): 57 per cent; 30 per cent; 4 per cent;
British Guiana (1948/49): 72 per cent; 13 per cent; 1 per cent;
British Honduras (1955): 86 per cent; 3 per cent; 2 per cent;
Leewards - Antigua (1955): 80 per cent; 10 per cent; 2 per cent.
- Montserrat (1956): 67 per cent; 24 per cent; 3 per cent.
Trinidad and Tobago (1955): 71 per cent; 10 per cent; 4 per cent.
Windwards - Dominica (1954): 69 per cent; 18 per cent; 1 per cent.
- St. Vincent (1956): 68 per cent; 16 per cent; 2 per cent.

The accent is clearly on primary schooling, with varying importance attached to secondary (the range being between 10 per cent and 30 per cent, except for British Honduras where it is 3 per cent); consistent percentages spent on teacher training; and an absence of data for higher education because this item (e.g. in Trinidad) is not shown in the Education Department budgets. The available figures do not permit of a trend analysis.

153. Asian Territories (United Kingdom). Capital expenditure in this region appears to be high, not only at the beginning of the period, when war damage had to be repaired, but equally in recent years. The territory of Brunei in particular has reached a very high percentage. The ratio of capital to total expenditure has been:

Brunei: 57 per cent in 1947; 58 per cent in 1956.

Malaya: 12 per cent in 1947; 5 per cent in 1950; 13 per cent in 1954.

Hong Kong: 7 per cent in 1954/55; 21 per cent in 1955/56.

North Borneo: 2 per cent in 1951; 22 per cent in 1954.

Sarawak: 7 per cent in 1956.

Singapore: 23 per cent in 1946; 19 per cent in 1951; 22 per cent in 1955.

154. In the six Territories the proportion of recurrent expenditure devoted to administration appears to have varied little during the period; as between the Territories, the percentage in the latest year lay between 4 per cent and 8 per cent, except for North Borneo where it was 19 per cent (1954).

155. The distribution of recurrent expenditure between primary, secondary (including technical), teacher and higher education may be seen from these figures:

Brunei (1956): 65 per cent; 26 per cent; 4 per cent.

Malaya (1947): 60 per cent; 22 per cent; 1 per cent; 1 per cent.

(1954): 69 per cent; 14 per cent; 4 per cent.

Hong Kong (1955/56): 60 per cent; 25 per cent; 3 per cent.

North Borneo (1954): 64 per cent; 13 per cent.

Sarawak (1956): 72 per cent; 19 per cent; 2 per cent.

Singapore (1955): 68 per cent; 21 per cent; 4 per cent.

156. Much the same impression is given as with previous groups; the main emphasis is on primary education (between 60 per cent and 72 per cent), considerable expenditure on secondary schooling (between 13 per cent and 26 per cent), a small but rising expenditure on teacher training, and an absence of data for higher education.

157. Other Territories (United Kingdom). Data on capital expenditure show wide variations as between territories, as might be expected. Of the Mediterranean group, Cyprus devoted 12 per cent of its total expenditure to capital purposes in 1946-1947, and 18 per cent in 1955-1956; in Gibraltar the corresponding figures were 5 per cent in 1949, 20 per cent in 1956. Among the Pacific Territories, the percentage for Fiji was 2 per cent in 1954 and 12 per cent in 1956; in the Gilbert and Ellice Islands, 1 per cent in 1956. In the remaining Territories, Aden devoted the high proportion of 47 per cent to capital purposes in 1955-1956, Mauritius 16 per cent in 1955-1956 and the Falklands 25 per cent in 1956. With some exceptions, these figures show a high level of investment in buildings and equipment.

158. The cost of administration, as a percentage of total recurrent expenditure, is fairly low in all cases (between 2 per cent and 5 per cent for the latest year) except the Gilbert and Ellice Islands, where it was 30 per cent in 1956 (but here the teachers in public schools form part of the establishment of the Education Department, so that this figure comprises salary costs which are not really administrative). As far as may be gathered from the data, proportionate expenditure on administration has tended to drop during the past decade.

159. The distribution of recurrent expenditure in the Mediterranean Territories reflects the considerable development of secondary schooling. For the four levels (primary, secondary, teacher, higher education) the percentage in Cyprus in 1955-1956 were: 63 per cent; 32 per cent; 3 per cent; and in Gibraltar in 1956: 47 per cent; 42 per cent; 4 per cent.

160. Corresponding percentages for Fiji (1956) were: 76 per cent; 19 per cent; 2 per cent. For other Territories, the high proportion of "other expenditure" or expenditure on scholarships makes this analysis by level of schooling impracticable.

161. French administration. The form in which territorial budgets are presented does not permit of the same type of analysis as that followed so far. The principal element in table 5, for present purposes, is the distribution of territorial funds to public and private sectors in education. It may be noted that territorial budgets do not include FIDES funds, but do contain non-recurrent items of expenditure other than those supported by FIDES. No direct comparison of total capital outlay with total expenditure is therefore possible.

162. The distribution of public funds between public and private schools, shown in percentages, has been as follows:

Comoro Islands (1955): 98 per cent public; 2 per cent private.

French Equatorial Africa (1948): 89 per cent public, 11 per cent private.

(1955): 79 per cent public, 21 per cent private.

French West Africa (1955): 95 per cent public, 5 per cent private.

Madagascar (1955): 93 per cent public, 7 per cent private.

New Hebrides (1954): 98 per cent public, 2 per cent private.

Somaliland (1954): 87 per cent public, 13 per cent private.

These figures are not sufficient to show any trend over the period; for recent years they show a steady support for private schooling, although in every case the main emphasis is on the public school system. Variations between Territories

are not great, except perhaps for French Equatorial Africa, where a rapid rise in school enrolments has been accompanied by a rise in grants to voluntary agencies. 163. The two tables on FIDES allocations may be examined from the same point of view. These funds are made available for non-recurrent expenditure in both the public and the private sector. Taking allocations to private agencies as a percentage of the total and taking the two periods, 1946-1953 (first plan) and 1953-1957 (second plan), we obtain:

Comoro Islands:	0 per cent; 28 per cent
French Equatorial Africa	15 per cent; 30 per cent
French West Africa	10 per cent; 22 per cent
Madagascar	22 per cent; 25 per cent
New Hebrides	100 per cent; 100 per cent
Somaliland:	10 per cent; 37 per cent

164. In other words, voluntary agencies have received relatively more public support in capital development schemes than they have for recurrent expenditure. Moreover, there has been a clear trend, during the past decade, to increase this support.

165. Allocations by FIDES are also shown by level of education in the tables. Converting the sums into percentages of the total, we arrive at the following distribution:

Distribution of FIDES funds by level of schooling

	<u>Primary</u>	<u>Secondary</u>	<u>Vocational</u>	<u>Higher</u>	<u>Teacher training</u>
Comoro Archipelago - 1946-1953:	100	-	-	-	-
- 1953-1957:	83	17	-	-	-
French Equatorial Africa					
- 1946-1953:	21	62	12	-	-
1953-1957:	42	38	10	-	6
French West Africa					
- 1946-1953:	4	46	44	6	-
- 1953-1957:	41	21	3	10	21
Madagascar					
- 1946-1953:	26	56	17	-	-
- 1953-1957:	16	33	45	5	-
New Hebrides, Somaliland: (throughout the period)	100	-	-	-	-

166. It is likely that in some cases teacher training expenditures were included with vocational or with secondary education. The figures show a concentration on secondary school building during the first plan, and a broadening of scope during the second plan so that all levels of education were developed.

167. The separate tables for educational finances in Morocco and Tunisia may be commented on briefly. In Morocco, the proportion of total expenditure devoted to non-recurrent items was 2 per cent in 1956, and 27 per cent in 1953. In Tunisia, corresponding percentages were: in 1948, 28 per cent; and in 1954/1955, 13 per cent. Capital outlay has therefore been considerable.

168. United States Administration. Table 11, showing public expenditure on primary and secondary education, may be analysed from the point of view of non-recurrent expenditure and the cost of administration. It will be noted that the heads of recurrent expenditure differ from those used in Territories under United Kingdom or French administration, so that no direct comparisons between groups of Territories can be made.

169. Expressing non-recurrent expenditure as a percentage of total public expenditure, the following figures emerge:

Alaska: 10 per cent in 1947/48; 10 per cent in 1953/54

American Samoa: 1 per cent in 1952

Guam: 18 per cent in 1953/54

Hawaii: 5 per cent in 1947/48; 8 per cent in 1953/54; 6 per cent in 1955/56

Puerto Rico: 4 per cent in 1947/48; 4 per cent in 1953.

Despite differences among Territories, those figures show that the level of expenditure on buildings and other capital items has tended to remain constant during the period.

170. If the costs of administration are taken as a percentage of total recurrent expenditure, the following figures are obtained:

Alaska: 5 per cent in 1947/48; 8 per cent in 1953/54

Guam: 3 per cent in 1953/54

Hawaii: 3 per cent in 1947/48; 2 per cent in 1953/54 and in 1955/56

Puerto Rico: 6 per cent in 1947/48; 9 per cent in 1953.

Here it would seem that administrative costs are at the low level characteristic of well-established school systems; in two cases there has been a tendency for them to rise slightly.

171. Australian Administration (Papua). The data shown in table 14 do not permit of any analysis of the objects of expenditure.

172. Belgian Administration (Belgian Congo). While the recurrent budget of the Territory (table 15) does not give details on the objects of expenditure, it is possible to analyse the Fonds du Bien-Etre Indigène expenditures on capital projects. These funds have been used for developing primary, vocational and teacher education, and the proportionate distribution to the three types of school has been:

1949-52:	9 per cent;	45 per cent;	46 per cent
1953:	8 per cent;	55 per cent;	37 per cent
1954:	8 per cent;	75 per cent;	17 per cent
1955:	35 per cent;	40 per cent;	25 per cent

This pattern differs considerably from that noted in other Territories, in the emphasis placed on vocational education and teacher training. It may be noted, however, that for the latest year the allocation to primary schools rose sharply.

173. Danish Administration (Greenland). From table 16 one may examine the rate of spending on capital investment; from being 19 per cent of total expenditure in 1947/1948, and 17 per cent in 1952/1953, it rose to 34 per cent in 1956. These figures show a rather high level for the school building programme. No other types of analysis are possible.

174. New Zealand Administration. The available figures (table 17) indicate a high rate of expenditure on non-recurrent items: 29 per cent of total expenditure in Cook Islands, 1956/1957; and 28 per cent in Niue for the same year.

D. Concluding note

175. This summary and diffuse survey of the financing of education has been concerned mainly with statistical aspects of territorial budgets. In drawing together the main conclusions it will be necessary to touch on aspects of financial policy in less statistical terms.

176. It is evident that the level of education budgets has risen steadily during the period; several Territories record an average annual increase of 30 per cent. Little evidence is available to show whether this rise has meant that the authorities devote to education a larger part of public expenditure than previously; probably the past decade has seen a small but significant increase in the place of education in public spending.

177. Sources of funds for education are various, but by far the greatest part of the cost has consistently been borne by territorial budgets out of general revenue. In Territories where voluntary agencies maintain an important part of the school system, aid from public funds has grown and, proportionately, the contributions these agencies make from their own resources has diminished. Internal sources of revenue, such as fees, do not seem to be important except in a few Territories. Finally, contributions by Administering Members to territorial budgets for education have been a pronounced feature of the past ten years: less perhaps in terms of the proportion of costs borne in this way than because of the influence such development funds have had on school systems. They have stimulated planning and evaluation and have made possible building schemes at essential (and costly) points such as secondary education and teacher training.

178. The period 1946-1956 was one of greatly increasing costs for education. The territorial authorities have consistently reported on the rising costs of materials and equipment; teachers' salaries, usually the largest single item of expenditure, have been revised from time to time; and the ancillary services such as school meals, medical services and boarding establishments have tended to grow and thus increase the number of charges on funds available for education. Under such conditions of rising costs, the real value of education budgets has therefore not expanded in as spectacular a fashion as the uncorrected figures would suggest.

179. Within the school systems, certain further factors may be noted. The first is the increase of enrolments shown by table 1 and the diagram in the preceding section. The number of children at primary school has grown, and in the process facilities for secondary, technical, higher education and teacher training have also expanded: these post-primary forms of education require a much higher expenditure per pupil than do the lower classes. In the second place,

almost all Territories have reported an effort to raise standards as well as to expand schooling quantitatively. This has involved the administrations in expenditures on supplies and materials and on pre- and in-service training of teachers. And last, it has been shown that the increased rhythm of school building - with some capital costs provided from metropolitan funds - has placed a burden of recurrent costs on territorial Governments which severely taxes local resources.

180. Such factors serve to indicate that educational administrators in almost all Territories have been concerned to keep down costs and to press for still larger allocations from public funds. Some of the measures for possible economy may be recapitulated from territorial reports. The double-shift system has been tried in various forms: alternate morning and afternoon sessions, alternate days of schooling, and so on. While economical of staff and buildings, this system has been unpopular with parents. It is likely to stress formal bookish teaching at the expense of the whole educational process, and leads to complications with families split between the shifts. At best the system is a temporary solution. By extension of the same idea, efforts have also been made to secure the maximum use of school buildings and grounds. Under favourable climate conditions, it is possible for classes to use rooms part of the time and teaching spaces in the grounds parts of the time.

181. In face of a shortage of qualified teachers (or of the costs involved in training sufficient teachers) various measures have been introduced for diluting the teaching profession: shortened courses and the pupil-teacher system in different forms. These latter cannot be justified on educational grounds, and are also temporary solutions.

182. During the period, many administrations have given increasing attention to wastage (the term itself has economic connotations). Fundamentally, the fact that children leave school before completing the course or repeat the year's work once or more often means an uneconomic use of resources. Several measures to deal with this problem - examined in the next section of this survey - have been reported. The result of such steps has been to secure additional educational benefit from existing premises and staff.

183. Lastly, the problem of high building costs has been proved to be capable of solution. By means of standardized design, the use of local material, prefabrication, planning for minimum maintenance, it has been shown that considerable economies can be made.

184. In more general terms, the problems confronting territorial administrations are these: what proportion of revenue should be devoted to education; how to allocate this among various services, how to divide the cost between metropolitan funds, territorial revenues, local authorities funds, grants to non-governmental institutions and the question of school fees. The analysis above shows the great variety of solutions proposed by the territories; and the record of the past ten years indicates the very considerable progress made in this respect by the territorial administrations.

TABLE 2

EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURE IN TERRITORIES UNDER UNITED KINGDOM ADMINISTRATION, BY SOURCE OF FINANCE, BETWEEN 1946 AND 1956

Territory	Year	Monetary unit	Grand total	Public Sector			Private Sector		Fees and other internal sources	Ratio of expenditure for education to total expenditure
				Total	Expenditure by Central Government	Expenditure by local authorities	Expenditure from non-territorial funds	Voluntary agencies, missions, etc.		
ADEN, Colony and Protectorate	1946	Pound Sterling	*65,022	56,822	*22,567	19,255 ^{a/}	*15,000	*8,200 ^{b/}	Not Specified	...
	1955/56	" "	...	474,439	370,308	84,963	19,168	...	" "	...
BAHAMAS	1946	Pound Sterling	...	66,846	Not Included ^{c/}	...
	1952	" "	192,312	159,010	159,010	-	-	33,301	Not Specified	...
	1956	" "	...	389,079	309,079	-	-	...	" "	9.5 ^{d/}
BARBADOS	1946/47	Dollar B.W.I. ^{e/}	...	945,567 ^{f/}	Not Included ^{g/}	...
	1948/49	" "	1,610,646	1,605,420	1,586,806	12,627	5,987	3,226	Not Specified	...
	1953/54	" "	*2,686,652	2,680,652	2,597,998	13,266	69,388	*6,000	" "	...
BASUTOLAND	1946	Pound Sterling	*157,383	*150,383	*143,383	-	*7,000	*7,000	Included ^{h/}	...
	1954	" "	259,163	204,168	196,432	-	7,736	55,000	Not Specified	15.8 ^{i/}
	1956	" "	366,556	271,456	260,351	-	11,105	95,100	" "	17.0 ^{j/}
BECHUANALAND	1945/46	Pound Sterling	...	51,550	17,413	17,735	16,397	...	Not Specified	8.9 ^{k/}
	1955	" "	145,351	138,351	60,211	74,343	3,997	*7,000	" "	7.0 ^{l/}
	1956	" "	199,043	189,857	64,770	84,719	40,368	9,186	" "	...
BERMUDA	1946	Pound Sterling	...	110,392	Not Included	...
	1956	" "	...	495,844	495,844	-	-	...	Not Specified	16.4 ^{m/}
BRITISH GUIANA	1948/49	Dollar B.W.I. ^{e/}	2,465,957	2,427,576	2,290,670	-	136,906	38,531	Not Specified	9.1 ^{n/}
	1956	" "	...	6,654,766	404,491	...	" "	13.5 ^{o/}
BRITISH HONDURAS	1947	Dollar Br. Honduras	251,518 ^{i/}	201,189	197,389	-	3,800	50,329	Included	...
	1955	" "	...	486,042	423,712	-	62,330	...	Not Specified	11.1 ^{p/}
	1956	" "	...	*535,428	*473,673	-	*61,755	...	" "	11.2 ^{q/}
SOLOMON IS.	1956	Pound Australian	18,347	...	14,098	...	Not Specified	...
BRUNEI	1947	Dollar Malayan	172,806	Not Specified	...
	1956	" "	6,792,412	5,703,369	1,084,043	Included	...
CYPRUS	1946/47	Pound Sterling	812,570	Included ^{r/}	...
	1955/56	" "	2,239,997	2,162,588	1,375,661	786,927	-	77,409	Included ^{s/}	...
PAKLAND ISLANDS	1947	Pound Sterling	7,225	7,225	7,225	-	-	-	Included ^{t/}	...
	1956, Recurrent	" "	16,913	16,913	15,437	-	1,476	-	Not Specified	...
	Capital	" "	5,500	5,500	-	" "	...
FED. OF MALAYA	1947	Dollar Malayan	...	16,856,993 ^{u/}
	1950	" "	...	34,203,171	34,178,243	3,091	26,837	*5,110,086	Not Specified	10.2 ^{v/}
	1954	" "	*39,318,297	94,888,639	93,753,898	-	1,134,741	*5,022,516	" "	13.5 ^{w/}
FIJI	1947	Pound Fiji	103,429 ^{x/}	*57,000 ^{y/}	Included ^{z/}	8.0 ^{aa/}
	1954	" "	855,897	705,897	667,786	37,621	490	*150,000	Not Specified	12.5 ^{ab/}
	1956	" "	...	891,389	734,720	120,817	35,852	...	" "	...
GAMBIA	1947	Pound Sterling	32,875 ^{b/}	29,089	10,727 ^{c/}	1,395	16,967	3,786	Not Specified	...
	1956, Recurrent	" "	100,532	101,032	89,350	5,682	6,000	*5,500	" "	6.0 ^{d/}
	Capital	" "	33,535	" "	...
GIBRALTAR	1947	Pound Sterling	42,673
	1949	" "	53,713	52,493	52,493	-	-	1,220	Not Specified	3.1 ^{e/}
	1956	" "	...	116,970	116,970	-	-	...	" "	...
GILBERT AND ELLICE	1946	Pound Australian	...	4,724	4,724	-	-	...	Not Specified	...
	1956	" "	25,972	23,812	22,062	750	1,000	2,160	" "	...

TABLE 2 (continued)

Territory	Year	Monetary unit	Grand total	Public Sector		Private Sector		Fees and other internal sources	Ratio of expenditure for education to total expenditure
				Total	Expenditure by Central Government	Expenditure by Local authorities	Expenditure from non-territorial funds		
GOLD COAST	1946/47	Pound Sterling	751,932	94,611	...	Not Specified	...
	1949/50	" "	2,193,878	2,148,878	1,467,940	420,120	260,818	*45,000	" "
	1954/55	" "	*7,996,965	*7,908,692	*7,306,290	602,402	-	*83,271	" "
	1955/56	" "	...	7,018,243 ^u	5,776,958 ^u	1,241,285 ^u	-	...	" "
HONG KONG	1946/47	Dollar Hong Kong	6,542,016	Not Specified	...
	1954/55	" "	45,605,000	41,625,000	41,545,000 ^v	-	80,000	3,980,000	Not Included ^v
	1955/56	" "	52,076,730 ^v	Not Included ^v
JAMAICA	1946/47	Pound Sterling	...	947,785	Not Specified	...
	1950	" "	...	1,577,551	1,441,829	58,059	77,663	...	13.2 ^l
	1955	" "	...	2,755,000	112,000
KENYA	1946	Pound Sterling	*797,463	*570,463	486,463	*84,000	-	227,000	Included
	1950	" "	*2,340,698	2,079,198	1,192,379	220,078	666,741	*261,500	Not Specified
	1955/56	" "	4,364,167	4,275,377	3,782,978	492,399	-	88,790	" "
LEEWARD ISLANDS									
- Antigua	1947	Dollar B.W.I.	116,278 ^z	5,428	Not Specified	...
	1954	" "	*654,630	327,315	326,089	-	1,226	*327,315	" "
	1955	" "	426,087	-	6.3 ^k
- Montserrat	1947	Dollar B.W.I. ^e	60,610 ^z	Not Specified	...
	1952	" "	110,568	108,883	105,083	-	3,800	1,685	...
	1956	" "	141,684	139,380	137,364	-	2,016	2,304	Not Specified
- St. Kitts-Nevis-Anguilla	1946	Dollar B.W.I. ^e	...	127,003	Not Specified	...
	1951	" "	323,314	323,064	316,440	-	6,624	250	" "
	1956	" "	525,683 ^z	10.5 ^d
- Virgin Islands	1948	Dollar B.W.I.	...	35,306	Not Specified	...
	1950	" "	...	54,657	" "
	1955	" "	...	82,091	80,219	-	1,872	...	" "
MAURITIUS	1946/47	Rupee Mauritius	...	2,144,690 ^{bb}	Not Specified	...
	1950/51	" "	4,694,042 ^{cc}	...	455,217	...	" "
	1955/56	" "	...	15,716,334	11.9 ^l
NIGERIA	1947	Pound Sterling	...	1,540,413	1,484,190	-	56,223	...	Not Specified
	1952/53	" "	...	4,589,444	" "
NORTH BORNEO	1947	Dollar Malayan	111,400	Not Specified	...
	1951	" "	*1,281,646	*790,276	*738,000	-	*52,276	*491,370 ^{dd}	" "
	1954	" "	*2,434,175	1,734,175	1,402,805	13,920	317,450	*700,000	" "
NORTHERN RHODESIA									
- European Education	1947	Pound Sterling	116,780	116,780	116,780	-	-	Not Specified	...
	1950	" "	445,353	445,353	445,353	-	-	-	" "
- African Education	1948/49	Pound Sterling	547,385	505,235	419,310	18,050	67,875	42,150	Not Specified
	1955/56	" "	2,236,096	2,154,096	371,782	1,782,314	-	82,000	" "
NYASALAND	1946	Pound Sterling	...	94,812	49,756	...	45,056	67,289 ^{ee}	Included ^{ee}
	1953/54	" "	517,517	449,925	80,330	97,592	Not Specified
	1954/55	" "	...	600,006	104,588	...	" "
ST. HELENA	1947	Pound Sterling	7,694	Not Specified	...
	1955	" "	14,066	13,869	-	-	13,869	197	" "
	1956	" "	14,500	" "
SARAWAK	1948	Dollar Malayan	*1,766,121	573,121	344,997	20,000	208,124	*1,193,000	Included ^{ff}
	1956	" "	9,164,000	6,594,000	6,376,000	218,000	-	2,570,000	Included ^{gg}

Territory	Year	Monetary unit	Grand total	Public Sector			Private Sector	Fees and other internal sources	Ratio of expenditure for education to total expenditure	
				Expenditure by Central Government	Expenditure by Local authorities	Expenditure from non-territorial funds	Voluntary agencies, missions, etc.			
SEYCHELLES	1947	Rupee Seychelles	123,458	94,458	94,458	-	29,000	Not Specified	...	
	1955	" "	1,002,033	818,881	557,397	-	183,152	" "	12.0 ^k / ₁	
SIERRA LEONE	1946	Pound Sterling	...	101,365	68,007	10,761	22,597	...	Not Specified	5.1 ^j / ₁
	1950	" "	455,952	395,619	260,792	16,860	117,967	60,333	" "	8.9 ^k / ₁
	1956	" "	1,618,493	1,570,260	1,011,040	167,102	392,118	48,233	Included	16.0 ^k / ₁
SINGAPORE	1946	Dollar Malayan	2,146,537 ^{hh}	Included ⁱⁱ / ₁	...
	1951	" "	22,103,263	16,344,440	8,775,241	7,569,199	-	5,758,823	Included ^{jj} / ₁	...
	1955	" "	41,140,200	40,041,500	37,758,100	2,283,400	-	1,098,700	Not Specified	...
SOMALILAND	1946/47	Pound Sterling	17,502	17,502	-	-	Not Specified	...
	1956	" "	83,145	83,145	64,759	5,267	13,119	-	" "	...
SWAZILAND	1946	Pound Sterling	...	59,730	23,975	5,379	30,376	...	Not Specified	...
	1951	" "	104,734	85,734	53,345	4,116	28,273	19,000	" "	...
	1956	" "	171,108	156,416	118,197	13,621	24,598	14,692	" "	...
TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO	1946	Dollar B.W.I.	2,348,510	Included ^{kk} / ₁	7.4 ^d / ₁
	1950	" "	5,226,610	Included ^{ll} / ₁	...
	1955	" "	12,169,174	...	50,535	...	Not Specified	12.8 ^k / ₁
UGANDA	1946	Pound Sterling	369,535	Not Specified	9.1 ^d / ₁
	1949	" "	847,499	686,463	645,749	40,135	579	161,036	" "	8.0 ^f / ₁
	1956	" "	4,551,846	3,287,189	1,078,186	1,821,686	387,317	1,264,657	Included ^{mm} / ₁	...
WINDWARD ISLANDS										
- Dominica	1947	Dollar B.W.I.	*117,028	107,524	87,858	-	19,666	*9,504	Not Specified	...
	1954	" "	*341,680	320,270	279,127	406	40,737	*21,410	Not Included	...
	1956	" "	298,387
- Grenada	1947	Dollar B.W.I. ^e / ₁	...	256,224	208,411	-	47,813	...	Not Specified	...
	1956	" "	624,374	615,175	9,199	...	" "	12.0 ^k / ₁
- St. Lucia	1947	Dollar B.W.I. ^e / ₁	...	183,802	162,893	-	20,909	...	Not Specified	...
	1953	" "	429,469	386,169	385,123	1,073	-	43,273 ² / ₁	" "	...
	1955	" "	328,000 ^f / ₁	" "	...
- St. Vincent	1947	Dollar B.W.I. ^e / ₁	133,171	133,171	133,171	-	-	-	... ⁿⁿ / ₁	...
	1952	" "	290,807	289,913	278,922	-	10,991	894	Not Specified	...
	1956	" "	487,638 ^{oo} / ₁	486,606	453,576	941	32,089	1,032	" "	...
ZANZIBAR AND PEMBA	1949	Pound Sterling	150,401	126,785	74,068	-	52,717	23,616	Not Specified	...
	1956	" "	363,725	340,956	331,838	-	9,118	42,769	" "	...

a/ Figures incomplete.

b/ Christian Missions \$4,000; Grant-Aided Schools \$4,200.

c/ £1,153 fees of secondary schools not included.

d/ Expenditure on education as per cent of total revenue of Colony.

e/ Converted from Pound Sterling into Dollar B.W.I. by the par value of 4.8 \$B.W.I. to 1 £.

f/ It is not known whether capital expenditure is included or not.

g/ \$B.W.I. 1,100,200 fees of secondary schools are not included.

h/ Included internal revenues (fees, work done, etc.), from secondary (general and technical) schools:

Basutoland High School	£ 3,060
Lerothole Tech.	£ 7,530
Missionary Secondary	£ 6,000
	£16,590

i/ Education Department expenditure on education as per cent of total gross expenditure of Territory.

j/ Territorial Recurrent Expenditure on education as per cent of Territory's total recurrent expenditure.

k/ Education Department recurrent expenditure as per cent Territory's total recurrent expenditure.

Notes to table 2 (continued)

- l/ Excluding Higher Education scholarships.
- m/ Including 286,342 from fees.
- n/ Including 2303,303 from school fees and 213,900 from sale of property and sundries.
- o/ Included 2149 from school fees and 252 from sale of school materials.
- p/ Does not include expenditure by the Public Works Department.
- q/ The total revenue of the Department of Education amounted to \$ Malayan 739,875 of which \$ Malayan 248,063 came from the Education Rates and \$ Malayan 487,612 from fees, but it is not specified whether these sums are included or not.
- r/ Including 223,104 recoveries of expenditure by Central Government.
- s/ A large portion of the private sector amount is collected in fees and donations.
- t/ Figures are not available for expenditure by Government Departments other than Education Department.
- u/ Figures for 1955/56 are not comparable with those of previous years. On one hand, they do not include administrative expenses of the Ministry of Education nor the sums allocated to University College and Kumasi College of Technology. On the other hand, they cover the period 1/4/55 to 30/6/56.
- v/ Expenditure figures on education from Social Welfare Service are not available.
- w/ Not including \$ Hong Kong 36,371,075 from fees, subscriptions and extra-subscriptions.
- x/ Not including annual grant to Hong Kong University, included in previous years. In 1954/55 the grant amounted to \$ Hong Kong 6,520,620.
- y/ Not including \$ Hong Kong 46,378,660 from fees, subscriptions and extra-subscriptions.
- z/ It is not known whether private expenditure is included or not.
- aa/ The amount collected from school fees was B.W.I. \$6,434 but it is not specified whether this amount is included or not.
- bb/ Recurrent expenditure only.
- cc/ Expenditure by Government Departments other than Education Department are not known.
- dd/ Excluding private and mission schools which were not assisted.
- ee/ Including 2 Rhodesia 7,809 from fees collected by Mission Institutions.
- ff/ Fees collected by private sector are included.
- gg/ Local authorities received from fees Malayan \$108,000 and Voluntary Agencies Malayan \$2,180,000.
- hh/ Does not include expenditure not controlled by the Department of Education, viz:
 - (a) Expenditure by Public Works Department.
 - (b) Expenditure on Higher Colleges (Raffles College and King Edward VII College of Medicine).
- ii/ Including Malayan \$393,826 from school fees, education rate and miscellaneous.
- jj/ Including Malayan \$1,333,312 from school fees, education rate and miscellaneous.
- kk/ Including B.W.I. \$36,256 from fees and from the sale of needlework.
- ll/ Including B.W.I. \$33,789 from fees and from the sale of handwork.
- mm/ Including 2284,654 from direct fees.
- nn/ The amount collected in Government secondary schools from school fees was approximately B.W.I. \$11,136, but it is not specified whether this amount is included or not.
- oo/ In addition, B.W.I. \$59,374 as Colony's contribution to the University College of the West Indies.

TABLE 3

EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURE IN TERRITORIES UNDER UNITED KINGDOM ADMINISTRATION, BY PURPOSE OF EXPENDITURE, BETWEEN 1946 AND 1956

Territory	Year	Monetary unit	Grand total	Recurrent expenditure										Capital expenditure		
				Total recurrent expenditure	Central administration	Primary education	Secondary education	Vocational education	Teacher training	Higher education	Scholarships	Board and lodging	Other recurrent expenditure			
ADEN, Colony and Protectorate	1946	Pound	65,022
	1955/56	Sterling	389,476 ^{a/}	204,936 ^{a/}	184,540 ^{a/}
BAHAMAS	1946	Pound	66,846 ^{b/}	66,846	-	54,666	5,914	6,266	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	1952	Sterling	192,311	160,328	7,412	103,586	14,994	15,919	6,817	-	-	1,979	-	-	9,621	31,983
	1956	"	389,079 ^{b/}	299,974	89,105
BARBADOS	1946/47	Dollar	945,567 ^{b/a/}	945,567	19,056	693,322	167,462	4,728	-	-	16,954	-	-	-	44,045	...
	1948/49	B.W.I. ^{c/}	1,610,646	1,493,589	42,219	1,079,257	290,773	12,577	11,514	19,512	26,115	-	-	-	11,622	117,057
	1953/54	"	2,686,652	2,417,229	113,243	1,586,975	468,467	12,423	12,443	155,491	68,187	-	-	-	-	269,423
BASUTOLAND	1946	Pound	157,383
	1954	Sterling	259,168	221,330	21,521	143,253	4,228	19,057	16,107	4,500	3,797	-	-	8,867	37,838	
	1956	"	366,556	290,951	75,605	
BECHUANALAND	1945/46	Pound	51,549 ^{b/}	39,744
	1955	Sterling	145,351	120,779	19,825	85,855	9,298	1,341	4,460	-	-	-	-	-	11,806	
	1956	"	199,043	140,012	24,572	
BERMUDA	1946	Pound	110,393 ^{b/}
	1956	Sterling	495,844 ^{b/}	408,095	15,092	232,972	107,146 ^{d/}	14,581	14,531	-	-	7,439	-	-	16,334	87,749
BRITISH GULANA	1948/49	Dollar	2,465,943	2,178,965	70,310	1,563,240	142,248	151,507	25,138	-	37,954	37,200	151,368	296,978	478,404	
	1956	B.W.I. ^{c/}	6,654,766 ^{b/}	6,176,362	
BRITISH HONDURAS	1947	\$ Br. Honduras	251,518 ^{b/}	246,183	-	205,057	37,862	-	-	3,264	-	-	-	-	5,335	
	1955	"	423,712 ^{b/}	423,712	35,767	364,962	11,439	-	6,622	-	-	-	-	4,902	-	
SOLOMON IS.	1956	Pound Australian	
BRUNEI	1947	Dollar	172,806	74,006	98,800
	1956	Malayan	6,792,412	2,829,545	113,299	1,842,777	344,752	400,443	99,279	-	-	-	-	28,995	3,962,867	
CYPRUS	1946/47	Pound	812,570	716,097	7,362	481,801	159,311	10,918	20,639	-	-	-	-	36,066	96,473	
	1955/56	Sterling	2,239,997	1,845,588	30,979	1,167,694	539,578	57,002	50,335	-	-	-	-	-	394,409	
FALKLAND ISLANDS	1947	Pound	7,225	
	1956	Sterling	22,413	16,913	5,500	
FED. OF MALAYA	1947	Dollar	16,836,994 ^{b/}	14,808,679	741,090	8,847,416	2,997,576	238,390	139,379	107,715	224,616	-	-	1,512,497	2,028,315	
	1950	Malayan	33,740,459 ^{b/}	32,086,492	1,656,734	23,349,317	4,123,378	281,571	538,716	175,029	231,019	542,451	1,188,277	1,653,967	1,653,967	
	1954	"	92,233,914 ^{b/}	80,304,505	5,326,301	55,179,559	10,402,778	776,778	2,977,479	121,321	1,512,476	1,225,265	2,782,548	11,929,409	11,929,409	
FIJI	1947	Pound	183,429 ^{b/}	183,429	20,008	116,527	20,470 ^{b/}	1,938	15,248	-	1,120	-	-	8,118	-	
	1954	Fijian	580,805 ^{b/}	568,657	51,172	400,652	27,254	9,341	9,181	-	3,276	58,418	-	9,363	12,148	
	1956	"	891,389 ^{b/}	780,252	18,612	592,216	137,438	8,990	15,853	-	-	-	-	7,143	111,137	
GAMBIA	1947	Pound	23,353 ^{b/}	22,999	3,710	8,677	5,837	-	-	837	132	1,212	-	2,594	354	
	1956	Sterling	140,067	106,532	-	73,354	26,178	-	-	7,000	-	-	-	-	33,535	

TABLE 3 (continued)

Territory	Year	Monetary unit	Grand total	Recurrent expenditure										Capital expenditure	
				Total recurrent expenditure	Central administration	Primary education	Secondary education	Vocational education	Teacher training	Higher education	Scholarships	Board and lodging	Other recurrent expenditure		
GIBRALTAR	1947	Pound	42,673
	1949	Sterling	53,713 ^{b/}	51,234	3,362	20,172	19,143	-	1,909	-	2,351	-	4,297	2,479	
	1956	"	116,970 ^{b/}	93,568	4,500	43,600	32,700	6,444	4,119	-	-	-	2,205	23,402	
GILBERT AND ELLICE	1946	Pound	4,724 ^{b/a/}	4,724	687	3,639	398	...	
	1956	Australian	23,812 ^{b/}	23,512	6,956	8,010	6,642	600	1,000	-	-	-	304	300	
GOLD COAST	1946/47	Pound	846,543 ^{b/}	682,831	163,712	
	1949/50	Sterling	2,193,878 ^{b/}	1,717,850	126,609	908,819	85,791	36,767	155,495	212,370	126,516	8,514	56,969	476,028	
	1954/55	"	7,122,981 ^{b/}	4,709,429	289,466	1,612,280	879,212 ^{a/}	107,220	660,165	950,839	193,317	-	16,930	2,413,552	
HONG KONG	1946/47	\$ Hong Kong	6,542,016 ^{b/}	
	1954/55	"	41,106,047 ^{b/}	37,975,924	2,488,540	17,991,429	7,712,130	746,720	1,154,158	7,118,820	144,233	-	619,894	3,130,123	
	1955/56	"	51,076,730 ^{b/}	40,460,230	3,119,093	24,245,081	9,011,815	1,255,567	1,199,394	- ^{p/}	-	-	1,629,280	10,616,500	
JAMAICA	1946/47	Pound	947,785 ^{b/a/}	...	43,554	613,389	49,702	80,997	
	1950	Sterling	1,577,551 ^{b/}	1,492,848	57,346	812,877	105,723	96,996	19,466	110,254	31,285	67,366	191,535	84,703	
	1955	"	2,755,000 ^{b/}	
KENYA	1946	Pound	797,463 ^{b/}	
	1950	Sterling	2,079,198 ^{b/}	1,320,288	64,494	458,864	201,286	150,125	30,864	12,900	14,510	14,000	249,245	758,910	
	1955/56	"	4,364,167	3,983,556	157,576	2,450,773	852,351	189,350	312,125	-	-	-	23,381	378,611	
LEEWARD ISLANDS	- Antigua	1947	Dollar	116,278 ^{a/}	
	1954	B.W.I. ^{a/}	326,083 ^{b/}	326,088	9,292	263,388	32,049	3,420	3,360	8,160	-	-	6,420	...	
	1955	"	426,087 ^{b/}	426,087	19,003	340,907	36,565	5,431	9,900	-	-	-	14,276	-	
- Montserrat	1947	Dollar	60,610 ^{a/}	
	1952	B.W.I. ^{a/}	105,083 ^{b/}	105,083	3,744	64,556	19,119	-	1,975	-	-	-	15,689	-	
	1956	"	141,684	141,684	6,056	94,692	33,300	-	4,766	-	-	-	2,870	-	
- St. Kitts-Nevis-Anguilla	1946	Dollar	127,003 ^{b/a/}	
	1951	B.W.I. ^{a/}	323,061 ^{b/}	322,291	14,716	256,147	30,154	-	12,781	-	493	-	-	773	
	1956	"	521,683	481,669	16,889	382,563	82,217	-	-	-	-	-	-	40,014	
- Virgin Islands	1948	Dollar	35,306 ^{b/a/}	
	1950	B.W.I. ^{a/}	54,657 ^{b/}	54,657	-	45,261	9,396	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
	1955	"	82,091 ^{b/}	82,091	247	57,849	18,467	-	3,583	-	-	-	1,945	-	
MAURITIUS	1946/47	Rupee	...	2,144,690 ^{b/}	69,958	1,455,475	444,835	-	174,422	-	-	-	-	...	
	1950/51	Mauritius	4,694,041 ^{b/}	4,691,479	109,045	2,535,915	632,238	-	193,723	226,367	-	-	994,191	2,562	
	1955/56	"	13,716,334 ^{b/}	13,159,188	2,557,146	
NIGERIA	1947	Pound	1,540,413 ^{b/}	
	1952/53	Sterling	4,589,444 ^{b/}	
NORTH BORNEO	1947	Dollar	111,400	
	1951	Malayan	393,000 ^{b/}	385,450	91,400	250,514	15,000	500	7,746	-	2,500	-	17,790	7,550	
	1954	"	938,072 ^{b/}	732,925	140,858	471,441	64,968	32,017	-	-	448	99	23,094	209,147	

TABLE 3 (continued)

Territory	Year	Monetary unit	Grand total	Recurrent expenditure										Capital expenditure
				Total recurrent expenditure	Central administration	Primary education	Secondary education	Vocational education	Teacher training	Higher education	Scholarships	Board and lodging	Other recurrent expenditure	
NORTHERN RHODESIA														
- European education	1947	Pound	103,520 ^a	96,637	5,357	49,305 ^f	...	4,160	-	-	1,526	-	36,289	6,883
	1950	Sterling	445,353	304,371	21,500	191,837 ^f	...	4,957	875	-	59,409	25,142	651	140,982
- African education	1948/49	Pound	462,785 ^g	375,881	46,932	218,938	8,061	25,109	27,784	-	2,997	41,117	4,943	86,904
	1955/56	Sterling	2,202,096 ^g	1,716,540	224,149	1,301,782	65,955	80,339	87,281	-	2,034	-	-	440,556
NYASALAND														
1946	Pound	162,101 ^h
	1953/54	Sterling	414,762 ^h	341,160	17,190	225,364	43,539	-	53,765	-	-	-	1,302	73,602
	1954/55	"	600,006 ^h	484,618	33,636	329,530	40,579	25,233	51,612	-	-	-	4,028	115,388
ST. HELENA														
1947	Pound	7,694
1955	Sterling	14,066	14,066	1,655	10,344	-	439	124	-	-	-	-	1,504	-
1956	"	14,500	14,500	-
SARAWAK														
1948	Dollar	1,766,121 ^d
1956	Malayan	9,164,000	8,555,000	290,000	6,167,000	1,600,000	-	208,000	-	-	-	-	290,000	609,000
SEYCHELLES														
1947	Rupee	123,458 ^g
1955	Seychelles	897,249 ^g	754,461	40,998	262,583	191,094	52,731	59,530	-	16,000	-	-	131,525	102,788
SIERRA LEONE														
1946	Pound	101,365 ^h
1950	Sterling	455,492	336,715	28,486	113,527	55,595	18,973	43,243	21,044	14,324	9,702	31,821	119,237	
1956	"	1,618,493	1,198,736	152,973	407,113	217,795	69,883	81,221	181,751	88,000	-	-	419,757	
SINGAPORE														
1946	Dollar	2,146,537 ⁱ	1,642,394	51,780	37,644	953	132,900	504,143
1951	Malayan	22,103,262	17,904,653	905,735	12,689,756	2,548,469	270,034	258,511	24,004	330,729	82,162	795,253	4,198,609	
1955	"	41,140,200	32,246,400	1,258,800	21,798,760	6,523,190	371,850	1,288,700	-	-	-	1,005,100	8,893,800	
SOMALILAND														
1946/47	Pound	17,502 ^a
1956	Sterling	83,145	78,271	8,920	52,367	8,664	5,920	2,400	-	-	-	-	4,874	
SWAZILAND														
1946	Pound	59,730 ^b	50,415	5,140	45,151 ^e	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	124	9,315
1951	Sterling	84,426 ^b	69,663	7,650	47,293 ^e	-	4,526	500	-	1,818	5,464	2,412	14,763	
1956	"	171,108	151,100	-	86,628 ^e	27,752	11,050 ^e	-	-	-	-	25,670 ^e	20,008	
TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO														
1946	Dollar	2,348,510 ^h
1950	B.W.I.	5,226,610 ^h
1955	"	12,219,709	11,453,869	606,791	8,127,441	905,709	291,565	421,983	-	309,920	-	790,460	765,840	
UGANDA														
1946	Pound	369,537 ^h
1949	Sterling	523,320 ^h	502,788	45,570	198,448	146,012	13,535	46,055	250	4,880	-	48,038	20,532	
1956	"	4,551,846	3,570,455	160,438	2,072,796	979,588	14,400	277,527	-	-	-	65,706 ^{aa}	981,391	

TABLE 3 (continued)

Territory	Year	Monetary unit	Grand total	Recurrent expenditure										Capital expenditure
				Total recurrent expenditure	Central administration	Primary education	Secondary education	Vocational education	Teacher training	Higher education	Scholarships	Board and lodging	Other recurrent expenditure	
WINDWARD ISLANDS														
- Dominica	1947	Dollar	117,028 ^{a/}	117,028	8,865	69,135	21,552	-	-	17,476	-	-	-	...
	1954	B.W.I.	319,868 ^{b/}	281,408	17,048	193,742	49,259	-	1,899	-	17,675	-	1,825	38,460
	1956	"	298,387 ^{b/}
- Grenada	1947	Dollar	256,224 ^{b/}
	1956	B.W.I. ^{c/}	624,374	548,114	76,260
- St. Lucia	1947	Dollar	183,801 ^{b/}
	1953	B.W.I. ^{c/}	384,043 ^{d/}	384,043	15,728	273,846	20,300	206	-	12,953	180	-	60,830	...
	1955	"	328,000 ^{d/}
- St. Vincent	1947	Dollar	133,171 ^{d/}
	1952	B.W.I. ^{c/}	290,807 ^{cc/}	290,207	13,133	189,909	42,182	3,147	5,123	8,868	3,216	-	24,629	600
	1956	"	487,638 ^{cc/}	447,419	19,744	332,379	59,173	14,405	9,601	-	-	-	12,117	40,219
ZANZIBAR AND PEMBA														
1949	1956	Pound	150,401	107,237	7,871	44,616	20,039	915	2,270	2,410	1,724	7,001	20,391	43,164
		Sterling	383,725	328,966	17,987	203,115	46,070	29,405	14,883	-	-	-	17,506	54,759

a/ Excluding £84,963 of Local Expenditure.

b/ Public expenditure only.

c/ Converted from Pound Sterling into Dollar B.W.I. by the par value of 4.8 \$ B.W.I. to 1 £.

d/ It is not known whether "Capital expenditure" is included or not.

e/ £5,294 were distributed on scholarships; it is not known whether this sum is included under the different headings or not.

f/ Includes grants to those private schools providing both primary and secondary education.

g/ Excluding Higher Education Scholarships.

h/ Central Government expenditure only.

i/ Education Department expenditure only.

j/ Of which \$87,745,014 from Federal and State/Settlement funds, \$3,406,600 from Public Works Department (Rural and Industrial Development Authority), and \$1,062,299 from Special Development Funds.

k/ Primary and secondary schools combined.

l/ Of which £7,895 by Central Government and £15,460 by non-territorial funds. The breakdown by expenditure of £2,834 Central Government funds, and £1,507 non-territorial funds, is not indicated.

m/ Territorial Revenue Expenditure (Central Government and Local Authorities) only.

n/ Central Government expenditure only, but not included £183,309 paid for the Northern Territories and for which breakdown is not available.

o/ Secondary Education £530,783; Middle Education £348,429.

p/ Not including annual grant to Hong Kong University, included in previous years. In 1954/55 the grant amounted to \$6,520,622.

q/ Does not include expenditure on Hostels (£8,003) and assistance towards Coloured and Asiatic Education (£5,257).

r/ Expenditure for secondary education included under primary education.

s/ Expenditure from Education Department £391,147 and Special Development Funds (£67,875 from Imperial Funds and £3,763 from Colonial Funds), only.

t/ In addition, there were £ Rhodesia 34,000 for recurrent expenditure by missions of which breakdown is not known.

u/ Excluding expenditure of Local Authorities.

v/ Public expenditure only, but excluding expenditure from Government Departments other than Education Department.

(Footnotes continued on next page)

TABLE 3 (continued)

(Footnotes continued from previous page)

- w/ Not including Rs. 144,784 from U.K. funds, of which breakdown is not available.
x/ Of which £4,115 expenditure of primary and secondary schools for Eurafrican Education.
y/ Including teacher training.
z/ Including Administration Costs and Inspection.
aa/ Including post-secondary education.
bb/ Central Government and non-territorial expenditure only.
cc/ In addition, \$59,374 as Colony's contribution to the University College of the West Indies.

COMMENTS

The figures in the column Grand Total are not always the same as the Grand Totals in the table of Educational Expenditure by Source of Finance. The reason for this discrepancy is the fact that the breakdown of Educational Finances by Purpose of Expenditure is not always available for all the sources. Sometimes only the breakdown of Education Department Expenditure is available, in other cases the breakdown of the whole public sector is given, but not of the private sector, etc. Wherever the Grand Total in this table is different from the one in the table by Source of Finance, a footnote explains the difference.

TABLE 4

COLONIAL DEVELOPMENT AND WELFARE FUNDS
GRANTS FOR EDUCATION, 1 APRIL 1946 TO 31 MARCH 1956^{1/}

	<u>To 1 March 1955</u>	<u>1 April 1955 to 31 March 1956</u>	<u>To 31 March 1956</u>
	£	£	£
TOTAL	24,029,855	5,285,552	29,315,407
Primary and secondary education	11,893,766	1,534,918	13,428,684
Technical and vocational education	5,331,146	1,283,667	6,614,813
Higher education	6,804,943	2,466,967	9,271,910

^{1/} United Kingdom: The United Kingdom Colonial Development and Welfare Acts, Central Office of Information, London, 1956. The benefiting Territories include Tanganyika, Malta and Palestine which are covered in the present survey.

TABLE 5
PUBLIC EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION IN TERRITORIES UNDER FRENCH ADMINISTRATION (EXCLUDING MOROCCO AND TUNISIA)
BETWEEN 1948 AND 1956 ^{1/}
(thousand metropolitan francs)

Territory	Year	Monetary unit	Grand total	General Budget			Local Budget			% education- al budget to total budget
				Total general Budget	Public education	Subsidies to private education	Total Local budget	Public education	Subsidies to private education	
COMORO ISLANDS	1948	Metropolitan francs	8,425 ^{a/}	-	-	-	7.3
	1955	"	49,200	49,200	48,000	1,200	-	-	-	10.8
FRENCH EQUATORIAL AFRICA	1948	Metropolitan francs	522,937 ^{a/}	107,482	79,482	28,000	415,505	386,205	29,300	...
	1955	"	1,878,000	256,000	232,000	24,000	1,622,000	1,248,000	374,000	6.8
FRENCH WEST AFRICA	1948	Metropolitan francs	1,885,240 ^{a/}	200,456	1,684,784
	1955	"	10,623,000	1,174,000	1,174,000	-	9,449,000	8,943,000	506,000	8.8
	1956	"	12,451,715 ^{a/b/}	1,873,330	1,873,330	-	10,578,385 ^{b/}	9,920,978 ^{b/}	657,407	...
MADAGASCAR	1948	Metropolitan francs	584,706 ^{a/c/}
	1955	"	3,190,000	840,000	785,000	55,000	2,350,000	2,185,000	165,000	14.7
NEW HEBRIDES	1948	Metropolitan francs	3,740 ^{d/}	-	-	-	...
	1954	"	18,300	18,300	18,000	300	-	-	-	12.2
SOMALILAND	1948	Metropolitan francs	8,840 ^{a/}	8,840	-	-	-	...
	1954	"	89,000	89,000	77,000	12,000	-	-	-	4.9

^{1/} Not including sums spent by "Fonds d'Investissement pour le Développement Economique et Social" (F.I.D.E.S.), which are given separately in 5-year tables, but including non-recurrent expenditure other than those supported by F.I.D.E.S.

^{a/} C.F.A. Francs have been converted into Metropolitan Francs by the par value of 1 C.F.A. frs. = 2 metropolitan frs.

^{b/} Figures incomplete for Niger, Dahomey and Côte d'Ivoire.

^{c/} Of which 10,240,000 frs. subsidies to private education.

^{d/} C.F.P. francs have been converted into Metropolitan Francs by the par value of 1 C.F.P. frs. = 5.5 metropolitan frs.

TABLE 6

MOROCCO: PUBLIC EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION^{1/}
(million metropolitan francs)

Year	Grand total	Recurrent Expenditure		Non-recurrent expenditure	
		Total	% of educational recurrent expenditure to total recurrent expenditure	Total	% of educational recurrent expenditure to total non-recurrent expenditure
1946	859	845	11.8	14	0.5
1953	13,317	9,658	15.5	3,659	10.0

^{1/} France: Annales Statistiques de la Zone Française du Maroc, 1947-48, 1953, and letter of Ministère de l'Instruction Publique et des Beaux Arts, Rabat. Figures concern expenditure of Ministry of Education only.

TABLE 7
TUNISIA: PUBLIC EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION^{1/}
(million metropolitan francs)

Year	Grand total	Recurrent Expenditure								Non-Recurrent Expenditure (Ministry of Public Instruction)	
		Total recurrent expenditure	Ministry of Public Instruction					Other Ministries	% Educational recurrent expenditure to T.R.E.	Total	% Educational non-recurrent expenditure to total non-recurrent expenditure
			Total	Personnel	Material	Grants	Other				
1946	478	10.2	377	5.0
1948	2,092	1,484	1,339	778	79	407	75	145	11.0	608	7.0
1954/55	9,409	8,209	7,474	4,478	368	2,415	213	735	19.6	1,200	8.9
1955/56	9,902	8,902	8,162	4,929	397	2,608	228	740	20.0	1,000	7.8

1/ France: *Annuaire Statistique de la Tunisie*, 1947, 1948, 1954, 1955. The figures above do not refer to the amounts actually spent, but to the sums provided for in the annual budget. They do not include the sums provided for in the budget of the Ministry of Agriculture, under the heading "Service de l'enseignement et des recherches agricoles", which were respectively:

1948 : 44 million francs recurrent expenditure
1954/55: 232 million francs recurrent expenditure and 40 million francs non-recurrent expenditure.
1955/56: 242 million francs recurrent expenditure and 60 million francs non-recurrent expenditure.

TABLE 8

EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION BY THE F.I.D.E.S. DURING THE FIRST PLAN, 1946 - 1953^{1/}
(thousand metropolitan francs)

Territory	Total expenditure		Primary education		Secondary education		Vocational education		Higher education		Other		
	Total	Public education	Private education	Public	Private	Public	Private	Public	Private	Public	Private	Public	Private
COMORO ARCHIPELAGO	161,000	161,000	-	161,000	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
FRENCH EQUATORIAL AFRICA	2,545,658	2,160,381	385,277	354,356	169,677	1,454,530	117,600	197,772	98,000	-	-	153,723	-
FRENCH WEST AFRICA	6,829,022	6,126,522	702,500	68,921	179,500	2,703,302	428,600	2,954,300	94,400	400,000	-	-	-
MADAGASCAR	1,913,430	1,483,510	429,920	344,998	152,420	996,002	65,300	106,020	212,200	32,500	-	-	-
NEW HEBRIDES	29,620	-	29,620	-	29,620	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
SOMALILAND	204,970	183,870	21,100	183,870	21,100	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

^{1/} France: Ministère de la France d'Outre-Mer, Direction de l'Enseignement et de la Jeunesse, Bulletin, déc. 1956, Paris.

TABLE 9

PROGRAMME ALLOCATION FOR EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION BY THE F.I.D.E.S. DURING THE SECOND PLAN
1-7-1953 to 30-6-1957 FOR PUBLIC EDUCATION AND 1-7-1954 to 30-6-1957
FOR PRIVATE EDUCATION ^{1/}
(thousand Metropolitan Francs)

Territory	Total allocation			Primary education		Secondary education		Vocational education		Teacher training		Higher education		Other education	
	Total	Public education	Private education	Public	Private	Public	Private	Public	Private	Public	Private	Public	Private	Public	Private
COMORO ARCHIPELAGO	47,200	34,000	13,200	26,000	13,200	-	-	8,000	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
FRENCH EQUATORIAL AFRICA	2,216,300	1,556,000	660,300	500,000	415,700	742,000	98,300	198,000	20,400	10,000	125,900	-	-	106,000	-
FRENCH WEST AFRICA	5,246,970	4,118,000	1,128,970	1,404,000	756,270	902,000	194,800	138,000	38,900	1,018,000	95,000	540,000	-	116,000	44,000
MADAGASCAR	2,237,900	1,681,600	556,300	-	360,300	631,600	113,000	946,000	69,000	-	-	104,000	-	-	14,000
NEW HEBRIDES	17,600	-	17,600	-	17,600	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
SOMALILAND	39,200	24,600	14,600	24,600	14,600	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

^{1/} Ministère de la France d'Outre-Mer, Direction de l'Enseignement et de la Jeunesse, Bulletin, déc. 1956, Paris.

TABLE 10

PUBLIC EXPENDITURE ON PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION IN TERRITORIES UNDER
U.S.A. ADMINISTRATION, BY SOURCE OF FUNDS, BETWEEN 1946 AND 1956 ^{1/}

(thousand United States dollars)

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Territory	Year	Grand TOTAL	Source of funds			
			State	Local	Federal	Other
ALASKA	1947/48	2,694	1,836	802	56	-
	1953/54	9,673	5,947	1,573	2,154	-
	1955/56	15,988	8,574	4,300	3,114	-
AMERICAN SAMOA	1952	240
GUAM	1953/54	1,896	-	1,896	-	-
	1955/56	2,158 ^{a/}	-	2,158	-	-
HAWAII	1947/48	16,265	13,313	2,721	230	-
	1953/54	25,741	16,520	2,070	3,341	3,810 ^{b/}
	1955/56	28,870	21,785	4,434	2,651	-
PUERTO RICO	1947/48	32,213	24,489	1,500	6,215	-
	1953/54	40,037	-	33,954	6,082	-
VIRGIN ISLANDS	1946/47	390	-	347	43	-
	1953/54	755	-	619	136	-
	1955/56	1,180	-	1,048 ^{c/}	132	-

^{1/} As can be seen by a comparison of the two tables, the total figure given in the table by source of funds is in most cases different from the one given in the table by purpose of expenditure. No explanation is provided in the source material for this discrepancy.

^{a/} Recurrent expenditure only.

^{b/} Of which \$1,611,000 from balances on hand at beginning of year and \$2,081,000 from balance of bonds issued during year for new capital outlay, and \$118,000 from tuition and transportation fees.

^{c/} From general funds.

TABLE 11

PUBLIC EXPENDITURE ON PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION IN TERRITORIES UNDER
U.S.A. ADMINISTRATION, BY PURPOSE OF EXPENDITURE, BETWEEN 1946 AND 1956

(in thousand United States dollars)

Territory	Year	Grand total	Recurrent expenditure										Non-recurrent expenditure	Other
			Total Recurrent	Adminis- tration	Instruc- tion	Opera- tion	Main- tenance	Auxiliary services	Fixed charges	Other schools	Miscel- laneous	Community services		
ALASKA	1947/48	2,694	2,414	117	1,740	288	49	143	77	-	-	-	275	5 ^{a/}
	1953/54	9,673	8,409	701	5,763	1,030	191	-	213	511	-	-	987	277 ^{a/}
	1955/56	15,938
AMERICAN SAMOA	1952	240	237	3	-
GUAM	1953/54	2,168	1,694	44	1,346	178	36	-	-	81	84 ^{b/}	9	390 ^{c/}	-
	1955/56	...	2,158	-
HAWAII	1947/48	16,265	15,343	450	12,272	825	840	955	1	-	-	-	839	83 ^{a/}
	1953/54	25,741	23,320	566	17,265	1,272	1,360	-	1,419	1,431	244 ^{d/}	7	2,007	414 ^{a/}
	1955/56	28,870	26,283	617	20,008	1,449	1,516	-	1,523	1,170	-	-	1,601	986 ^{a/}
PUERTO RICO	1947/48	32,213	23,393	1,335	14,145	612	271	6,306	724	-	-	-	1,257	7,563 ^{a/}
	1953/54	41,142	39,660	3,619	21,514	1,397	240	-	2,568	8,458	-	1,864	1,482	-
VIRGIN ISLANDS	1946/47	390
	1953/54	755
	1955/56	1,180

a/ Sum "non-allocated".

b/ Of which \$29,000 for Adult Education and \$55,000 for Community Colleges.

c/ Capital improvement expenditure of \$3,242,800 are mentioned, covering probably a period of several years.

d/ Adult education.

TABLE 12

PUBLIC EXPENDITURE ON HIGHER EDUCATION IN TERRITORIES UNDER U.S.A. ADMINISTRATION,
BY SOURCE OF FUNDS, BETWEEN 1947 AND 1954 ^{1/}

(thousand United States dollars. Details do not necessarily add to total because of rounding)

Territory	Year	Monetary unit	Grand total	Current Income								Plant fund
				Total current income	Federal	State	Local	Private Gifts, Endowments, Earnings, etc.	Internal sources (fees, auxiliary enterprises, etc.)	For scholarships	Other sources	Receipts
ALASKA	1947/48	\$ U.S.A.	639	639	119	264	-	6	227	-	23	-
	1953/54	"	2,545	2,002	495	1,026	-	22	326	11	122	543
GUAM	1953/54	\$ U.S.A.	80	80	57	-	-	-	23	-	-	-
HAWAII	1947/48	\$ U.S.A.	3,865	3,678	580	1,908	-	56	938	-	196	187
	1953/54	"	5,533	5,393	563	2,539	-	45	1,863	177	204	140
PUERTO RICO	1947/48	\$ U.S.A.	6,639	5,917	792	3,447	-	45	1,463	-	170	722
	1953/54	"	12,845	12,043	1,185	7,948	-	127	1,848	511	419	802

^{1/}

As can be seen by a comparison of the two tables, the total figure given in the table by source of funds is in most cases different from the one given in the table by purpose of expenditure. No explanation is provided in the source material for this discrepancy.

TABLE 13
 PUBLIC EXPENDITURE ON HIGHER EDUCATION IN TERRITORIES UNDER U.S.A. ADMINISTRATION
 BY PURPOSE OF EXPENDITURE, BETWEEN 1947 AND 1954
 (thousand United States dollars. Details do not necessarily add to total because of rounding)

Territory	Year	Monetary unit	Grand Total	Current Fund Expenditures											Additions to physical plant
				Total	Adminis- tration	Instruc- tion	Organized research	Extension and public services	Libraries	Maintenance and physical plant	Related activities	Scholar- ships	Auxiliary enterprises	Other non- educational expenses	
ALASKA	1947/48	\$ U.S.	627	608	59	135	59	34	2	88	3	-	213	15	19
	1953/54	"	2,269	1,964	166	477	615	176	25	250	19	7	229	-	275
GUAM	1953/54	\$ U.S.	80	80	19	51	-	5	1	4	-	-	-	-	-
HAWAII	1947/48	\$ U.S.	3,880	3,588	237	1,186	595	548	171	183	83	-	566	19	292
	1953/54	\$ U.S.	5,414	5,059	398	1,838	-	788	175	385	882	109	484	-	355
PUERTO RICO	1947/48	\$ U.S.	8,692	6,518	717	2,031	1,079	686	148	619	95	-	514	629	2,174
	1953/54	"	12,678	11,339	1,569	3,361	1,664	1,477	240	1,456	143	625	802	-	1,339

TABLE 14

PAPUA: EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURE BY SOURCE OF FINANCE, BETWEEN 1946 AND 1956 ^{1/}
(Australian pounds)

Year	Grand Total	Public (Dept. of Education only)			Private	% of Education Department expenditure to total expenditure of Territory
		Total	From territorial funds	From metropolitan funds	Voluntary agencies, missions, etc.	
1946/47	...	36,695	1.6
1948/49	145,031	117,214	67,778	49,436	27,817	4.8
1953/54	222,651	178,294	44,357	5.5
1954/55	...	221,108	5.8
1955/56	335,743	246,663	89,080	...

^{1/} Education Department expenditure is given in the general table "Public Finance Expenditure out of Revenue", including the metropolitan funds. Capital expenditure on education seems not to be included under Department of Education expenditure; there is in the same table an item "Capital Works" which seems to include the capital expenditure of all the government departments.

BELGIAN CONGO: PUBLIC EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION ^{1/}

A. Recurrent Expenditure Credits: (thousand Belgian francs)

<u>1948</u>	<u>1949/52</u>	<u>1953</u>	<u>1954</u>	<u>1955</u>	<u>1956</u>	<u>1957</u>
177,992	1,465,388	721,489	772,717	911,423	1,151,276	1,420,551

B. Expenditure on Construction and Equipment of Schools by the Native Welfare Fund
(Fonds du Bien-Etre Indigène)

Committed Expenditure: (thousand Belgian francs)

	<u>1949-52</u>	<u>1953</u>	<u>1954</u>	<u>1955</u>
TOTAL	194,430	37,642	43,748	36,406
Primary education	18,027	3,076	3,649	12,598
Vocational education				
Domestic science	58,491	10,182	24,110	10,123
Other vocational	29,168	10,672	8,715	4,325
Teacher training	88,744	13,712	7,274	9,361

^{1/} Belgium: Annuaire Statistiques de la Belgique et du Congo Belge, Tomes 70-76, Bruxelles;
and Fonds du Bien-Etre Indigène (F.B.I.), Rapports de Gestion 1948, 1952, 1953,
1954, 1955.

TABLE 16

GREENLAND: PUBLIC EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION, INCLUDING ECCLESIASTICAL AFFAIRS, IN GREENLAND BETWEEN 1947/48 AND 1952/53 1/
 (thousand Danish kroner)

	<u>1947/48</u>	<u>1952/53</u>	
Grand total	1,727.5	6,465.3	
Total recurrent expenditure	1,405.8	5,391.7	} <u>Recurrent Expenditure</u>
Personnel	670.6	2,215.8	
Operating expenditure, maintenance.	491.8	2,216.2	
Greenlanders education in Denmark	27.4	523.6	
Common cultural purposes	21.3	261.9	
Other expenditure	104.3	26.4	
Interest and depreciation	90.4	147.8	
Capital investment	321.7	1,073.6	

1/ It was impossible to separate expenditure for ecclesiastical affairs from expenditure on education in 1947/48. For 1952/53 the separate figures for education only are:

	<u>1952/53</u>
Total	4,945.6
Recurrent expenditure	4,045.1
Non-recurrent expenditure	900.5

TABLE 17

PUBLIC EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION IN TERRITORIES UNDER NEW ZEALAND
ADMINISTRATION, BETWEEN 1946 AND 1956

(New Zealand Pounds)

Territory	Year	TOTAL	Recurrent	Non-recurrent
COOK ISLANDS	1946/47	19,796
	1956/57	128,471	91,222	37,249
NIUE ISLAND	1956/57	36,517	26,243	10,274
TOKELAU ISLANDS	1950/51	201
	1956	3,026

III. GROWTH OF PRIMARY EDUCATION TOWARDS THE GOAL OF FREE COMPULSORY SCHOOLING

185. The principle of free and compulsory education is embodied in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights: "Everyone has the right to education. Education shall be free, at least in the elementary and fundamental stages. Elementary education shall be compulsory". The goal of making primary schooling available to all children is one which has been accepted by the authorities in all Territories. Progress during the past decade may therefore be measured in part by the extent to which this goal has been achieved. It is obvious, however, that differences between Territories are considerable, both in terms of existing social and economic conditions and in respect of the decisions taken by government as to the desirable rate of expansion. Before examining the quantitative growth of primary schooling, it is therefore necessary to review briefly the main types of problem confronting the authorities.

A. Difficulties encountered

186. Perhaps the main difficulty, not confined to Non-Self-Governing Territories, is the shortage of funds. In a general form, the question arises of the relative importance of economic and social development in development programmes. Most Territories, especially those under Belgian, United Kingdom and French administration, have adopted the practice of working to development plans; and these documents contain useful evidence of the policy projected for each Territory^{22/}. It may be noted that the less developed the Territory is, the greater the need for concentrating resources on the basic economic structure (communications, agriculture, etc.), so that progress in educational services is likely to be slowest in areas where the need is greatest.

187. Within the educational system there are competing demands for available funds. The several levels of schooling (primary, secondary, higher) as well as the specialized forms (teacher training, technical and vocational) are very much interrelated. When funds are limited, the allocation to these several purposes becomes a delicate matter of judgement. Thus, for example,

^{22/} For a fundamental discussion of policy issues, see for example, Kenya, The Development Programme, 1954-1957, Nairobi, 1955.

the Gold Coast development plan for 1946 to 1956 was first based on this assumption: "The main objective of policy is to develop a balanced system working towards universal primary education as rapidly as consideration of finance and of teacher-training permit, but maintaining at the same time proportionate facilities for further education for those most fitted to receive it".^{23/} However, when the plan was re-phased in 1951, and an Accelerated Plan adopted, the emphasis shifted from a "balanced system" to a more speedy achievement of primary schooling for all children, and funds were accordingly diverted from other levels.

188. It has been a common experience also for planners to see their estimates falsified by rising costs of salaries, material and equipment. Periodic revisions of teachers' salaries have been reported by most Territories, and since the salary item is the largest element of the education budget, this circumstance has represented a difficulty for administrators. Yet it must be borne in mind also that an adequately paid teaching service is itself a desirable goal, and a necessary one if the profession is to attract good recruits.

189. The expansion of the school-age population, caused by rising birth-rates at the end of the Second World War, and by progress in reducing infant mortality, has also become a problem during the past decade. The island Territories (in the Caribbean and the Indian and Pacific Oceans) have been particularly conscious of demographic changes because in many the goal of universal primary education was already within sight in 1946, but progress since then has seemed slow. The authorities in Mauritius remarked in 1953^{24/} that the race between population and enrolment was still indecisive. With four children out of five at school, territorial resources were strained to the limit.

190. It is likely also that the composition of education budgets has changed since 1946. School meals, or at least the provision of milk; and health services have become increasingly important items of expenditure. While all Territories have not been able to provide for these ancillary services, the fact remains that the educational authorities are generally convinced of their importance. In some cases (British Guiana is an example), it has been found that attendance

^{23/} Gold Coast, Department of Education, Report for the year 1949-50, Accra, p.6.

^{24/} Mauritius: Department of Education, Report for 1953, p. 6.

has improved as a direct result of school milk provision. In Territories under United States administration, the national school lunch programme has been progressively adopted during the past ten years. This is supported by federal funds from the United States Department of Agriculture, under a system by which schools are reimbursed between two and nine cents for each meal served.

191. Apart from financial aspects, there is a broader range of economic factors which have tended to impede progress towards universal primary schooling. The child's place in the family economy is well recognized in agricultural areas, and many Territories have reported the difficulty of ensuring regular attendance during harvest seasons or (where boys herd cattle) throughout the year. Moreover, schooling may mean more than losing a useful hand in the home - it involves direct and indirect costs to the parents - tuition fees in one case, clothing and general maintenance in the other.

192. The attitude of parents to schooling is a factor of great importance. While the demand for schools is ahead of provisions in some cases, other Territories record the problem of overcoming parental resistance to sending children to school. Reasons for this are social as well as economic: an appreciation of the advantages of schooling, especially where girls are concerned, does require a certain level of educational attainment on the parents' part. When family conditions are unsettled through migrant labour, or where the entire family moves with a pattern of shifting cultivation or nomadism, it is no easy matter to develop a stable school system. In parts of Africa the population is scattered over a wide area with few centres of even village importance. The problem here is one of siting a school and of the distance over difficult terrain, which pupils must cover to come to school. Communications and weather are obstacles to regular attendance in most Territories. Under such circumstances, the need for parents to be fully convinced of the usefulness of schooling becomes the greater. Wastage in the school system and a high rate of absenteeism indicate, among other things, a public dissatisfaction with the school system or a lack of interest which produces the same results. During the past decade education authorities in the Territories have increasingly turned their attention to measures, such as local participation in control, improvement of the curriculum and of teaching methods, and parent-teacher groups, all designed to make the primary school a recognized part of the community.

B. A statistical view of progress, 1946 to 1956

193. Four detailed tables at the end of this section give the basic figures for schools and pupils in Territories respectively under United Kingdom, French, United States and other administrations.

194. For the purposes of tracing progress, the number of schools is not a satisfactory indicator. Apart from variations in the interpretation of the term "school", it may well happen that schools decrease in numbers while enrolments rise. This happened during the past decade, for example, in the Bahamas, French Somaliland and Greenland. In the first two Territories, increases in the number and size of public schools have been more than offset by the disappearance of small private schools. In Greenland the authorities had actively pursued the policy of establishing central schools, with the result that the total of small outlying schools had diminished.

195. Progress in primary schooling may therefore best be measured by changes in enrolment. From the statistics in tables 18-21 it is possible to derive the average annual rate of change in enrolment which the figures for an early and a recent year in the decade represent (this is the geometric progression or compound interest formula used earlier in the educational finance section).

196. The annual rise in enrolment will show how fast the primary school system is expanding. But to relate this to the goal of universal primary schooling, one needs to know also the size of the entire school-age population. The necessary demographic data over the past ten years are not available for most Territories, so that a year-by-year comparison of enrolments with total population cannot be presented. However, a recent UNESCO study^{25/} estimates a useful indicator for the period 1950-1954, and this indicator may be quoted here. It is the primary education ratio, a number expressing primary school enrolment as a percentage of the estimated population 5 to 14 years old. Since the age-span is ten years, and most primary school courses last a shorter time (the most common is six years) the ratio will seldom rise above 60 or 70. Roughly a ratio of 50 or upward indicates that the primary school system is developed enough to provide places for most or all children of relevant age.

^{25/} UNESCO: World Survey of Education: II Primary Education, Paris, 1958
pp. 58-60.

197. The ratio is shown in the summary tables below in order to give perspective to the figure reflecting expansion of the school system. Clearly, when nearly all children of primary school age are enrolled, the rate of further progress will tend to be slower.

198. United Kingdom Administration: It will be noted that table 18 accounts for enrolment in all types of school: government or local authority, aided, and unaided private schools. For the assessing of progress, total enrolments may be taken. For most Territories unaided private schools appear to have lost ground over the past decade - either through being up-graded and becoming eligible for grants, or through being closed. Calculations based upon the total enrolments are thus likely to be conservative estimates of the expansion of the public and public-aided school system.

199. For all Territories under United Kingdom administration, the growth of primary school enrolments may be summarized as follows:

United Kingdom territories: Growth in primary school enrolments

<u>Region</u>	<u>No. of territories</u>	<u>Average rise over decade (per cent)</u>	<u>Average rise per year (per cent)</u>
Africa	13	90	6.8
British West Indies	15	29	3.5
Far East	6	108	8.8
Indian Ocean	3	61	5.0
Pacific Ocean	3	125	7.3
Mediterranean	2	42	3.7
Other: Falklands	1	16	1.6
St. Helena	1	28	4.0
All	44	66	5.2

This table shows a steady rise of enrolments as well as obvious differences between regions. The second column contains simple averages for the Territories concerned and does not take account of actual enrolments in each Territory. Each of the groups may now be analysed in further detail.

200. African Territories (United Kingdom): Within this region there have been very wide variations in the rate of expansion of primary school enrolments. The relevant figures are:

United Kingdom: Growth in primary school enrolments in African Territories

<u>Territory</u>	<u>Percentage increase per year in enrolments 1946-1956</u>	<u>Primary enrolment ratio, 1950-54</u>
Somaliland	14.0	...
Nigeria	13.5	13
Gold Coast	10.5	42
Swaziland	8.4	31
Sierra Leone	8.4	8
Kenya	7.9	27
Gambia	7.5	6
Zanzibar	7.0	13
Uganda	4.7	30
Basutoland	2.3	61
Northern Rhodesia	1.6	...
Nyasaland	1.5	39
Bechuanaland	1.5	24

Here it appears that progress in at least eight Territories (7 per cent rise a year and more) has been rapid. Towards the end of the period the primary enrolment ratio in Gold Coast reached 42, while Swaziland and Kenya were around 30. In other Territories of rapid expansion, the proportion of children at school was still low in 1950-1954, but was likely to improve steadily, because enrolments were increasing at a much faster rate than the population. In the lower part of the table are some Territories - notably Basutoland - where the enrolment ratio has reached a satisfactory level. Among these territories with a slow rate of expansion, at least three (Northern Rhodesia, Nyasaland, Uganda) have undertaken considerable administrative and educational reforms during the period, placing the emphasis on quality (local participation in control, reduction of wastage, etc.) rather than on quantity.

201. Caribbean Territories (United Kingdom): These Territories were far closer to the goal of free compulsory education at the beginning of the period than were Territories in other regions. The annual rate of expansion during the decade has been relatively less than in African Territories; and variations between individual Territories have also been less pronounced.

United Kingdom: Growth in primary school enrolments in the Caribbean region

<u>Territory</u>	<u>Percentage increase per year in enrolments 1946-1956</u>	<u>Primary enrolment ratio, 1950-1954</u>
Trinidad	4.6	80
British Guiana	4.5	81
British Honduras	4.0	75
Bahamas	3.2	92
Leeward Islands - Virgin Islands	5.3	93
- Antigua	4.7	
- St. Kitts	1.8	
- Montserrat	-	
Windward Islands- St. Lucia	4.4	74
- St. Vincent	3.3	
- Dominica	3.0	
- Grenada	-	
Barbados	2.3	68
Jamaica	2.2	65
Bermuda	2.1	92

202. The primary enrolment ratios are uniformly high. In some islands with small populations, the undifferentiated all-age school is still the rule, so that the primary school enrolments used for calculating the ratio contain a considerable number of post-primary pupils. Nevertheless, it is evident that these Territories in the Caribbean are close to providing primary school places for all their children, and that noticeable progress has been made since 1946.

203. Asian Territories (United Kingdom): All six Territories in this region have been characterized by a rapid growth of primary school enrolments, with an obvious effect on the enrolment ratio. It should be noted that the private sector of schooling has contributed to this favourable situation.

United Kingdom: Growth in primary school enrolments in Asian Territories

<u>Territory</u>	<u>Percentage increase per year in enrolments 1946-1956</u>	<u>Primary enrolment ratio 1950-1954</u>
Hong Kong	11.4	44
Singapore	11.0	53
Brunei	10.0	59 (estimate for 1955)
Sarawak	8.0	29
North Borneo	7.4	24
Malaya, Federation of	5.0	48

The figures for Malaya are based on the period 1949-1954, and therefore do not reflect the early phase of rapid reconstruction after the war nor the trends of most recent years.

204. Other Territories (United Kingdom): Corresponding figures for the remaining territories are:

United Kingdom: Growth in primary school enrolments, other Territories

<u>Territory</u>	<u>Percentage increase per year in enrolments 1946-1956</u>	<u>Primary enrolment ratio 1950-1954</u>
Indian Ocean - Mauritius	6.2	61
- Aden	5.65	18
- Seychelles	3.2	58
Pacific Ocean - Gilbert and Ellice	0.7	96
- Fiji	3.7	71
- Solomon Islands	3.4	...
Mediterranean - Gibraltar	4.3	78
- Cyprus	3.1	65
Other - Falkland Islands	1.6	...
- St. Helena	4.0	...

In this varied group of Territories there has been steady progress over the past decade, leading in a number of cases to a satisfactory enrolment ratio. In the Gilbert and Ellice Islands the enrolment ratio is high because of the prevalence of all-age schools; in 1946 the large majority of pupils accounted for (77 per cent) were enrolled in unaided private schools, and by 1956 this percentage dropped to 2 per cent. The slow rise in total enrolments during the decade therefore conceals the very considerable rise in government and aided school provision.

205. French Administration. Table 19 gives basic data on schools and enrolments in seven Territories under French administration. In several cases it is possible to include also the figures on examination results: the primary school leaving certificate, certificat d'études primaires élémentaires (CEPE) and the secondary school entrance examination (entrée en 6e). Such figures provide a useful indication of the effectiveness and holding power of the primary school.

206. The derived information for these Territories may be presented in a single table:

French Territories: Growth in primary school enrolments

<u>Territory</u>	<u>Percentage increase per year in enrolments 1946-1956</u>	<u>Primary enrolment ratio 1950-1954</u>
French Equatorial Africa	17.1	10
Morocco	13.4	10
French West Africa	12.1	5
Tunisia	9.0	20
Madagascar	6.1	26
Comoro Archipelago	4.2	...
Somaliland	4.2	9

This table shows a rapid rate of progress during the decade - the average annual rise in enrolments for the seven Territories being 9.4 per cent. Since the total population is likely to rise by about 2 per cent or 3 per cent per year, all the Territories have developed school facilities in excess of the population growth. By 1950-1954, primary enrolment ratios were still low in all cases but if the trend of rapid expansion continues, the situation will steadily improve.

207. United States Administration. Table 20 shows school and enrolment figures for six Territories under United States administration. Where total public and private enrolments are known, the annual percentage rise can be based on these figures; otherwise (Alaska and Guam) the calculation must be based on public school enrolments alone. The relevant figures are:

United States territories: Growth of primary school enrolments

<u>Territory</u>	<u>Percentage increase per year in enrolments 1946-1956</u>	<u>Primary enrolment ratio 1950-1954</u>
Alaska	17.4	...
Puerto Rico	4.7	66
American Samoa	4.6	94
Hawaii	4.5	87
Guam	2.1	...
Virgin Islands	2.0	93

208. The very high rate of expansion recorded in Alaska has been due to corresponding increases in the population, mainly through immigration. The other Territories show steady but less spectacular advances. In all cases the primary enrolment ratio is high.

209. Other Territories. For Territories under Australian, Belgian, Danish and New Zealand administration, table 21 gives the basic statistics. The derived figures are:

Other territories: Growth in primary school enrolments

<u>Territory</u>	<u>Percentage increase per year in enrolments 1946-1956</u>	<u>Primary enrolment ratio 1950-1954</u>
Papua	3.7	...
Belgian Congo	3.9	37
Greenland	1.8	71
Cook Islands	2.0	...

210. There has been progress in the first two Territories, resulting in a rising enrolment ratio. In Greenland (1946-1953) and the Cook Islands,

enrolment was already high at the beginning of the period and expansion of the school system has simply kept pace with population growth.

C. Wastage

211. The preceding section has traced the growth of primary school enrolments in the Territories. These global figures indicate the efforts made by educational authorities to provide school places and to move towards the goal of universal primary schooling. However, it is necessary to complement this view by examining also the question of how long the average child stays at school.

212. From available statistics, it appears that in the rapidly growing school systems, particularly those of African and Asian Territories, there has been a characteristic distribution of pupils in the primary grades: the great bulk are found in lowest two grades, and thereafter numbers dwindle fast.

A previous study of this question by UNESCO^{26/} drew attention to the problem and provided a statistical approach to the measurement of wastage in the school system. In brief, wastage results from two factors: dropping out, where children leave school before progressing far up the ladder, and failure, where pupils are not promoted to the next grade but are kept back to repeat the year's work one or more times. The effect of these two practices is a school system where most of the pupils are found in the lowest grades. Few stay on long enough to complete the course successfully. Since it is only by mastering four or more years of the primary curriculum that a pupil becomes permanently literate, one may claim that a high degree of wastage represents an uneconomic use of resources, both human and material.

213. Some examples are given below of the incidence of wastage in Non-Self-Governing Territories. It should be remarked at the outset that progress in combating wastage is difficult to adduce from available statistics. But the educational authorities in Territories have become increasingly aware of the problem. The gathering of statistics necessary for measuring wastage has improved steadily, and several Territories have undertaken surveys or studies which have led to remedial measures.

214. Statistics of two types may be used for examining the extent of wastage - those giving the number of pupils who successfully complete the course and those showing the distribution of pupils by grade. Of the former type, data are

^{26/} United Nations, Special Study on Educational Conditions in Non-Self-Governing Territories, New York, 1956, Chapter VIII "Stagnation of primary school pupils". /...

available only for the Territories under French administration. In table 19, along with total enrolments will be found also the number of pupils who entered for and passed the examination at the end of primary school and the corresponding examination for entering secondary school. The gaps in the table preclude any survey of trends over the past ten years, but certain derived figures may be quoted to show the extent of the problem in recent years.

French territories: primary school examinations

- For every 100 school enrolments -

<u>Territory</u>	<u>Number entering</u> <u>CEPE</u>	<u>Number passing</u>	<u>Number taking</u> <u>entree en 6e</u>	<u>Number passing</u>
French Equatorial Africa (1955/56)	2
French West Africa (1955/56)	6	3	3	1
Madagascar ... (1955/56)	3	1
Morocco (1946/47)	7	4
(1953/54)	3	2
Somaliland ... (1955/56)	5	2	3	1
Tunisia (1946/47)	4	2	2	1
(1954/55)	5	2	6	2

If pupils were evenly distributed over the grades of the primary school (6 to 8), between 12 and 16 of each 100 should be completing the course. Moreover, of those who did complete the course and take the CEPE, somewhat fewer than half passed.

215. A similar situation is revealed by the second type of statistics - distribution of pupils by grade - which are available for most Territories under United Kingdom administration. In the study "Stagnation of primary school pupils" already cited, several Territories are analysed in this way. Thus, for example, in Nyasaland for each 100 boys enrolled in Grade 1 in 1947, there were only 19 in Grade 5 in 1951. Progress has occurred, for of each 100 boys enrolled in Grade 1 in 1950, there were 46 in Grade 5 in 1955. Corresponding figures for girls are less favourable, but also indicate improvement.

/...

216. From studies reported by territorial authorities, such as those of British Honduras, Northern Rhodesia, Puerto Rico, and Zanzibar, it is evident that wastage in the broad sense is connected with a number of educational questions. In regard to premature school-leaving a Zanzibar study^{27/} showed that African boys dropped out of primary school classes for a variety of reasons: movement of family (26 per cent of cases), parents uninterested (24 per cent), truancy (13 per cent), employment (22 per cent), marriage, illness, decease, over-age, distance from school (together 15 per cent). These figures reveal that "the attitude of parents to the school and their control of their children are major factors in the occurrence of wastage".^{28/} In turn, lack of interest by parents and children may stem from educational as well as social or economic causes. When the school curriculum is unrelated to life, the quality of teaching is poor, or the pupil fails repeatedly to be promoted, public neglect of the school is inevitable. Many of the reform measures reported by Territories have in fact been designed to bring the school closer to the community, and thereby deal with the wastage problem at its roots.

217. Retardation or non-promotion is another important element in wastage. It may be noted that the Zanzibar authorities, following their study of dropping out, adopted a policy of automatic promotion. But this led to such wide differences in pupils' attainments that classroom teaching suffered, and the experiment was abandoned. Experience in Northern Rhodesia, however, has pointed the other way. After examining the question for some years the authorities in 1951 introduced automatic promotion subject to satisfactory attendance during the year. It seems now, by comparing enrolments by grade before and after 1951, that this measure has encouraged pupils to remain on at school i.e., less retardation has been associated with less dropping out. Applying a device developed by UNESCO to the grade enrolments in Northern Rhodesia for each year between 1946 and 1956, the following results are obtained:

^{27/} Zanzibar: Legislative Council, Sessional Paper No. 2 of 1955.

^{28/} UNESCO: World Survey of Education: II Primary Education, page 1119

Northern Rhodesia: wastage rates in African schools
(grades 1 to 4)

		<u>Failure</u>	<u>Dropping out</u>
		<u>Percentage of grade enrolment</u>	<u>Percentage of grade enrolment</u>
Boys	1946-1951	between 31.5 and 41.5	between 16 and 19.5
	1951-1956	" 2 and 7	" 1 and 2
Girls	1946-1951	" 46 and 52	" 21.5 and 24.5
	1951-1956	" 18 and 29	" 9.5 and 13

The table indicates definite progress during the period. It should be noted that the improvement is not a simple matter of cause and effect. In Northern Rhodesia as in other Territories the reduction of wastage has involved a complex set of measures, some legal and administrative, others affecting the school curriculum and the training of teachers. These topics are treated separately in sections below, but their relation to the problem of wastage should be borne in mind.

D. Legislation

218. As has been remarked earlier, the principle of universal compulsory education is generally recognized in Non-Self-Governing Territories: delay in putting the principle into practice has depended more upon the resources available (funds, teachers, buildings) than upon the unwillingness of the authorities to accept the principle. Reports over the past ten years show a common awareness of the difficulty of enacting legislation for compulsory attendance before there are enough school places to accommodate all the children of school age. The original idea of legal compulsion may well have been to oblige unwilling parents to send their children to school - traces of this still survive in parts of some Territories - but for the most part, the situation has changed in the decade 1946-1956. The demand for schooling outstrips the supply (despite the incidence of wastage) and legislative action now has more reference to the authorities than to the parents. It represents an engagement to ensure that there are enough school places. The trend has therefore been to follow a policy of gradualism.

219. The Committee on Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories has suggested a four-stage programme which takes these considerations into account.^{29/}

- (a) Compulsory regular attendance of those enrolled.
- (b) Minimum and maximum ages for each grade.
- (c) Compulsory enrolment in places or areas where facilities exist.
- (d) Universal compulsory attendance.

The first two of these measures are designed also to ensure a better grade placement of pupils i.e., they combat dropping out and retardation, and thus contribute to a more efficient use of existing facilities. Moreover, short of full compulsory attendance, the measures may be applied in selected areas within the Territory.

220. African Territories (United Kingdom). No legal measures were taken during the decade in East or West African Territories. It may be recalled that Kenya in 1942 introduced compulsory education for all European children aged 4 to 15 years and for Asian children aged 7 to 15 in the main towns.

221. On the other hand, Territories in Central and Southern Africa have reported a variety of measures corresponding to the first three steps suggested by the Committee on Information. Nyasaland in 1950 introduced compulsory education rules for African children between the ages of 12 and 16 in the Copperbelt (i.e. for urban communities where a school existed within three miles of the home). Various local authorities in rural areas also adopted compulsory attendance rules. By 1951, however, problems of accommodation had led to the suspension of compulsory education in the Copperbelt. The three High Commission Territories have all introduced measures limiting entry to school to one period (the beginning of the school year) with the exclusion of under-age pupils or of pupils who have very poor attendance records; and automatic promotion has been started in Basutoland and Swaziland.

222. Caribbean Territories (United Kingdom). In this region where enrolment ratios are generally high, statutory provision for compulsory education existed in most Territories before 1946. Little legislative action was recorded between 1946 and 1956. In a number of Territories the law cannot be enforced because of lack of accommodation; and elsewhere (notably Barbados, which has a very high

^{19/} For a fundamental discussion of policy issues, see, for example, Kenya, The Development Programme, 1954-1957, Nairobi, 1955.

percentage of children of school age enrolled at school), it is felt that a compulsory law is not necessary. Some details may be given of the present situation.

223. In the Bahamas and Bermuda schooling is compulsory between the ages of 6-14 and 7-13 years respectively. The latter Territory hopes to raise the leaving age when circumstances permit. Among the smaller islands, Antigua and St. Kitts have compulsory education between 5 and 13 years of age. Dominica, St. Lucia and St. Vincent have not enforced the laws which exist. In Grenada, compulsory education was put into effect in three districts in 1952.

224. Both British Guiana and British Honduras have compulsory education (ages 6-14 and 6-13 respectively). In the former case, compulsion has nominally been in force since 1896. Despite steady improvements in recent years, the attendance rate (estimated at 75 per cent) is still not satisfactory.^{30/} In British Honduras the Governor is empowered to declare compulsory education areas around government and aided schools.

225. In Trinidad, a Compulsory Education Ordinance was applied in 1945 to the whole Territory; it affects children of 6 to 12 years of age living within two miles from school. Jamaica has followed a partial approach; by 1954 the compulsory law had been applied in sixteen defined areas of the Island, but involved only children between 7 and 15 whose names appeared on school registers.

226. Asian Territories (United Kingdom). With one exception, these Territories do not have any compulsory legislation, and report that the main problem is that of meeting the demand for school places. In Malaya, under the Education Ordinance 1952, primary education was made compulsory. However, this part of the law could not be enforced for lack of teachers, accommodation and money.

227. Other Territories (United Kingdom). In the Mediterranean Territories, the Government of Cyprus has powers (under the 1933 Act) to introduce compulsion, but has not done so. The Gibraltar authorities have since 1951 followed the British pattern of compulsory full-time attendance for all children from 5 to 15 years of age. A full-time attendance officer was appointed in 1954.

^{30/} For a full discussion of the problem, see British Guiana: Department of Education, Annual Report for the year 1948-1949, page 8.

228. In the Indian Ocean, no relevant laws have been passed in Aden. The two Territories of Mauritius and Seychelles have been working actively towards compulsory education. In Mauritius a pilot compulsory scheme was introduced in three areas in 1950, and legislation allows for the extension of the scheme. Several other measures were adopted in 1953: entry to school was limited to certain age groups and promotion became automatic. Seychelles in 1949 introduced a compulsory attendance order, and in 1953 limited admission to children under eight years of age. Automatic promotion has become the rule.

229. In Fiji the 1929 Ordinance provides for compulsory education but it has not been enforced. The Fijian Affairs Regulations require that every Fijian child between six and fourteen attend school if one is available within three miles. "While there are no attendance officers to enforce these regulations, it can be said that the majority of Fijian children do attend school ... With Indian boys and girls the position is more difficult and there are large numbers whose names do not appear on any school register".^{31/}

230. In the Gilbert and Ellice Islands, schooling is compulsory between six and sixteen years of age, but in practice enforcement and supervision are difficult. No legal measures for compulsion have been reported for the Solomon Islands.

231. Finally, the two Territories of the Falkland Islands and St. Helena both had compulsory schooling (five to fourteen and five to fifteen respectively) for all children before 1946, and have continued to enforce these laws.

232. French Administration. With the expansion of provisions for primary schooling during the decade there has also been a considerable amount of legislative activity. In the tropical African Territories, the tendency has been to introduce compulsory attendance regulations to ensure that existing school places are adequately used; the authorities are empowered to extend compulsion as soon as circumstances permit.

233. In French Equatorial Africa, circulars of 23 November 1953 and 26 August 1956 set out policy as it affects primary education. This may be described as follows: "Children come to school of their own accord, and no

^{31/} Fiji: Department of Education, Annual Report for the year 1954, para. 7.

compulsion is needed to get them there; within the limits of accommodation and teachers, attendance of those enrolled is compulsory.... [as facilities improve] the provisions regarding compulsory education in force in France will be made generally applicable."^{32/}

234. A similar policy was applied in French West Africa by the Decree of 8 August 1949. This stipulates that school attendance is compulsory until the full quota of pupils for the preparatory stage of primary schools has been reached. Various penalties are laid down for parents and guardians of truant children.

235. With the reform of 1951 (Decree of 12 November 1951), Madagascar acquired compulsory school legislation. Attendance at primary school is made compulsory for all children from six to fourteen living within a specified radius of existing public primary schools. The expansion of the school system has been such that by 1956 the authorities reported that some 42 per cent of school-age children had been enrolled.^{33/} Because of public support, coercive measures have been found unnecessary. Attendance is checked by teachers and inspectors.

236. In the Comoro Archipelago, a similar situation has obtained since 1952. Attendance is compulsory within a given distance from existing schools. On the other hand, no steps towards compulsion have been taken in Somaliland, where education was defined in 1956 as being still at the "penetration stage".

237. No legislation for compulsory education was adopted during the period under review in the Territories of Morocco and Tunisia.

238. United States Administration. The Territories of Alaska and Hawaii have applied effective laws on compulsory education for many years. In Alaska the legislation dates from 1917. Attendance at school is compulsory for children seven to sixteen years of age who live within 1 1/2 miles from a school or a school transportation route, and correspondence courses are provided for the more isolated. In Hawaii, compulsory education for children between six and sixteen was

^{32/} UNESCO: World Survey of Education 1958, II Primary Education, p. 423.

^{33/} Ibid, page 443. This percentage is based on the population of primary school age, not on the estimated 5-14 year group used earlier in the present survey.

codified in Section 1830 of the Revised Laws, 1945. Attendance officers supervise the application of the law and infractions may be punished. A similar situation prevails in the Virgin Islands.

239. Within the past decade, the three remaining Territories have taken steps towards the effective application of compulsory education laws. Thus, in Puerto Rico such a law has existed since 1903, referring to children living at a reasonable distance from a school. This was interpreted in 1945 as compulsory attendance of pupils actually enrolled. The principle of universal compulsory primary education is embodied in the Puerto Rican Constitution of 1952, "in so far as the resources of the State permit". Coercion is virtually unnecessary; demand still exceeds supply, and the recent efforts of the authorities have been directed towards completing the provision. By 1956, it was reported that 91 per cent of pupils of primary school age (six to twelve years) were enrolled.^{34/}

240. In Guam, Public Law 83 of 1952 made education compulsory for children six to sixteen years of age. In 1954 attendance areas were established. Reports on non-attendance are made by teachers through school principals to the Director of Education, who takes the necessary legal action.

241. Education in American Samoa is compulsory between the ages of seven and fifteen years of age, and by 1951 a well-developed public school system had been achieved. Since then the authorities have been concerned mainly with improving the quality of education and, through co-operation with local communities, the level of attendance.

242. Other Territories. In Papua the Education Ordinance of 1952 provided that regular attendance at schools might be required in specified areas. The intention is to apply this rule in more highly developed parts of the Territory, and thus work progressively towards compulsory education.

243. The Belgian Congo has not adopted legal measures for compulsory education, the present policy aiming rather at a uniform extension of primary school facilities throughout the Territory.

^{34/} Ibid., page 1274.

244. In Greenland compulsory education for children between seven and fourteen was established a long time ago. The same is true in the island Territories under New Zealand administration, where the age range is six to fourteen, although children are admitted at five and may remain until they are fifteen. In both the Cook Islands and Niue the village police enforce the compulsory attendance provisions of the Act, but legal proceedings are rarely necessary.

245. Legislation on child employment. While this survey has been directed chiefly to laws and regulations requiring children to attend school, it should be remembered that parallel legislation on juvenile employment also has a bearing on the question. As reported in an earlier study^{35/} the tendency in most Territories has been to adopt laws fixing minimum age for employment, but with permission for light work of an agricultural or domestic character in the family framework.

E. School fees

246. Policies in this regard in the Territories are divided: in one group, the fact that schooling is free is considered to be fundamental, perhaps the first step on the road to universal fundamental education; and in the other, tuition fees are treated as a legitimate form of direct taxation on parents as long as schools are not available to all.

247. In the Territories administered by Australia, Belgium, France, New Zealand and the United States, no fees are charged in public primary schools. These Territories have not shown any change in policy over the past decade. In Netherlands New Guinea rural schools are free, while urban schools are not. The United Kingdom Territories differ considerably in their practices. No tuition fees are required in public primary schools in Basutoland, Bechuanaland, Swaziland, Northern Rhodesia and Zanzibar; in any of the Caribbean territories (except for British Honduras); in Brunei, North Borneo, Sarawak, Cyprus, Gibraltar, Aden, Mauritius, Seychelles. The Gold Coast abolished primary school

^{35/} United Nations: Special Study on Educational Conditions in Non-Self-Governing Territories, New York, 1953, p. 28.

fees in 1952 and Nigeria introduced free primary education in the Lagos area in 1955.

248. A simple statement of public policy in this matter may be deceptive. In several Territories under different administrations the private or mission schools make a considerable contribution to the total school provisions, and are usually permitted to charge fees on an officially approved scale. Despite the practice of remitting fees for necessitous cases, the result may well be to impose on many parents a financial burden which in the long run impedes the spread of education. Some Territories, notably the Belgian Congo, grant aid to mission schools on the understanding that no fees will be levied.

249. A table of the level of fees in selected Territories has been given in a previous study;^{36/} for adequate interpretation, these figures need to be related to wage levels in the Territories, an analysis of which goes beyond the scope of the present survey.

F. Other measures to encourage school attendance

250. During the past decade there has been a steady growth of ancillary services which have the effect of improving attendance at school. The provision of free school materials is one important element. Most Territories which follow the policy of free tuition have attempted to supplement this by supplying textbooks and other classroom equipment for both government and aided schools.

251. The growth of school medical services has been another characteristic trend of the past ten years. As an example, a school medical inspectorate has been set up in the Belgian Congo for the purpose of examining pupils, inspecting school buildings and equipment, ensuring prophylactic measures against communicable diseases and supervising health and athletic activities in the school programme. Individual school medical cards are maintained as a record. All schools in the Territory are subject to this inspection.

252. The provision of school meals in various forms has been widely reported. The most rapid expansion of the service appears to have taken place in Territories administered by the United States (where federal aid is offered) and by France.

^{36/} United Nations: Special Study on Educational Conditions in Non-Self-Governing Territories, New York, 1953, p. 31.

G. Structure of the primary school system

253. Following this survey of developments towards universal compulsory education, attention may be turned to some of the main features of primary school systems.

254. The structure of primary education in selected Territories was set out in a table in the 1953 Special Study.^{37/} The information may be summed up for groups of Territories, with reference particularly to changes which have taken place between 1946 and 1956.

255. The Papua pattern distinguishes between urban and rural conditions: in the former the primary course of seven years leads to a post-primary course in two stages, 3+2. Rural schools at the primary level have a 4+4 structure, the higher course being given in selected villages; thereafter come the five years of post-primary studies. This pattern has been worked out since 1946, and has become more clearly established as the Administration has developed the public school system.

256. A somewhat similar pattern prevails in the Belgian Congo. The basic structure is a primary course of 2+3 years; for selected pupils, an upper primary course of four years is provided leading on to a secondary course of six years. This organization has existed for the past ten years for boys' schools, and girls' schools are now similarly arranged.

257. French Territories show considerable uniformity of structure, based on the French pattern of an eight-grade primary school, with passage after five grades or more to a seven-year secondary course. Local adaptations in Territories are more of a curricular than a structural nature. This system was generally in force before 1946.

258. In Netherlands New Guinea a structure has been settled in the past eight years: primary schools of three or four grades, followed by three years of upper primary education which lead on to continued general or vocational schooling. The Territories under New Zealand administration have an eight years primary school.

^{37/} Ibid: Pages 20 - 22.

259. School organization in the United States is based on either an 8 + 4 or a 6 + 3 + 3 plan. The majority of Territories administered by the United States (Hawaii, American Samoa, Virgin Islands) have adopted the 6 + 3 + 3 structure, and Guam has recently decided to introduce it. Alaska maintains an eight-year elementary school.

260. United Kingdom Territories in the Caribbean do not follow any single pattern. Traditionally, the schools have been "elementary" taking children from the age of six or seven until they complete compulsory education at fourteen or fifteen. After five or six years (at age 11 +) passage was possible to secondary education. The tendency in the past decade has been to make a sharper distinction between primary and secondary education, with a break at 11 +, and separate premises for secondary schools.

261. United Kingdom Territories in Africa follow a variety of school plans, and considerable reorganization has occurred during the past ten years. This has been caused in part by the adoption of development schemes which require a statement of the goals and scope of the different levels of schooling, and in part by general improvements in the quality of education. A full examination of the respective merits of a six-year primary school and of an eight-year course in two stages, 4 + 4, was made at the Cambridge Conference in 1952.^{38/} The situation in the Territories may be summarized as follows. In West Africa, the Gold Coast maintained a ten-year primary course (6 + 4), with passage to the secondary course after the eight grade. Nigeria has different patterns, 4 + 6 + 6 being the most common. Sierra Leone changed from an eight-year primary course (8 + 5) to a 6 + 6 plan in 1949. In East and Central Africa, Kenya adopted the 4 + 4 + 4 scheme in 1950, replacing 6 + 6. Zanzibar also replaced a six-year by an eight-year primary course; Uganda maintained her 6 + 6 pattern despite commission recommendations in favour of 4 + 4 + 4. No changes were recorded in Northern Rhodesia (a nine-year primary course, 4 + 2 + 3, followed by 4 1/2 years of secondary schooling) or in Nyasaland (where the eight-year primary school has two stages, 5 + 4). Similarly, the Territories of Basutoland, Bechuanaland and

^{38/} United Kingdom: Miffield Foundation and Colonial Office, African Education: a study of educational policy in tropical Africa, Oxford, 1953, p. 169.

Swaziland have retained an 8 + 5 structure, the eight-year primary course being variously subdivided.

262. Asian Territories under United Kingdom administration tend to follow a 6 + 6 plan, the only changes during the past ten years being designed to ensure greater conformity with this structure. Mauritius (7 + 6) and the Seychelles (6 + 6) are similar, but Aden (4 + 3 + 4) has the three-fold division of primary, middle, secondary, found in African Territories. The Fiji pattern is 8 + 4. On the smaller Pacific Islands schools tend to be all-age with little distinction between primary and secondary levels. Finally, the Mediterranean Territories have patterns resembling that in the United Kingdom, 7 + 5.

H. Language of instruction

263. This important question is related to some extent to the school organization and is also an aspect of the curriculum which is treated in the next section below.

264. The Committee on Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories discussed the problem in some detail, and in response to a request from the United Nations,^{39/} UNESCO made a special study of the use of vernacular languages in education.^{40/} The language of instruction used in a large number of Territories was summed up in tabular form in the Study prepared for the committee, 1953.^{41/}

265. International study and discussion have shown the complexity of the factors which must be taken into account when framing a language policy: the linguistic situation in the Territory, the economic and financial implications of any given measure, the educational and psychological effects upon the child and the schools, as well as broader social and political considerations. The educational value of

^{39/} Resolution 329 (IV).

^{40/} The Use of Vernacular Language in Education UNESCO 1954 and also see United Nations, Non-Self-Governing Territories: summaries and analyses... 1950, New York 1951, vol. 3 pp. 78-97.

^{41/} United Nations, Special Study on Educational Conditions in Non-Self-Governing Territories, New York, 1953, pp. 20-22.

teaching through the mother tongue is generally recognized, but other conditioning factors may limit this basic principle. In particular, the need for teaching a language of wider communication has to be taken into account; for adequate mastery, such a language may have to be used as a medium of instruction at some stage of the course. The adoption of the vernacular medium brings with it certain problems: codification and script, where a language does not already have a literature; the preparation of suitable teaching aids; and the training of teachers. The use of a second (world) language as the medium raises similar difficulties: chiefly, the training of teachers, but also the preparation of textbooks in a controlled vocabulary so that pupils are not hampered from studying a subject by extraneous linguistic difficulties.

266. The bearing of language of instruction on school organization is perhaps best seen in African Territories under Belgian and United Kingdom administrations. The prevailing policy here is in favour of starting school life through the vernacular medium, with a language of wider communication gradually introduced as a subject and becoming after the fourth or fifth grade the medium of instruction. This change of medium is one reason (among many others) for suggesting a school plan such as 4 + 4 + 4, since the middle school can thereby be treated as a separate unit with teachers qualified to teach through the second language. It may be noted, however, that many African Territories have retained the primary-secondary pattern, 6 + 6, despite this argument.

267. A few changes in language policy have occurred during the past decade. In East African Territories under United Kingdom administration, the position of Swahili as a lingua franca has been challenged,^{42/} and policy in Kenya since 1952 has been directed towards strengthening the teaching in the territorial vernaculars with English as second language. In Papua the 1952 Education Ordinance enabled the Director of Education to determine the languages to be used in schools; because of the multiplicity of languages, the effort is now being made to spread the use of standard English (instead of pidgin) as the lingua franca.

^{42/} See Nuffield Foundation and Colonial Office, African Education, Oxford, 1953, pp. 79-84, and Recommendation No. 18 on page 84.

268. In the Belgian Congo, official preference for the medium of instruction in early grades is given to the four major linguae francae, but it is reported that many mission schools continue to use local vernaculars. The reorganization of education in Madagascar, by the Decree of 12 November 1951, brought about a change in language policy. There are two types of primary school, French and Madagascar, distinguished only by the language of instruction in the first two grades: in the Madagascan type, Malagasy is used as the medium for teaching the basic subjects, more particularly reading. "As pupils move up the school, there is a progressive and carefully calculated shift from the use of the vernacular to that of French, the study of the former nevertheless continuing as it is of indisputable practical value and is also necessary for those pupils going on to secondary school (for the baccalauréat Malagasy counts as a modern language on the same footing as English, German or Italian)".^{43/}

269. Examples of change are admittedly few. What has been more important, in the territorial context, has been the effort to improve standards under existing policies: to produce more material in vernacular languages where they are used and - in all cases - to improve the quality of second language teaching.

I. The primary school curriculum

270. From official reports it is clear that the past ten years have seen efforts in most Territories to change and improve the curriculum. Some of these changes have amounted to reforms, affecting the structure of the school system and its legal and administrative basis, as well as the content of schooling; others have borne more narrowly on the programme of studies and on syllabuses for particular subjects. The more profound reforms have been described earlier in this survey, and it remains at this point to examine the organization of subject matter in primary schools. For Territories which have adopted a primary-middle-secondary type of pattern, the middle schools may be taken along with the primary.

271. In general, revision of curricula in the Territories has been aided by the clearer definitions of educational policy which have emerged since 1956. Progress in the political and social spheres has enabled the educational authorities to

^{43/} UNESCO, World Survey of Education: II Primary Education, Paris, 1958, p. 445.

state more fully what the primary school should achieve. The tendency has been to adapt the content of schooling to territorial conditions and needs, rather than to adopt unchanged the curricula and textbooks of the metropolitan country. However, this process of adaptation - or of the development of fresh curricula to suit local conditions - has probably been speeded up by the improvement of educational research in the metropolitan and other countries. Conferences of educators, large-scale studies, experimentation within territories, the development of higher education and research, improvements in teacher training, these have all contributed to curriculum change, and examples of such activities have frequently occurred in the Territories in the past ten years.

272. The methods of curriculum revision vary, and for the purposes of the present survey it may be useful to select cases from the Territories which illustrate different approaches to the process.^{44/}

273. The most comprehensive effort to deal with the question appears to have been made in Puerto Rico. A survey was undertaken in 1948-1949 by the Puerto Rican authorities assisted by a team of specialists from the Institute of Field Studies of Teachers College, Columbia University (United States).^{45/} The survey took the form of a planned study: a representative sample of public schools was studied intensively, further information was gathered from documents, short questionnaires and interviews, and conferences with Puerto Rico educators and the public helped the group to formulate conclusions. While striking in itself, this survey has been only one aspect of a continuous process of studying and improving the Puerto Rican curriculum. Research projects of the Higher Council for Education have yielded

^{44/} Full discussions will be found in two recent UNESCO studies which contain information from a number of Member States, including those responsible for the administration of the Territories treated here:

UNESCO, Planning for curriculum revision and development, (Education Abstracts April-May 1958), Paris.

UNESCO, Curriculum revision and research, (Educational Studies and Documents No. 28), Paris, 1958.

^{45/} Fully reported in: Columbia University, Teachers College, Public education and the future of Puerto Rico; a curriculum survey, New York, 1950, p. 614.

evidence on the learning process and the effectiveness of teaching materials, and the Department of Public Education has shown in successive reports the way in which school teaching has been made more alive. The primary school time-table introduced in 1952 is flexible and indicative, as it shows only the time allotment to each day to broad groups of subjects. With it go study courses or guides to the teacher.

"The ablest primary school teachers and those who have been correctly trained employ the flexible time-table method based on the idea that the school day can be organized as a single unit of time during which the pupils pursue activities related to their interests and immediate needs. The subjects scheme of activities developed on psychological lines and within a framework of vital significance".^{46/}
In this programme for curriculum improvement the provision of textbooks has an important place.

274. The revision of curricula may in some cases be part of wider structural changes. In Madagascar, following the reform in 1951, new primary school curricula were introduced in 1952. The authorities proceeded by means of experimentation. In the "French type" of primary school where French is the medium of instruction certain elements of the metropolitan curriculum were modified - chiefly in respect of geography and the addition of Malagasy to the programme. In the Territory's primary school a new programme was worked out experimentally for the first two grades. The tool skills (reading, writing, arithmetic) were taught in Malagasy, with oral French introduced as a subject. Ten pilot classes began this programme in the school year 1951-1952, and results were more widely applied thereafter. To accompany the new curriculum textbooks which provided reading material of local interest while the language was selected with the needs of Malagasy-speaking pupils in mind.

275. The contribution of educational research to curriculum development is generally recognized only when the higher education facilities of a Territory expand. Yet a few significant examples have occurred where research has been set in motion by Government action. In Fiji an Educational Research Institute was established in 1952 to serve both Fiji and the Western Pacific High Commission Territories. "The main purpose is the study of teaching methods and the content of the curriculum in their application to the circumstances and needs of the region: a more immediate objective is the establishment, by measurement, of

educational standards in the 6-14 age groups." Within the first few years of its life, the Institute has completed a considerable number of research studies which provide basic information for curriculum development in Fiji and the other islands.^{47/}

276. When decisions are taken to change curricula, by whatever process, the problem of textbooks and classroom material becomes pressing. An interesting example of action to solve this problem may be found in the Territories under New Zealand administration. A commission of inquiry into educational conditions in the islands (1945) recommended that children in lower primary classes should be taught in the mother tongue; this represented a reversal of policy for the Cook Islands and Niue, where great emphasis had previously been placed on English. The change implied government responsibility for suitable class readers in three different languages, under difficult circumstances; small numbers, lack of existing literature, need for lively presentation to encourage good teaching. The solution was to extend the work of the New Zealand School Publications Branch to the island Territories. The Branch acquired a specialized editor and began to issue four regular series of attractive bulletins; in Samoan (from 1957), in Rarotongan (from 1950, for the Cook Islands, six times a year in 3,600 copies), Niueian (from 1950, four times a year in 2,000 copies) and even in Tokelauan (from 1951, twice a year, 500 copies). This effort has had considerable success, and the regular free distribution to children of

^{47/} The list of publications to date is as follows. The statement quoted is taken from the foreword to the first study.

- R.S. Adam, A short study of reading problems in the Pacific Islands (FIER/1)
- R.S. Adam, The relationship between age and reading attainment in Fijian schools (FIER/2)
- R.S. Adam, The construction and standardization of English reading tests for schools in Fiji (FIER/3)
- R.S. Adam, Research survey for 1952 (FIER/4)
- N.H. Wright, Notes on English language problems in Indian schools in Fiji (FIER/5)
- R.S. Adam and S. Lal, The English vocabulary of children in Fiji schools (FIER/6)

/...

reading material in the mother tongue has enabled the Administration to apply its language policy while improving the standard of teaching.^{48/}

J. Primary education for girls

277. This important question previously engaged the attention of the Committee on Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories.^{49/} The general experience in under-developed school systems is that the enrolment of girls lags behind that of boys. A variety of factors produce this situation. Educational authorities in the Territories have all accepted the view that special measures are required to deal with these factors in order to speed up and improve the schooling of girls. Some illustrations are given below, but it may be said broadly that both theoretical and practical considerations are involved. Where the goal of universal schooling is accepted, however distant it may be, the slower rate of enrolment of one-half the school-age population becomes a matter of concern. And in practical terms, the schooling of girls has special importance because it may lead to more effective collaboration between home and school for the next generation.

278. Quantitative progress. What quantitative advance has been made in the past decade in bringing girls to school? Table 22 at the end of this section reports figures for fifty-nine Territories for which 1956 statistics are available. Of these, earlier figures are known in forty cases. It will be noted that the enrolment of girls is shown as a percentage of total enrolment - the number of girls enrolled having in fact increased in almost all Territories. The point to establish here is whether Territories have succeeded in making up the lag, relative to boys, which is characteristic of under-developed school systems.

^{48/} For full details, see UNESCO, The New Zealand School Publications Branch (Educational Studies and Documents 25), Paris, 1957.

^{49/} See in particular United Nations, Special Study on Educational Conditions in Non-Self-Governing Territories, New York, 1953, pp. 45-57, and Special Study on Educational Conditions in Non-Self-Governing Territories, New York, 1956, pp. 128-9.

279. Inspection of the table shows at once that progress has been achieved. This is perhaps clearer if the forty Territories for which 1946-1956 comparison is possible are classified in a distribution table:

Education of girls in forty Territories

Year	Number of Territories in which enrolment of girls was:				
	Under 40%	10%-19%	20%-29%	30%-39%	40% and over
1946	2	2	9	5	22
1956	2	1	3	12	22

From the table above, as from the original figures, it is evident that Territories fall into two distinct groups in respect to the education of girls: the school systems of the Caribbean, Pacific and Mediterranean, which had reached a satisfactory level (40% and over) before 1946, and remained there in 1956; and the second group, largely the African and Asian Territories, which were below 40 per cent in 1946 and made some advances by 1956 although not crossing the 40 per cent borderline. In this rough classification an exception occurs in the three South African Territories, where conditions have not developed to the advantage of girls.

280. For the purpose of broader comparison, a quotation may be made from UNESCO's World Survey of Education, 1958, where it is found that "for 78 countries with comparable data for 1950 and 1954, the average percentage of girls' enrolment showed a slight increase from 46.4 to 46.5 during the period."^{50/}

281. From references to the education of girls in territorial reports it is possible to give a short general account of difficulties met in these Territories. Theoretically, co-education seems to be the best solution at the primary stage. Although most administrations accept the policy of co-education this practice encounters obstacles, either because of views held by parents or because of traditional forms of organization in schools run by voluntary agencies. Moreover,

^{50/} Op. cit., p. 19.

co-educational school requires a more advanced training on the part of teachers, who have to be able to handle boys and girls of varying ages in a single class, and an attempt to diversify curricula.

282. While co-education is generally accepted, the fact remains that in a considerable number of Territories it is found difficult to attract girls to school. The reasons are social, economic and educational in turn. The status of women in society is one determining factor. Where girls traditionally remain in the home, marry early and perform economically necessary tasks in the family, it is not easy to persuade parents to send them to school. More especially, an undiversified economy provides few opportunities for girls with education to find employment, so that incentives to the family are lacking. Since education, whether fees are charged or not, represents a cost to parents, preference is usually given to maintaining the boys at school. Among educational factors, the shortage of women teachers appears to have great importance. Where education of girls lags behind that of boys, it is relatively more difficult to recruit women teachers, yet it is among women teachers that the turnover is greatest, because of marriage; and the absence of women on primary school staffs in turn inhibits the enrolment of girls. The process is thus a vicious circle.

283. That the problem of girls' education has drawn considerable attention may be shown from many statements by territorial authorities. Some of the practical measures proposed and taken in recent years may be illustrated by examples.

284. Positive steps. In the records of the Cambridge Conference of 1952, the stress was laid on economic factors and teacher training. "For some years such public demand will be heavily weighted in favour of boys; in view of this we think that girls should be encouraged in every way, more especially by financial concessions of various kinds, to attend school and complete their course in approximately the same number as boys...^{51/} We are aware of the urgent need to increase the number of women teachers ... attention should be given to the problem of providing an integrated and suitable curriculum which will retain the interest of girls in the school until they are ready to enter the training college."^{52/}

^{51/} African education: a study of educational policy and practice in British tropical Africa, p. 152.

^{52/} Ibid., p. 161.

285. The 1954 Conference of Directors of Education of French Tropical Africa and Madagascar remarked on progress achieved so far, and drew attention to teacher training and curricular problems. It seems that the education of girls no longer meets the social and family resistances that originally confronted it. "While some Directors thought that the necessary development could be accelerated by: (a) training women teachers, who are still too few; and (b) adapting school programmes, particularly through domestic science teaching adapted to local conditions, others believed that the problem will be solved by a general extension of schooling."^{53/}

286. The application of a deliberate policy to expand girls' education may be seen in Kenya over the past ten years. The number of women education officers has steadily increased. Co-education is encouraged in the lower classes (the present primary school of four grades), but boarding establishments for girls at the intermediate and secondary levels have been developed beside the co-educational schools at these levels. Particular importance has been attached to the creation of women's training colleges which provide both a general secondary and a professional education.

287. The Belgian Congo provides an example of an effort to work out a curriculum and institutional form suited to the needs and interests of girls. Lower primary schools are frequently co-educational, but at the next stage (grades 3 to 6) separate schools for girls are the rule. For regions where education of girls is very backward, a type of school called "école ménagère periprimaire" has been used; this enrolls girls with little or no previous schooling, regardless of age level, and gives them a practical course along with the rudiments of primary education. In due time, this type of school will be replaced by more formal upper primary schools - the école primaire du 2e degré ordinaire (grades 3 to 5) and the école primaire du 2e degré sélectionné (grades 3 to 6). The "ordinary" school is designed for mass education and holds many over-age girls who are unlikely to continue their schooling; however, for those who do wish to go on, the "ordinary" school leads to practical post-primary schools for home economics, assistant teachers and assistant midwives. The parallel "selective" school, of

^{53/} France. Ministère de la France d'Outre-Mer, Direction générale de l'Enseignement et de la Jeunesse, Bulletin, déc. 1954, p. 15.

more recent creation, is intended for brighter pupils who will continue with secondary studies. The curriculum of all primary schools has a practical bias, relating to agriculture, rural crafts and home-making. This system of schooling for girls was expanded steadily during the past decade, and has had the effect of raising the ratio of proportion of girls in the total school enrolment from around 4 per cent to around 14 per cent.

288. Teacher-training facilities for girls have been extended in most African and Asian Territories since 1946. The growth of secondary and higher education has had an effect on the problem of girls' education without however influencing its numerical increase. The first two women students, for example, were admitted to the Central Medical School, Suva, in 1953.

K. Concluding note

289. During the past ten years Territories have made progress towards the provision of universal free education, adequate in length and quality to form the basis of a literate population.

290. Behind the statistical record of enrolments which have generally increased faster than the school-age population lie the measures taken by educational authorities in the majority of Territories. These have been:

- (a) School-building programmes and the provision of equipment and teaching materials related to territorial needs.
- (b) Teacher-training programmes, in turn dependent upon increased secondary school provisions.
- (c) Administrative efficiency in the control of attendance, the reduction of wastage and the improvement of age-grade placement.
- (d) Special measures to increase the enrolment of girls at school.
- (e) Re-organization of curricula to take account of territorial needs and, progressively, of child development.

291. Such steps have resulted in the favourable situation reflected by the statistics. However, the survey has been focused mainly on trends over a decade, and it remains true that by the end of the period the situation of primary education was still distant from the goal of universal schooling. The authorities face a number of difficulties which mount in intensity as the school system grows. The major problems are:

- (a) The provision of adequate finance for capital development and anxiety about provisions for recurrent costs in the future.
- (b) The pressure of rising populations.
- (c) The difficulty of maintaining adequate standards during a period of rapid expansion.
- (d) The need for large numbers of well-trained teachers.
- (e) The uneven spread of educational development within single Territories, due to geographical and historical factors.

TABLE 10

NUMBER OF SCHOOLS AND ENROLMENT
IN PRIMARY EDUCATION IN TERRITORIES UNDER UNITED KINGDOM ADMINISTRATION, BETWEEN 1946 AND 1956 ^{1/}

Territory	Year	Number of schools				T O T A L		Government or local authority		Enrolment			
		Total	Government or local authority	Aided	Unaided	Male and female	Female	Male and female	Female	Aided	Unaided	Male and female	Female
ADEN, Colony	1946/47 ^{a/}	67	6	12	49	5,259	1,165	1,165	260	1,979	565	2,115	340
	1953/54 ^{a/}	34	12	15	7	7,287	2,151	3,447	1,099	2,452	854	1,388	198
	1956 ^{b/}	49	16	19	14	9,011	2,645	4,251	1,396	2,970	1,057	1,790	192
Protectorate	1946/47 ^{a/}	...	51	-	4,410	201	-	-
	1951/52 ^{a/}	79 ^{c/}	5,441 ^{c/}	269 ^{c/}
	1953/54 ^{a/}	107	36	44	27	7,658 ^{d/}	861 ^{d/}	3,585	311	2,585	78	1,488	472
BAJAMAS	1946/47	175	75	46	54	15,799	8,002	10,303	5,102	1,973	1,010	3,523	1,890
	1955/56	171	105	26	40	19,995	9,993	15,228	7,580	805	381	3,962	2,032
BARBADOS	1948/49	...	124	...	3	22,981	11,491	21,824	10,740	315	151	842	600
	1953/54	...	122	...	3	25,727	12,783	25,277	12,570	273	110	177	103
BASUTOLAND	1946 ^{e/}	915	5	811	99	86,368	54,888	761	391	79,907	50,634	5,700	3,863
	1956 ^{e/}	964	-	108,900	69,194	-	-
BECHUANALAND	1946	159	159	-	-	21,355	13,323	21,355	13,323	-	-	-	-
	1956	173	170	3	-	24,720	15,117	24,006	14,697	714	420	-	-
BERMUDA	1946	...	-	26	...	6,434 ^{e/}	...	-	-	5,363 ^{e/}	2,473 ^{e/}	1,071	...
	1956	39	20	6	13	7,897 ^{f/}	3,912 ^{f/}	6,090	2,998	1,037	525	770	389
BRITISH GUIANA	1946/47	...	10 ^{g/}	245 ^{g/}	66,009 ^{g/}	31,586 ^{g/}
	1956	...	20 ^{g/}	287 ^{g/}	102,083 ^{g/}	49,791 ^{g/}
BRITISH HONDURAS	1948	110	3	75	32	12,644	6,276	11,156	5,566	1,488	710
	1955	118	2	93	23	15,542	7,891	245 ^{h/}	124 ^{h/}	14,020	6,930	1,277	837
	1956	17,342	8,580	15,963	7,719	1,379	801
SOLOMON ISLANDS	1946	5,610 ^{i/}	2,016
	1955	157 ^{j/}	8	18	131 ^{j/}	7,575 ^{j/}	...	362	...	1,137	...	6,076 ^{j/}	...
BRUNEI	1948	37	4,351	1,144
	1956	62	48	14	...	9,357	3,279	4,663	1,271	4,694	2,008
CYPRUS	1946/47	701	60,006 ^{k/}	27,197 ^{k/}
	1955/56	741	723	7	11	79,245	37,932	77,209	36,778	1,008	552	1,028	602
FALKLAND ISLANDS ^{l/}	1947	5	5	-	-	298	150	298	150	-	-	-	-
	1956	6	345

^{1/} Pre-primary and special schools excluded unless otherwise stated. Primary sections of secondary schools are included, wherever it was possible. No uniform rule could be applied with regard to intermediate, senior primary or junior secondary schools; according to their level they are classified either under primary or under secondary education.

^{e/} Including intermediate schools.

^{b/} No data available for the "Not inspected schools".

^{c/} In addition, there were three schools at Lahaj for which data are not available.

^{d/} There were, in addition, about 1,800 children (700 girls) attending Koranic schools.

^{e/} Including enrolment in one secondary school and five secondary departments of primary schools.

^{f/} Including enrolment of 224 (101 F) pupils in pre-school education and 212 pupils in special classes for backward children.

^{g/} Including six nursery schools.

^{h/} Included under aided schools.

^{i/} Including five nursery schools.

^{j/} Does not include approximately thirty catechetical village schools.

^{k/} Enrolment figures of five Armenian and five Latin schools not included.

^{l/} All-range schools; in 1954 there were 181 (85 F) pupils in primary education, 112 (54 F) pupils in secondary education classes and eight (5 F) pupils in a secondary teacher-training class.

TABLE 18 (continued)

Territory	Year	Number of schools						Enrolment					
		Total	Government or local authority			T O T A L		Government or local authority		Aided		Unaided	
			Government or local authority	Aided	Unaided	Male and female	Female	Male and female	Female	Male and female	Female	Male and female	Female
FEDERATION OF MALAYA	1949	4,437 ^{m/}	1,386	1,691	1,360 ^{m/}	581,684 ^{m/}	187,278 ^{m/}	245,612	81,834	233,410	76,908	102,662 ^{m/}	28,536
	1954	4,559	1,758	2,299	502	741,360 ^{n/}	271,509 ^{n/}	352,891 ^{n/}	128,842 ^{n/}	327,440 ^{n/}	121,090 ^{n/}	61,029 ^{n/}	21,577
FIJI	1947	445	45,103	19,034
	1956	495	25	427	43	62,451	28,035	5,955	2,379	54,847	24,942	1,649	714
GAMBIA	1946 ^{o/}	14	6	5	3 ^{h/}	2,661	...	2,182	...	343	...	136 ^{h/}	...
	1956	28	39	9	...	5,559	1,477	4,725	1,259	834	218
GIBRALTAR	1946/47	10	10	-	-	1,601	758	1,601	758	-	-	-	-
	1956/57	20	17	-	3	2,436	1,213	1,976	931	-	-	460	282
GILBERT AND ELLICE ISLANDS	1946	236	4	22	210	8,256	...	292	...	1,583	...	6,381	...
	1955	274	14	249	11	8,995	...	757	...	7,869	...	369	...
	1956 ^{p/}	253	15	230	8	7,725	3,230	1,047	337	6,500	2,833	178	60
GOLD COAST ^{q/}	1946	2,439	...	421	2,018	164,978	73,870	21,660	91,168	...
	1955	3,394	...	3,210	184	429,518	142,464	419,362	139,246	10,156	3,318
	1956	3,478	...	3,312	166	446,702	150,637	436,854	147,341	9,848	3,296
HONG KONG	1946/47	587 ^{r/}	26 ^{s/}	231 ^{s/}	330 ^{s/}	80,998 ^{t/}	35,931 ^{t/}	4,074	1,430	27,620 ^{t/}	12,373 ^{t/}	49,304 ^{t/}	22,128 ^{t/}
	1955/56	1,090	28	361	701	213,704 ^{u/}	89,315 ^{u/}	11,831 ^{u/}	4,620 ^{u/}	69,230 ^{u/}	32,424 ^{u/}	132,643 ^{u/}	52,271 ^{u/}
JAMAICA	1946/47	-	187,129 ^{v/}	222,018 ^{v/}	113,655 ^{v/}	123,034 ^{v/}	63,182 ^{v/}	98,984 ^{v/}	50,475 ^{v/}	-
	1954	721 ^{w/}	348 ^{w/}	379 ^{w/}	-	222,018 ^{w/}	-
	1956	705	-	*233,000	*119,100	-
KENYA	1946 ^{x/}	2,356	90	623	1,643	228,496	...	18,503	...	108,116	...	101,877	...
	1956	3,680	67	2,963	650	486,937	136,361	25,208	7,761	420,806	119,493	40,923	9,107
LEEWARD ISLANDS													
- Antigua	1947	26	...	-	...	7,859	-	-
	1956	69	60	-	9	11,925 ^{y/}	5,928 ^{y/}	10,791 ^{y/}	5,299 ^{y/}	-	-	1,134	629
- Montserrat	1947	12	3,238
	1956	14	12	1	1	3,313	1,639	2,895	1,443	336	147	82	49
- St. Kitts-Nevis-Anguilla	1946	33	32	1	-	9,491	4,736	-	-
	1954	34	33	1	-	10,928	5,373	10,738	5,278	190	95	-	-
	1956	11,300	5,595
- Virgin Islands	1950	12	1	11	-	1,525	784	499	255	1,026	529	-	-
	1955	16	1	14	1	1,974	976	573	288	1,356	663	45	25

m/ Includes 471 religious schools (Muslim).

n/ Including enrolment of 3,478 (849 F) pupils in primary vocational and teacher-training classes, given separately elsewhere.

o/ Including enrolment in kindergarten classes of about 160 children.

p/ Excluding several "Mission Village School" with a small number of students in each, which explains the drop in the number of schools and enrolment figures.

q/ Primary schools only, excluding senior primary schools (1946) and middle schools (1955, 1956).

r/ Government and approved schools included together under aided schools; the number of government-maintained schools and their enrolment was relatively small.

s/ Number of primary and secondary schools.

t/ Including pupils in pre-primary schools.

u/ Including 18,893 (7,967 F) pupils in pre-primary schools, of which 1,005 pupils in Aided Schools and 17,888 in Unaided Schools; including also pupils at primary level in evening classes, but excluding 19,262 pupils (no sex breakdown) in special afternoon classes.

v/ There were, in addition, Recognized Community Schools consisting of Infant Centres taking pupils in the 4 to 7 age group and Basic Schools taking pupils of a slightly older age. These schools receive a small subsidy. All their teachers are unqualified. In 1954 they had 16,370 pupils on roll.

w/ Including Special Education; it is not known whether the infant schools, thirty-two schools with 10,489 pupils on roll in 1954, were included or not.

x/ Returns were not in all cases complete.

y/ Including 3,220 (1,567) pupils of senior primary schools. The latter are of five years duration after seven years of infant and junior primary schools. Six hundred and thirty-one female pupils of senior primary schools receive vocational training in home economics.

TABLE 18 (continued)

Territories	Year	Number of schools			T O T A L		Government or local authority		Enrolment				
		Total	Government or local authority	Aided	Unaided	Male and female	Female	Male and female	Female	Aided Male and female	Female	Unaided Male and female	Female
MAURITIUS	1946/47	211	56	76	79	49,161 ^{z/}	19,736 ^{z/}	17,388	5,909	27,800	12,070	3,973	1,757
	1954	248	77	76	95	80,765	34,367	33,663	13,054	37,409	17,027	9,693	4,206
	1956	313 ^{aa/}	86	77	150 ^{aa/}	89,434	38,595
NIGERIA	1947	6,093	609,284	124,661
	1950/51	9,010	853	4,927	3,230	970,768 ^{bb/}	213,837 ^{bb/}	68,398 ^{bb/}	14,875 ^{bb/}	722,868 ^{bb/}	161,922 ^{bb/}	179,502	37,040
	1955	1,678,292 ^{cc/}	505,827 ^{cc/}
NORTH BORNEO	1947	165	60	13,959	3,473	3,304
	1955	258	82	83	93	24,771	7,966	5,978	1,038	14,345	5,330	4,448	1,598
NORTHERN RHODESIA (African education)	1946/47	1,765	59	1,145	561	169,834	55,281	11,472	2,902	127,487	40,179	30,875	12,200
	1955/56	1,662	338	1,248	76	195,351	68,526	50,495	16,196	139,394	50,426	5,462	1,904
NORTHERN RHODESIA (European education)	1946/47 ^{ee/}	3,026	1,552	2,417	1,172	609	380
	1955/56 ^{ee/}
NYASALAND	1946/47	4,267 ^{ff/}	2	644	3,621 ^{ff/}	213,698	85,048	133	50	75,630	25,551	137,935	59,447
	1955/56	3,294 ^{ff/}	16	771	2,507 ^{ff/}	244,634	88,475	2,899	832	100,047	33,117	141,688	54,526
ST. HELENA	1947	11	11	-	-	1,132	591	1,132	591	-	-	-	-
	1955	9	9	-	-	819	392	819	392	-	-	-	-
SARAWAK	1946	320	28,782	8,710
	1948	364	74	154	136	32,414	9,929
	1956	605	174	400	31	61,852	21,932	10,628	2,615	49,952	18,900	1,272	467
SEYCHELLES	1947	34	1	24	9	4,091	2,131
	1955	34	2	23	9	5,280	2,619	253	43	4,582	2,258	445	318
SIERRA LEONE	1946	252	19	144	89	25,093	...	1,774	...	17,637	...	5,682	...
	1956	460	47	390	23	56,020	17,774	7,639	1,777	44,019	14,694	4,362	1,303
SINGAPORE	1946	207 ^{gg/}	38	55	114 ^{gg/}	69,081 ^{gg/}	22,803 ^{gg/}	45,841	16,000	23,240 ^{gg/}	6,803 ^{gg/}
	1955	528	169	257	102	176,233	67,313	62,149	21,837	98,511	38,946	15,573	6,530
SOMALILAND PRO-TECTORATE	1948/49	38	12	*26	-	1,430	41	623	34	*807	*7	-	-
	1956	114	24	*90	-	4,076	295	1,622	95	*2,454	*200	-	-
SWAZILAND	1946	215	11,426	6,341	1,553	746	7,632	4,346	2,241	1,249
	1956	269	57	119	93	25,611	13,114	5,907	2,819	15,826	8,257	3,878	2,038

^{z/} In addition, there were thirty-eight part-time schools, 3,380 (1,567 F) pupils and a teaching staff of 112 teachers (32 registered, 80 unregistered).

^{aa/} The big increase in the number of unaided schools between 1954 and 1956 is due to the fact that in the latter year the primary departments of secondary schools were probably counted as separate schools, which was not done previously.

^{bb/} Including 569 (15 F) pupils in primary teacher training and vocational courses, given separately elsewhere.

^{cc/} Provisional figures; including 1954 data for the Northern Region.

^{dd/} Included under government schools.

^{ee/} No complete breakdown between primary and secondary education available for 1955/56. There were fifty-seven schools and 13,077 pupils (no sex breakdown given) in primary and secondary education.

^{ff/} The drop in the number of schools is due to the fact that from 1955 only the legally registered unaided schools are included. The latter were one-class schools with a small number of pupils, as may be seen by the comparison with 1954/55 figures:

1954/55: Number of unaided schools: 3,923, enrolment 145,216
1955/56: " " " 2,507, enrolment 141,688

Despite the slight underestimation of figures for 1955/56 the comparison with 1946/47 is roughly valid.

^{gg/} There was, in addition, a large number of small schools which had not qualified for registration, with a total enrolment of probably not less than 10,000 pupils.

^{hh/} There were, in addition, about 2,500 children in 1948 and 2,050 (200 F) pupils in 1956 in unaided Koranic schools giving a purely religious teaching.

TABLE 18 (continued)

Territories	Year	Number of schools				Enrolment								
		Total	Government or local authority	Aided	Unaided	T O T A L		Government or local authority		Aided		Unaided		
						Male and female	Female	Male and female	Female	Male and female	Female	Male and female	Female	
TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO ^{ii/}	1946	...	46	240	h/	h/	90,725	42,205
	1949	455	48	247	160	106,468	50,798	...	h/	h/	102,850	48,836	3,618	1,962
	1955	533	65	315	153	144,262	70,038	...	h/	h/	136,019	65,726	8,243	4,312
UGANDA	1947	4,478	13	1,276	3,189	265,147	73,811	2,248	793	141,344	31,680	121,555	41,328	
	1956	4,458	34	1,960	2,464	399,612	109,866	9,573	3,944	270,984	75,007	119,055	30,915	
WINDWARD ISLANDS														
- Dominica	1947	38	35	3	-	9,307	4,896	9,307	4,896	...	jj/	...	jj/	-
	1954	54	44	10	-	11,472	5,765	9,696	4,494	1,776	1,271	-	-	
	1956	...	44	12,449	6,342	
- Grenada	1947	55	18,835	
	1956	54	18,751	9,004	
- Saint Lucia ^{kk/}	1946	45	-	45	-	10,749	...	-	-	10,749	...	-	-	
	1953	49	1	48	-	14,505	7,504	-	-	
- Saint Vincent	1946	37	15	22	-	12,657	-	-	
	1956	46	24	22	-	17,764	8,598	8,905	4,303	8,859	4,295	-	-	
ZANZIBAR AND PEMBA	1946	...	38	9 ^{nn/}	4,618	778	2,859 ^{nn/}	
	1949	59	42	13	4	9,227 ^{ll/}	2,517 ^{ll/}	5,661	1,053	3,308	1,391	258	73	
	1956	72	56	12	4	14,839 ^{mm/}	4,932 ^{mm/}	11,839	3,129	2,658	1,702	342	101	

^{ii/} In 1946 enrolment in intermediate schools was excluded; in 1949 and 1955, only infant classes and junior primary classes, together seven years of study, were included.

^{jj/} Included under government or local authority schools.

^{kk/} Government and aided schools only. In 1952 there were twenty-one unaided schools, with thirty-six teachers and an enrolment of approximately 1,200 pupils.

^{ll/} There were, in addition, 624 Koranic schools with 5,558 (1,515 F) pupils.

^{mm/} There were, in addition, 916 Koranic schools with an estimated number of 13,780 (4,662 F) pupils.

^{nn/} Figures incomplete; do not include three African grant-aided schools.

TABLE 19
NUMBER OF SCHOOLS, ENROLMENT AND EXAMINATION RESULTS IN PRIMARY EDUCATION IN TERRITORIES
UNDER FRENCH ADMINISTRATION BETWEEN 1946 AND 1956 ^{1/}

Territory	Year	Number of Schools			Enrolment						Examination results			
		Total	Public	Private	Total		Public		Private		C.E.P.E. ^{a/}		Entrée en 6e ^{b/}	
					MF	F	MF	F	MF	F	Candidates	Passes	Candidates	Passes
COMORO ARCHIPELAGO	1948/49	30	28	2	2,084	...	2,044	79	40	
	1955/56	32	31	1	2,782	206	2,744	197	38	9	2 ^{c/}	1 ^{c/}	90 ^{c/}	28 ^{c/}
FRENCH EQUATORIAL AFRICA	1946/47	343	173	170	34,862	3,684	18,304	1,646	16,558	2,038
	1955/56	1,059	524	535	144,687	29,900	77,404	13,721	67,283	16,179	...	2,223 ^{c/}
FRENCH WEST AFRICA	1947/48 ^{d/}	915	752	163	121,192	23,519	92,337	15,211	28,855	8,308
	1955/56	1,973	1,457	516	301,265 ^{e/}	71,399	212,590	48,936	88,675	22,463	18,376 ^{f/}	10,076 ^{f/}	9,631 ^{f/}	3,214 ^{f/}
MADAGASCAR	1947/48	1,656	1,031	625	181,957	...	117,081	45,116	64,876	
	1955/56	2,260	1,442	818	291,615	118,802	192,563	73,411	99,052	45,391	7,264 ^{g/}	4,270 ^{g/}
MOROCCO	1946/47	618	567	51	110,762 ^{h/}	43,948 ^{h/}	104,506 ^{i/}	39,925 ^{i/}	6,256 ^{h/}	4,023 ^{h/}	7,541 ^{j/}	4,440 ^{j/}
	1953/54	1,739	1,684	55	290,048 ^{h/}	89,560 ^{h/}	274,977 ^{i/}	83,061 ^{i/}	15,071 ^{h/}	6,499 ^{h/}	8,559 ^{k/}	4,966 ^{k/}
	1955/56	342,982 ^{h/}	...	309,269 ^{i/}	...	33,713 ^{h/}
NEW HEBRIDES	-----Complete information not available-----													
SOMALILAND	1947/48	24	5	19	1,438	...	395	...	1,043	
	1955/56	16	12	4	2,000	492	1,131	130	869	362	99 ^{c/}	46 ^{c/}	61 ^{c/}	26 ^{c/}
TUNISIA	1946/47	584	498	86	114,803 ^{l/}	32,551 ^{l/}	95,529 ^{m/}	28,931 ^{m/}	19,274 ^{l/}	3,620 ^{l/}	4,873 ^{n/}	2,630 ^{n/}	2,135 ^{l/}	1,222 ^{l/}
	1954/55	872	642	230	230,472 ^{l/}	70,243 ^{l/}	185,140	59,510	45,332 ^{l/}	10,733 ^{l/}	12,402 ^{o/}	5,618 ^{o/}	14,335 ^{m/}	3,947 ^{m/}
	1955/56	...	861	...	251,316	79,132	239,164	71,226	12,152 ^{o/}	7,900 ^{o/}

- 1/ Pre-primary and special education schools excluded, unless otherwise stated. Manual-training and domestic science classes given in primary schools are in general included. The primary sections of secondary schools are also included, wherever it was possible.
- a/ "Certificat d'études primaires élémentaires" or similar certificates.
- b/ "Examen d'entrée en 6e. de l'enseignement secondaire" or similar entry examinations.
- c/ Examinations held in 1955.
- d/ Excluding missionary catechism centres; Koranic schools and nomad schools of the Maure and Touareg tribes; some non-declared schools opened by traditional chiefs and directed by a former pupil of a primary school; instruction given in manual and artisanal sections and farm schools. It is not known whether these schools were included in 1955/56 or not.
- e/ In addition there were 9 pre-primary establishments with 4,758 (2,394 F) pupils.
- f/ Examinations held in 1955. In addition there were 2,663 free candidates for the C.E.P.E. of whom 945 passed and 128 free candidates for the "Examen d'entrée en 6e". of whom 122 passed.
- g/ Examinations held in 1955. In addition there were 1,748 free candidates for the C.E.P.E. of whom 931 passed.
- h/ Traditional Muslim private education is not included. Its pupils in 1953/54 were estimated as follows: modern-traditional schools: 24,700; Koranic schools: 200,000. Private Israelite education is included in the public sector.
- i/ Includes students of secondary level in the "Cours complémentaires" of which there were 3,528 (915 F) in 1953/54, and pupils in pre-primary education of which there were 8,961 (4,273 F) in 1953/54.
- j/ Examinations held in 1946.
- k/ Examinations held in 1953.
- l/ Including "modern Koranic schools" but not Koultab and Zaouias "free Koranic" schools.
- m/ Including secondary level students in the "Cours complémentaires", no longer included in 1954/55 and 1955/56.
- n/ Examinations held in 1954.
- o/ "modern Koranic" schools were nationalized in 1955 and included in the public sector. On the other hand, "free Koranic" schools are for the first time included in 1955/56.

TABLE 20
NUMBER OF SCHOOLS AND ENROLMENT IN PRIMARY EDUCATION IN TERRITORIES
UNDER UNITED STATES ADMINISTRATION BETWEEN 1946 AND 1956 ^{1/}

Territories	Year	Number of schools			Enrolment					
		Total	Public	Private	Total		Public		Private	
					MF	F	MF	F	MF	F
ALASKA	1946/47 ^{a/}	... ^{a/}	7,371 ^{b/}	...	757 ^{c/}	377 ^{c/}
	1955/56	...	210	20	... ^{a/}	... ^{a/}	31,221 ^{b/a/}	15,043 ^{b/a/}	... ^{a/}	... ^{a/}
AMERICAN SAMOA	1946/47	52	45	7	3,936	...	3,008	...	928	...
	1955/56	56	50	6	5,913	2,759	4,837	2,228	1,076	531
GUAM	1946/47	6,331
	1955/56	...	22	7,634	3,650
HAWAII	1946/47	50	52,418	...	42,878	20,718	9,540	...
	1955/56	77,589	...	64,907	31,442	12,682	...
PUERTO RICO	1946/47	294,014 ^{e/}	...	283,554	...	10,460 ^{e/}	...
	1951/52	1,800 ^{e/}	1,718	82 ^{e/}	365,220 ^{e/}	174,112 ^{e/}	348,287	164,770	16,933 ^{e/}	9,342 ^{e/}
VIRGIN ISLANDS	1946/47	26	19	7	4,652	...	2,950	...	1,702	...
	1955/56	33	20	13	5,536	...	3,828	...	1,708	...

^{1/} Pre-primary and special education excluded, unless otherwise stated. The following grades were included in the table:

Hawaii, Guam, Puerto Rico and Virgin Islands: Grades 1 to 6
Alaska : Grades 1 to 8
American Samoa : Grades 1 to 9

- ^{a/} Excluding enrolment in schools of the "Alaska Native Service", which consist of grades 1 to 12. In 1946/47 there were 5,425 pupils in these schools and in 1955/56 there were 5,828 pupils.
- ^{b/} Including kindergartens. (In 1946/47 there were 380 children in "city kindergartens schools").
- ^{c/} Total enrolment in "private and denominational schools", probably including secondary pupils.
- ^{d/} Public and private schools included together under public education.
- ^{e/} Excluding non-accredited private schools the enrolment in which was low (in 1948/49 there were 811 pupils in those schools that submitted reports).

TABLE 21

NUMBER OF SCHOOLS AND ENROLMENT IN PRIMARY EDUCATION IN TERRITORIES UNDER THE ADMINISTRATION OF AUSTRALIA, BELGIUM, DENMARK AND NEW ZEALAND, BETWEEN 1946 AND 1956 ^{1/}

Territory	Year	Number of schools			Enrolment					
		Total	Public	Private	Total		Public		Private	
					MF	F	MF	F	MF	F
AUSTRALIA										
Papua	1949	693	6	687	38,425	...	281	74	38,144	...
	1955	914	34	880	47,711	20,351	1,848	615	45,863	19,736
BELGIUM										
Belgian Congo ^{a/}	1946/47	24,729	874,842	34,672
	1947/48	24,542	923,165	...	410,116	...	513,049	...
	1955/56	25,786	13,637	12,149	1,231,241	...	872,979	...	358,262	...
DENMARK										
Greenland ^{b/}	1946/47	180	180	-	3,872	...	3,872	...	-	-
	1953/54	155	155	-	4,537	...	4,537	...	-	-
NEW ZEALAND										
Cook Islands	1946	24	11	13	3,514	...	2,824	...	690	...
	1956	28	19	9	4,280	...	3,891	...	389	...
Niue Island	1946	...	3	...	1,188	...	667	...	521	...
	1957	8	8	-	1,050	537	1,050	537	-	-
Tokelau Islands	1949	4	-	4	481 ^{c/}	...	-	-	481 ^{c/}	...
	1956	3	2	1	499	278	337	191	162	87

^{1/} Pre-primary and special education schools excluded unless otherwise stated.

^{a/} African education only; including pre-primary education, special and adult education.

^{b/} In 1946/47 enrolment in primary schools (7 years) and post-primary schools (2 years); in 1953/54 enrolment only in primary schools there were 110 (37 F) pupils in three post-primary schools.

^{c/} Data missing for Fakaofa Catholic School.

TABLE 22

PERCENTAGE ENROLMENT OF GIRLS IN PRIMARY EDUCATION, IN 1946/47 AND 1955/56^{1/}

(Territories are ranged by increasing rate female enrolment in 1955/56)

Territory	1946/1947	1955/1956
BRITISH SOMALILAND	2.9	7.2
COMORO ARCHIPELAGO	...	7.4
ADEN Protectorate	4.6 <u>a/</u>	8.7 <u>a/b/</u>
FRENCH EQUATORIAL AFRICA	10.6	10.7
FRENCH WEST AFRICA	19.4	23.7
FRENCH SOMALILAND	...	24.6
CAMBIA	...	26.6 <u>c/</u>
UGANDA	27.8	27.5
KENYA	...	28.0
ADEN	22.4	29.4
NIGERIA	20.5	30.1 <u>d/</u>
MOROCCO	39.7	30.9 <u>b/</u>
TUNISIA	28.4	31.5
GOLD COAST	26.8 <u>c/</u>	31.7 <u>c/</u>
SIERRA LEONE	...	31.7
NORTH BORNEO	24.9	32.2
ZANZIBAR AND PEMBA	27.3 <u>e/</u>	33.2
BRUNEI	26.3 <u>f/</u>	35.0
NORTHERN RHODESIA		
African education	32.6	35.1
SARAWAK	30.3	35.5
NYASALAND	39.8	36.2
FEDERATION OF MALAYA	29.8	36.5 <u>g/</u>
SINGAPORE	33.0	38.2
MADAGASCAR	...	40.7
GILBERT AND ELLICE	...	41.8
HONG KONG	44.4	41.8
PAPUA	...	42.7
MAURITIUS	40.1	43.2
FIJI	42.3	44.9
AMERICAN SAMOA	...	46.7
CYPRUS	45.3	47.2
FALKLAND ISLANDS	50.3	47.2 <u>g/</u>
GUAM	...	47.8 <u>a/</u>
PUERTO RICO	46.8 <u>h/</u>	47.9 <u>i/</u>
GRENADA	...	48.0
ALASKA	...	48.2
TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO	46.5 <u>c/</u>	48.3 <u>c/</u>
HAWAII	48.3 <u>a/</u>	48.4 <u>a/</u>
SAINT VINCENT	...	48.4
BRITISH GUIANA	47.9 <u>c/</u>	48.8 <u>c/</u>

/...

TABLE 22 (continued)

Territory	1946/1947	1955/1956
ST. HELENA	52.5 <u>j/</u>	48.9 <u>j/</u>
VIRGIN ISLANDS	51.4	49.4
BERMUDA	...	49.5
BRITISH HONDURAS	49.6 <u>f/</u>	49.5
MONTSERRAT	...	49.5
ST. KITTS-Nevis-Anguilla	49.9	49.5
SEYCHELLES	52.1	49.6
BARBADOS	50.0 <u>h/</u>	49.7
ANTIGUA	...	49.7
GIBRALTAR	47.3	49.8
BAHAMAS	50.6	50.0
DOMINICA	52.6	50.9
JAMAICA	51.6 <u>e/</u>	51.1
NIUE ISLAND	...	51.1 <u>k/</u>
SWAZILAND	54.6	51.2
ST. LUCIA	...	51.7 <u>c/i/</u>
COOK ISLANDS	...	55.7
BECHUANALAND	62.4 <u>c/</u>	61.2 <u>c/</u>
BASUTOLAND	63.6	63.5

l/ Unless indicated otherwise, the figures in the table refer to the civil years 1946 or 1947 or to the school year 1946/1947 in the initial period, and to the civil years 1955 or 1956 or to the school year 1955/1956 in the final period.

a/ Public education only.

b/ 1953/54.

c/ Public and aided schools only.

d/ 1954/55.

e/ 1949.

f/ 1948.

g/ 1954.

h/ 1948/49.

i/ 1953.

j/ Primary and secondary education.

k/ 1957.

IV. SECONDARY EDUCATION

292. This section is limited to the formal schooling which continues primary education, leads to a certificate of attainment and serves basically as the entrance to a professional or academic career. Other aspects of secondary education, provided by technical and vocational schools and teacher training centres are treated separately in subsequent sections.

293. The importance of secondary education to territories has been stressed in previous studies and discussions by the Committee on Information.^{54/} Broadly, the secondary schools (of all types) train the people needed for social, economic and political development and also produce the recruits for the leading professions. As stated by the Committee on Information in its 1956 report, "The concept of secondary education as an intermediate stage between primary and higher education sometimes leads to formalism and rigidity. Secondary education in many of the Non-Self-Governing Territories should have its own purpose and should be autonomous in the sense that it provides an education and training of sufficient content in itself without necessarily leading to higher education." The students who complete secondary education and seek employment have an important contribution to make to a territory's development; those who go on to higher education are no less indispensable; and the success of a secondary school system may be judged by the extent to which it serves both these purposes.

A. General policies

294. The educational authorities of most territories have during the past decade stated the principles on which their secondary education is based. The formulation of the Belgian Congo may be quoted in full.^{55/} Secondary schooling is viewed as part of the total school system, and should:

^{54/} United Nations, Committee on Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories, Report (Seventh session, 1956), Supplement No. 15 (A/3127) of the official records of the General Assembly.

United Nations, Special Study on Educational Conditions in Non-Self-Governing Territories, New York, 1956, pp. 31-46.

^{55/} Belgium, Ministère des Colonies, Plan Decennal pour le Développement économique et social du Congo Belge, Brussels, 1949, Vol. 1, p. 68.

- give students a good general education;
- give the majority of them a training which will enable them to take up employment of an intellectual character;
- prepare selected and suitable students to continue their high education in the existing establishments;
- prepare the first group of students for university education.

295. In the Conference of Directors of Education from French tropical Africa, held in 1950, the principle of quality was stressed.^{56/} To ensure that lycées and collèges were maintained at the same level as in France, it was indispensable to ensure that entrants from the primary school had reached about the same standard as their French counterparts. A certain tolerance in respect of age (up to two years of difference) was permissible, but no special measures such as "bridge classes" were acceptable. This insistence on quality does not preclude adaptation of the curriculum in various directions, but is designed to ensure that a proper training for leadership be given the secondary school students, whether they leave school or continue their studies after completing the course.

296. At the 1952 Cambridge Conference, educators from British tropical Africa tended to examine the period of schooling (primary plus secondary) as a unity.^{57/} They stressed the fact that the break between primary and secondary schools implied a sound method of selecting pupils, but regarded "all forms of secondary education as continuing the general education of the pupils, though with varying degrees of professional or technical emphasis".

297. While there is no critical review of education in the United States territories as a whole, relevant passages may be quoted from the Columbia University study on Puerto Rico.^{58/} As a result of their study, the survey staff concluded that "for the present, effort should not be made to extend secondary education to increased numbers but rather to make effective that which is now provided. The high elimination rate and the failure of secondary education to relate more specifically to the out-of-school or post-graduation pursuits of students are the

^{56/} France, Ministère de la France d'Outre Mer, Bulletin, Paris, juillet 1950, p. 13.

^{57/} Nuffield Foundation and Colonial Office, African Education: a study of educational policy and practice in British tropical Africa, Oxford, 1953 pp. 168-175.

^{58/} Columbia University, Teachers College, Institute of Field Studies, Public Education and the future of Puerto Rico, New York, 1950, pp. 382-387.

two major problems deserving further consideration. Certainly, the secondary schools must continue to prepare a limited number for entrance to the University. However, a more functional programme could be provided for this group without in any way endangering their success in the University."

298. These examples may serve to illustrate a number of policy questions related to secondary education. In the first place, educational authorities in almost all territories have been increasingly concerned with this level of schooling. The popular demand for more primary education has been accompanied, as the preceding section showed, by a rapid growth of enrolments and therefore by greater numbers who seek admission to secondary schools. One group of territories already had, before 1946, a secondary system which was largely based on practices in the metropolitan countries; the other group has only begun, since 1946, to build up a network of secondary schools. In both cases, territorial conditions and needs have produced through the mechanism of development plans a tendency to re-examine the structure and content of secondary education. The need for trained manpower and the growing number of primary school leavers represent the main factors within territories making for such a re-examination.

299. In the second place, educational events in the metropolitan countries themselves since World War II have focused attention on secondary education. The democratization of secondary education has been expressed in legislative action, experimentation and research and, in general, by a diversification of the field of studies. These currents of opinion have not been without effect in the territories. A wider concept of programmes has evolved: secondary education begins to embrace not only the intellectually gifted, but also other pupils progressing beyond the primary stage.

300. To match these ideals and needs to available resources has been a test of skill on the part of educational administrators in the territories. The results achieved over the past ten years may perhaps best be surveyed by examining first the organization of secondary education, then numerical progress, and finally the problems of the curriculum.

B. Organization of secondary schooling

301. Because of the broad identity among territories in respect of primary education it was possible to give a generalized statistical account of progress before discussing details of organization. In the present case the order must be reversed. Territories will be grouped by Administering Member and the main point of analysis will be to trace changes which have occurred in the period under review.

302. Australian Administration (Papua). The main type of school is the central (now termed intermediate) school with a three-year course covering the eighth to tenth year of school life. For upper secondary schooling, students have to go to Australia, and the Administration has a scholarship scheme for the purpose (affecting forty Papuans in 1955/1956).

303. Belgian Administration (Belgian Congo). A secondary school system for Africans existed before 1946, with a general vocational bias; since then a complex structure of differentiated secondary education has been developed along the lines traced by the 1948 Ten-Year Plan. Two categories of schooling have been set up, one preparatory to higher education, the other terminal and vocationally orientated. General education is provided in classical and scientific secondary schools with a six-year course following six years (or up to eight years) of previous study. Specialized education is given in two cycles corresponding roughly to the general school course; the first cycle may itself be terminal (lasting four years) or it may be the common three-year course leading to more specialized courses of three-years which prepare for administrative, commercial, teaching and other careers. The network of these schools and the fields studied have been greatly extended in the past ten years. In particular, secondary schooling for girls has been developed from small beginnings.

304. United Kingdom Administration. Whilst there are territorial variations, the usual pattern is a four-year course to the General Certificate of Education (ordinary level) with a growing provision of sixth forms (i.e. two further years of study) leading to the advanced and university scholarship level.

305. In African territories there have been a number of changes in organization, generally centred on the pattern for the school system as a whole. The chief problem is one of securing articulation between primary and secondary levels.

The Gold Coast had a six-year primary school, followed by four years of middle school; from the second or third year of the latter, students could pass to secondary schools, where the full course lasted six years. A similar situation prevailed in Southern Nigeria, 4 + 4 + 6, with passage to secondary school in the course of senior primary schooling. Sierra Leone maintained a six or seven-year primary course, followed by five or seven years of secondary schooling, and in Gambia the primary course of four years led to eight years of secondary education. 306. Among East African territories, Kenya and Zanzibar changed their organization progressively after 1952, and the pattern 4 + 4 + 4 is now found in these two territories as well as in Nyasaland and Northern Rhodesia (African schools). The school system of British Somaliland, built up since 1946, follows the same plan, but most of the available facilities are still at the intermediate school level. Uganda has maintained its 6 + 6 pattern, and that in the three High Commission territories is similar, seven or eight years of primary school followed by five of secondary.

307. In the United Kingdom Caribbean Territories, the problem of articulation between primary and secondary schooling has also been felt. The traditional form of organization was an all-age elementary school covering eight years, with passage to a secondary school after six years. As was remarked earlier, the educational authorities have attempted to fix age limits for the primary school and to convert the upper classes into secondary schools.

308. The Asian territories under United Kingdom administration have a fairly homogeneous plan of 6 + 3 + 3, in which secondary education forms two cycles of three years each. In some cases, notably Brunei and North Borneo, the secondary school system is of recent origin.

309. The remaining territories may be briefly resumed. Cyprus has a 6 + 6 plan. Gibraltar and Mauritius follow the British pattern of seven years of primary schooling leading to five or seven years of secondary. Seychelles has the 6 + 6 sequence, and Aden has retained the intermediate school, with 4 + 3 + 4. In the Pacific, Fiji has an eight-year primary school leading after the fifth grade to a seven-year secondary school. The Gilbert and Ellice Islands in 1946 has all-age schools covering a ten-year course; with the establishment of government schools (six-year course) separate secondary classes are of recent origin.

310. French Administration. The pattern has been homogeneous throughout the period - a 7-year course of secondary education following 6 years (or more) of primary schooling. The secondary course comprises a first cycle of 4 years leading to the brevet d'études du premier cycle (BEPC); 2 further years to the first part of the baccalaureate, and a terminal year of preparation for the second part of the baccalaureate or university entrance.

311. Netherlands Administration (Netherlands New Guinea). The school system is of recent origin, and secondary education was begun during the decade 1946-1956. Based on a 6-year primary school, various forms of "advanced primary education" have been instituted, usually providing a 3-year course at lower secondary level.

312. New Zealand Administration. The first secondary school was recently opened in the Cook Island group; based upon 6 years of primary study, the course will last 5 to 7 years.

313. United States Administration. Except for Alaska, all territories have adopted the 6 + 3 + 3 plan, in which the 6-year high school course falls into two cycles. Guam changed its original structure to this during the period under review. In Alaska, the prevailing pattern is 8 years of elementary followed by 4 years of high school.

C. Changes in courses and examinations

314. The main purpose of the survey of secondary school systems given above is to situate in context the numerical and curricular changes which have occurred since 1946. Two general trends may be discussed at this point.

315. In the first place, the past ten years have seen the start of many secondary school systems and the development of complete courses in other cases. Starting without secondary schools in 1946, the following territories have reached some type of formal secondary organization by 1956: British Somaliland, Brunei, Comoro Islands, Cook Is., French Somaliland, Netherlands New Guinea, Niue Is., North Borneo. Moreover, as a result of re-organization, the Gilbert and Ellice Is. and St. Helena have developed distinct secondary schools during the period. In many other territories the secondary courses already existing have been completed by the adding of "sixth forms" or "classes terminales", thus making it possible for students to fulfil university entrance requirements.

316. The second trend has been towards the differentiation of the traditional course. In particular, "modern" secondary schools of various types have been recognized - schools with a somewhat shorter course and a terminal curriculum designed for students who will leave school at 15 or 16 to go to work. Examples may be found in many British territories, such as Fiji, Kenya, Malaya and Trinidad. In the Gold Coast the 4-year middle school was intended as early as 1950 for development into a secondary modern type, so that pupils leaving the 6-year primary school might choose between the full secondary course and the shorter modern. Similar steps have been taken in French territories, where the first secondary cycle of 4 years has been organized in collèges modernes courts and in cours complémentaires after the post-war pattern in France. This has involved the reorganization of various post-primary classes attached to primary schools and the prolongation of complementary courses. The relative frequency of these types of secondary school may be seen below:

French territories: types of secondary schools (1950 and 1955)

Territory	<u>Total secondary establishments</u>		<u>Collèges modernes</u>		<u>Cours complémentaires</u>	
	1950	1955	1950	1955	1950	1955
Comoro Is.	1	1	-	-	1	1
French Equatorial Africa	14	36	3	6	-	1
French West Africa	44	71	17	23	-	5
Madagascar	22	130	1	11	17	109
New Hebrides	-	2	-	-	-	2
Somaliland	1	3	-	-	-	3

317. The comprehensive school has also been adopted as a form of organization in certain territories of the British West Indies, and in Puerto Rico. The "specialized secondary school" of the Belgian Congo represents a similar approach. Essentially, a number of problems arise when the various forms of secondary education are kept apart in distinct establishments, and the comprehensive (or multilateral) school attempts to solve these by grouping together children taking academic, modern and pre-vocational courses at the secondary level. However, a trend in this direction is not yet evident in many territories.

318. Apart from changes in organization, there have also been modifications of traditional final examinations with resulting effects on the secondary curriculum. In 1948, for example, special Franco-Tunisian and Moroccan baccalaureates were instituted, making it possible to develop in these two territories secondary school systems which were based on the study of Arabic and national history and institutions. The Directors of Education of French tropical African territories decided that such special examinations were unnecessary in other regions; but recommended that the one foreign language requirement for the baccalaureate be maintained in Africa after France had raised the requirement to two foreign languages.^{59/} Territories under United Kingdom administration have tended to adopt the overseas certificate examinations of the Cambridge University Local Examinations Syndicate. Requirements for these examinations have progressively been modified by regional needs and have also been influenced by the greater elasticity of the New English General Certificate of Education. The example of adaptation may be found in the West African territories, where a West African Examinations Council was set up on an inter-territorial basis in 1952. The Council undertook in 1954 all administrative arrangements for the Cambridge Syndicate, and set and marked certain papers under the ultimate control of the Syndicate. In addition, the Council conducted the University of London G.C.E. examination for those schools wishing to take it, and arranged examinations of its own for the award of territorial government bursaries.

D. A statistical view of progress, 1946 to 1956

319. Relevant statistics between 1946 and 1956 are given at the end of this section in Tables 23 to 26 which describe respectively secondary education in territories under United Kingdom, French, U.S. and other administrations.

320. As has been remarked earlier, a useful form of comparison is to take the enrolment of students and to work out the average annual rate of increase in the enrolment by the compound interest formula. This percentage shows the rhythm of

^{59/} France, Ministère de la France d'Outre-Mer, Inspection générale de l'enseignement et de la jeunesse, Bulletin, Paris, juillet 1950, p.13.

expansion of secondary education. To situate it in relation to the school system as a whole two further indicators may be sought - the ratio of secondary to primary enrolment and the average annual growth of primary enrolment. Admittedly, there are so many variations in the organization of primary and secondary courses that the ratio of enrolments is not comparable between territories. But for individual territories, the ratio has interest in that it reveals what proportion of students are in establishments which the authorities consider to be general secondary. For the world as a whole taking the aggregate of these nationally and territorially defined schools, UNESCO found that around 1952 enrolments in secondary schools were around 20 per cent of those in primary schools. Vocational and teacher training figures are not considered here.

321. United Kingdom Administration. The relevant statistics are reported in Table 23. With a few exceptions, such as British Honduras, Cyprus and Hong Kong, unaided private schools do not contribute a large proportion to total enrolments. The analysis below is, however, based on enrolments in all administrative types of secondary school - government, aided and unaided.

322. African Territories (United Kingdom). By arranging the territories in descending order of the rate of expansion, these figures result:

Territory	<u>United Kingdom Africa: Growth in secondary school enrolments</u>		
	Percentage increase per year in secondary enrolments 1946-1956	Secondary enrolment as percentage primary enrolment, around 1956	(Percentage increase per year in primary enrolments)
Nyasaland	28.3	0.3	(1.5)
N. Rhodesia (Africa)	22.5	0.5	(1.6)
Gold Coast (middle schools taken as secondary)	21.8	28.0	(10.5)
Bechuanaland	19.0	1.3	(1.5)
Kenya	18.4	2.2	(7.9)
Uganda	17.8	5.2	(4.7)
Nigeria	14.0	1.7	(13.5)
Swaziland	11.1	2.6	(8.4)
Gold Coast (middle schools taken as primary)	10.6	2.0	(10.5)

United Kingdom Africa: Growth in secondary school enrolments (cont'd)

<u>Territory</u>	<u>Percentage increase per year in secondary enrolments 1946-1956</u>	<u>Secondary enrolment as percentage primary enrolment, around 1956</u>	<u>(Percentage increase per year in primary enrolments)</u>
Sierra Leone	10.6	1.0	(8.4)
Basutoland	10.6	1.2	(2.3)
Gambia	7.8	1.2	(7.5)
Zanzibar	7.2	5.0	(7.0)
British Somaliland	...	1.5	(14.0)

The table has several points of interest. No progress rate is shown for British Somaliland because the secondary school system is of so recent an origin. For the remaining territories, the rate of expansion for secondary schools is invariably more rapid than is that for primary schools. Indeed, inspection shows a certain inverse correlation, for territories like Nyasaland, Northern Rhodesia and Bechuanaland have the highest rates in secondary and the lowest in primary school expansion. Despite the generally impressive figures in the first column, those in the secondary column indicate how small secondary education still is in relation to primary school enrolments.

323. Caribbean Territories (United Kingdom). Here the school systems are of older origin but the same difficulty of deciding on cut-off points between secondary and primary education arises as with the African territories. Upper primary sections have wherever possible (and appropriate) been counted with secondary enrolments, but statistics are not always sufficiently detailed for the purpose. When the territories are placed in order of the rate of secondary school expansion, the following table results:

United Kingdom Caribbean Territories: Growth in secondary school enrolment

Territory	Percentage increase per year in secondary enrolments 1946-1956	Secondary enrolment as percentage primary enrolment, around 1956	(Percentage increase per year in primary enrolments)
St. Lucia	13.4	4.3	(4.4)
Virgin Islands	12.4	5.4	(5.3)
Antigua	11.7	12.9	(4.7)
Bermuda	10.4	15.9	(2.1)
British Honduras	10.3	7.0	(4.0)
Bahamas	9.4	6.7	(3.2)
Trinidad and Tobago	8.6	16.1	(4.6)
Dominica	8.1	7.6	(3.0)
British Guiana	7.3	1.7	(4.5)
Jamaica	6.6	3.9	(2.2)
St. Kitts	5.6	5.9	(1.8)
St. Vincent	4.2	4.4	(3.3)
Grenada	3.4	6.9	(-)
Montserrat	2.8	5.0	(-)
Barbados	1.5	50.0	(2.3)

Despite the confusing appearance of this table, certain trends stand out clearly. First, secondary education has expanded more rapidly than primary in every territory except Barbados. Moreover, the rates at which secondary schools in the region have grown are not markedly lower than those recorded in other regions; this was not the case for **primary** schooling. And finally, the extent of secondary education appears to be at a fairly high level in several territories; the exceptional figure for Barbados (half as many enrolments in secondary as in primary schools) is arrived at by considering that senior primary classes should be grouped with secondary schools. This assumption appears justified. Since Barbados has most vigorously applied the policy of separating primary from secondary schools, and of creating modern secondary schools, the high proportion of secondary level pupils may signify that in other Caribbean territories the real situation of secondary education is higher than present figures indicate.

324. Asian Territories (United Kingdom). The ratios derived for these territories are as follows:

United Kingdom - Asia: Growth in secondary school enrolment

Territory	Percentage increase per year in secondary enrolments, 1946-1956	Secondary enrolment as percentage primary enrolment, around 1956	(Percentage increase per year in primary enrolment)
Sarawak	27.2	11.6	(8.0)
Malaya	23.2	9.2	(5.0)
Singapore	18.3	15.6	(11.0)
Hong Kong	13.2	23	(11.4)
Brunei	-	6.5	(10.0)
North Borneo	-	8.4	(7.4)

Because Brunei and North Borneo had few or no secondary enrolments at the beginning of the period, the annual rise cannot be computed. In both cases secondary education has grown very rapidly, as the percentages in the second column show. The entire group of territories has recorded a faster expansion of secondary than of primary education, resulting in favourable ratios for at least the first four of them.

325. Other Territories (United Kingdom). Corresponding figures are:

Other United Kingdom Territories: Growth in secondary school enrolment

Territory	Percentage increase per year in secondary enrolments, 1946-1956	Secondary enrolment as percentage primary enrolment, around 1956	(Percentage increase per year in primary enrolment)
Indian Ocean - Seychelles	15.5	7.1	(3.2)
- Aden	14.5	12.0	(5.65)
- Mauritius	6.6	12.3	(6.2)
Pacific Ocean- Fiji	21.4	4.3	(3.7)
- Gilbert and Ellice	-	2.5	(0.7)
- Solomon Islands	-	-	(3.4)
Mediterranean- Cyprus	9.1	23	(3.1)
- Gibraltar	4.7	45	(4.3)
Other - Falklands	-	62	(1.6)
- St. Helena	-	54	(-4.0)

Three of these territories - Falklands, Gilbert and Ellice and St. Helena - have reorganized schooling during the period so as to indicate secondary school enrolments, and the annual rise cannot be measured adequately. One territory, the Solomon Islands, does not yet have secondary education. With this exception, all territories show a rapid rise in secondary enrolments which is more rapid than (and inversely related to) rises in primary enrolment.

326. French Administration. Figures for the number of schools, enrolments and examinations results are given in Table 23 at the end of this section. It is difficult in some cases to separate from general secondary enrolments the students who are preparing to become teachers because the cours complémentaires often include teacher training sections which are not reported separately. For the present survey, total enrolments will be taken as they appear in the table, but it should be remembered that comparability with other groups of territories is limited by this factor.

327. Private schools make some contribution - at times considerable - to total enrolments. The analysis below is based wherever possible on the total sum of public and private enrolment. For two territories, French West Africa and Morocco, only the public school figures are known.

328. The relevant ratios are as follows:

French Territories: Growth in secondary school enrolments

Territory	Percentage increase per year in secondary enrolments, 1946-1956	Secondary enrolment as percentage primary enrolment, around 1956	(Percentage increase per year in primary enrolment)
Madagascar	26.6	4.5	(6.1)
French Equatorial Africa	22.3	2.3	(17.1)
Tunisia	11.0	7.1	(9.0)
French West Africa	9.8	2.7	(12.1)
Morocco	7.9	5.1	(13.4)
Somaliland	-	6.9	(4.2)
Comoro Islands	-	3.5	(4.2)

In the case of the Comoro Islands and Somaliland, the recent growth of secondary education precludes the calculation of a trend figure; both territories have made considerable progress in this level of schooling. The remaining territories

/...

appear to have expanded secondary education rapidly, although in French West Africa and Morocco not as rapidly as provisions for primary education. The case of French Equatorial Africa stands out as an instance of progress simultaneously on both levels.

329. United States Administration. In this group of territories secondary education has for long been well developed, the single exception being American Samoa. The basic statistics in Table 24 may be analysed to produce the following ratios:

United States Territories: Growth in secondary school enrolments

<u>Territory</u>	<u>Percentage increase per year in secondary enrolments, 1946-1956</u>	<u>Secondary enrolment as percentage primary enrolment, around 1956</u>	<u>(Percentage increase per year in primary enrolment)</u>
Alaska	13.6	18	(17.4)
Virgin Islands	10.1	42	(2.0)
Guam	10.0	39	(2.1)
American Samoa	8.7	4.7	(4.6)
Puerto Rico	5.9	33	(4.7)
Hawaii	1.6	67	(4.5)

It should be remembered that secondary courses differ in the territories: most have a six-year course, but Alaska has four years and American Samoa, for the pertinent figures above, three years. The table shows an extension of secondary education which is markedly more rapid than that of primary - except for Alaska, where both ratios are high, and Hawaii, where both are relatively low. The proportion of total school enrolment found in secondary schools is high in nearly all territories.

330. Other territories. The statistics will be found in Table 25. For two other territories, Cook Islands and Niue, secondary education dates only from 1950 and 1954 respectively, so that no trend figures can be derived. For Greenland, data are available for one year, although secondary schooling has been provided throughout the period under review. And finally, both the Belgian Congo and Papua figures apply to vocational education and teacher training as well as to general secondary schooling. The following analysis results from Table 25:

Other territories: Growth in secondary school enrolment

<u>Territory</u>	<u>Percentage increase per year in secondary enrolments, 1946-1956</u>	<u>Secondary enrolment as percentage primary enrolment, around 1956</u>	<u>(Percentage increase per year in primary enrolment)</u>
Belgian Congo	20.1	3.1	(3.9)
Papua	- 2.6	2.5	(3.7)
Greenland (1946-53)	-	3.3	(1.8)
Cook Islands	-	3.9	(2.0)
Niue	-	5.6	-

The table indicates rapid expansion in the Belgian Congo, and progress in the Danish and New Zealand territories. In the case of Papua, enrolment figures must be treated with reserve. The administration is still in the process of developing control over the school system as a whole, and returns from the private mission schools show considerable fluctuations. The emerging provisions for secondary (or post-primary) education are particularly affected by such variations. Down to 1955 the various intermediate schools were shown separately in official reports, and they have been included with primary enrolments in the present survey (Table 21) and therefore excluded from secondary. In 1956 these intermediate schools (total enrolment 10,087) were shown at post-primary level; but in the 1957 report (total enrolment 625) most of them have been classified by the Administration under primary level.^{60/} No general conclusions can be reached on the movement of secondary education in this territory.

E. Wastage

331. The growth of secondary school enrolments needs to be set beside some information on the extent to which the schools retain their students.

332. As was noted in the previous section, evidence on wastage may be obtained from examination results and, more adequately, from the distribution of students by grade over a number of years. Data on public examinations are known, at least for recent years, for the majority of territories under French administration.

^{60/} See Commonwealth of Australia, Territory of Papua, Annual Report 1954-1955, Appendix XXII; and the same Appendix in the Annual Report 1955-1956 and Annual Report 1956-1957.

The figures in Table 23 may be analysed by expressing the total secondary school enrolment as 100 for each territory. The following table results:

French Territories: proportion of students taking and passing examinations

Territory	Year	Of each 100 secondary students			
		No. taking BEPC	No. passing	No. taking 1st and 2nd bacca-laureates	No. passing
Comoro Islands	1955/56	10	6	-	-
French Equatorial Africa	1955/56	...	9	...	2
French West Africa	1955/56	23	10	9	5
Madagascar	1955/56	29	11	5	2
Somaliland	1955/56	10	5	-	-
Morocco	1946/47	19	6	29	12
	1953/54	18	8	16	8
Tunisia	1946/47	13	4	15	10
	1954/55	22	6	23	7

It may be recalled that the secondary course extends over seven years, with the lower cycle of four years leading to BEPC (brevet d'études du premier cycle) and the upper cycle to the two stages of the baccalaureate. If one assumes an even distribution of secondary students over 7 or 6 classes, the enrolment per grade per 100 would be around 15. The figures above, as far as entrants for examinations are concerned, seem to indicate a good grade distribution, with little dropping out. Successes in the examinations are perhaps less favourable.

333. Examination results are also reported by a number of territories under British administration. Analysis of the Cambridge Oversea certificate examinations taken in Jamaica, Trinidad, Kenya and Uganda in 1946, 1951 and 1956 does not appear to show any significant variation in the proportion of students entering for the School Certificate and in the proportion passing. During the period reviewed, other types of terminal examination have become available, either territorial or from other external bodies such as London University, and the real increase in secondary school leavers cannot therefore be gauged from a single examination.

334. More detailed scrutiny is possible in the several territories which report enrolments by grade. A single case - Trinidad and Tobago - may be examined as an example. The primary school leads on to "senior primary" or "intermediate" and "secondary" education after the sixth grade, so for present purposes the total enrolments in all types of school should be taken by grade, from the seventh to the thirteenth grade. These figures, for successive years 1949 to 1955, are as follows:

Trinidad - enrolments by grade in intermediate and secondary schools

Year	Grade						
	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1949	8,221	5,643	3,889	1,144	1,376	186	145
1950	9,314	6,572	4,421	1,277	916	800	156
1951	9,174	5,880	3,845	1,446	1,216	738	353
1952	9,551	6,423	3,965	1,443	1,227	525	211
1953	10,965	6,052	3,726	1,497	1,605	155	164
1954	12,250	6,989	4,322	1,624	1,921	235	163
1955	13,481	7,554	4,889	1,483	1,651	156	213

Inspection of the table shows a considerable amount of wastage during the course, as may be seen by taking a single group (e.g. Grade 7 in 1949) and following it down diagonal to Grade 13 in 1955. But there are fluctuations in this wastage, and it is not immediately clear whether the situation in 1955 was better or worse than in 1949. One device for further analysis is to calculate a series of moving averages for the periods 1949-1953, 1950-1954, 1951-1955. This is done simply by adding the enrolments by grade for each year in the period, then expressing the total as a percentage of the total enrolment in the preceding grade. From the three series of percentages obtained, comparisons can be made between the two earlier and the two later periods. The results are:

Trinidad - percentage of students surviving in intermediate and secondary schools

	From Gr.7: to Gr.8:	From Gr.8: to Gr.9:	From Gr. 9: to Gr.10:	From Gr.10: to Gr.11:	From Gr.11: to Gr.12:	From Gr.12 to Gr.13
<u>Moving average 1950-54</u>	67.6:	66.3:	36.7 :	101.1 :	38.7 :	43.6
Moving average 1949-53	:	:	:	:	:	:
<u>Moving average 1951-55</u>	64.2:	65.0:	39.9 :	104.6 :	26.3 :	45.0
Moving average 1950-54	:	:	:	:	:	:

335. This table shows that most children starting the seventh grade stay on through the ninth, i.e. complete the intermediate course. Proportionately few stay on for the tenth grade; in grade 11, the year of the school certificate examination, there is a silting up of enrolments, due no doubt to failures in the examination and students repeating the course in the hope of passing. The final two years prepare for the higher school certificate, and the drop from Grade 11 to 12 is considerable, as is that from 12 to 13. Within the limited period covered, little can be said of trends; the main pattern remains constant, but if anything the figures in the lower line are less favourable than in the upper.

336. A still more accurate record of the situation can be obtained only by detailed study within a school system, through the gathering of information about individual pupils who leave school before completing the course. One such analysis may be quoted from the Puerto Rican curriculum survey already referred to. The survey staff reported:^{61/} "As in the elementary schools, there is a problem of continuous loss through withdrawal. The withdrawal rates are high particularly in grade 7 and grade 12... The increasingly higher per cent of withdrawals during each of the senior high school years suggests the need for careful study. It is especially difficult to determine why there should necessarily be such a high loss in grade 12".

^{61/} Columbia University, Teachers College, Institute of Fields Studies, Public Education and the future of Puerto Rico, New York, 1950, p. 376.

337. While these examples are not representative, it is significant that the highly developed school systems of the Caribbean region describe wastage as a serious problem in secondary education. It is likely that a similar situation obtains in most territories, but is not yet evident because school leavers at any point of the secondary course find it relatively easy to obtain employment. Wastage at this level may not have the acute economic consequence that is ascribed by administrators to wastage at the primary school level.

F. Curricula

338. A number of aspects need to be considered: how students are recruited, the types of course and programmes of study, and the subsequent careers of students.

339. Selection of students. In view of the limited capacity of secondary schools, almost all territories have selective systems based on examination at the end of the primary course. There has been a trend, during the period reviewed, to convert entrance examinations set by individual secondary schools to a common or standardized test for the territory as a whole - a practice already followed before 1946 on territories under French administration, with the entrée en 6^o examination.

340. The nature and influence of selection procedures have been frequently commented upon by territorial authorities. A public examination is the main means for nearly all territories; and this has been simplified to bear chiefly on English or French (these are the languages of instruction in most secondary schools) and arithmetic. Tests of general knowledge and of such primary school subjects as geography and history continue to be used in some cases. Where research facilities exist - and their growth through institutes of education has been noteworthy - beginnings have also been made with the application of standardized attainment tests. Apart from examinations and tests, the interview method is commonly used in territories with smaller populations. The individual record card has been adopted experimentally in a few cases to assist the process of selection, but has not become general: it is reported that teachers are not sufficiently trained to make this method reliable.

341. In addition to these educational forms of selecting students for secondary education, an economic selection also operates, for tuition fees are charged in a number of territories, and boarding schools in most cases make charges. These costs are somewhat alleviated by systems of scholarships and free places, financed from public funds. Nevertheless, the ability of families to support children at secondary school or to sacrifice their potential earnings remains a factor in recruitment to these schools.

342. Perhaps the most significant fact about the passage from primary to secondary schools is the small proportion of students who find secondary places. In territories which have evolved development plans based upon existing facilities and projected financial resources, it has been commonly assumed that about 20 per cent of those leaving the last primary or middle grade will enter the first secondary grade. Where the levels of schooling are less closely articulated, the selection is even more severe. For United Kingdom territories in West Africa, for example, it has been said: "There are upwards of 14,000 candidates for about 800 places and these candidates range in attainment from Standard V to Standard VII and in age from 13 to 19".

343. Despite selection on this scale, it has also been reported that secondary schools do not receive recruits of a high enough standard. One major factor here is the unevenness of teaching in scattered population areas, where small rural schools which do not attract the best teachers find it difficult to compete with urban schools. More generally, the rapid expansion of primary schooling over the past decade has been held responsible for a certain lowering of standards.

344. Content of courses. The original purpose of secondary schools was to prepare students for higher education or entrance to the professions, and the level and nature of the course were designed to produce a qualification which would be acceptable in metropolitan countries. Accordingly, the university requirements of the respective metropolitan countries have dominated the curriculum of the territories. As was pointed out in an earlier paragraph on organization, modifications have been made in two directions during the past ten years: greater flexibility in the examination requirements and the development of a more broadly based secondary school system including modern schools.

345. An important change has been the acceptance of territorial languages for secondary examination purposes by bodies in the metropolitan countries. The Moroccan and Franco-Tunisian baccalaureates accepted colloquial as well as classical Arabic. Similarly a number of African languages such as Malagasy, Swahili, Yoruba and the four principal languages of the Belgian Congo, have become subjects of study throughout the secondary school course.

346. Corresponding changes have been reported also in the programmes of study for the principal subjects. A circular of the Ministère de la France d'Outre-Mer of 8 February 1950 indicated that existing programmes for history, geography, natural science and French should be modified in the African territories on the basis of written reports made by inspectors-general when they completed their regular tours of inspection. Similar results have been obtained in British territories by direct negotiation between the territorial education authorities and the examining bodies.

347. The evolution of higher education in the territories (except for institutions in Alaska, Hawaii and Puerto Rico, well-established before 1946) is of too recent an origin to have produced purely territorial standards of university entrance. The new universities and colleges use modified forms of the metropolitan university examinations to select their students.

348. The broader base of secondary education has arisen in three ways: by the extension upwards of previous "upper primary" sections, by the deliberate expansion of modern secondary schools, collèges modernes and cours complémentaires as parts of the secondary system or by the differentiation of existing secondary schools. This approach involves a departure from the traditional academic education given in "full" secondary schools, and it has met with a certain amount of opposition in territories as in other parts of the world. An example, representative of many others, may be taken from Uganda. Following the De Bunsen Commission report in 1952, it was decided to organize the **six years** secondary school course in two cycles: an upper course of four years, leading to higher education; and a junior secondary course of three years. Students entered the upper course after two years at the junior school; and those failing such entry had one further year of schooling of a practical kind. This policy required the establishment of separate school buildings for the two levels and the development of a district curriculum for the junior secondary school. During the

first three years, from 1953 to 1956, progress was made along both these lines, but the continued prestige of the upper secondary schools made it difficult to develop the junior schools into something more than channels for feeding the upper schools.

349. One of the main obstacles in establishing modern schools with a practical curriculum has been a shortage of suitably qualified teachers. Territories have found it increasingly difficult to recruit from metropolitan sources the teachers of science and mathematics needed in academic secondary schools; for the modern schools, where the applied sciences, agriculture, home economics, commercial language training and similar fields are required, there is a **similar** lack of supply. The point is made in reports from Uganda, where teacher training colleges have recently been expanded with this post-primary need in view.

350. The long academic and short practical course are two forms of the secondary curriculum but they are not necessarily kept separate. Territories which have adopted a 4 + 4 + 4 plan, with a middle school between primary and secondary (as in most United Kingdom East African territories) have regarded the middle school as an essential part of the system. It has a practical curriculum arising from the locality, with opportunities for agriculture, animal husbandry, manual work, home economics etc., to be followed by all students, both those who leave after the eighth grade and those who proceed to secondary studies.

351. Another approach, where only primary and secondary levels are distinguished, is to group the different secondary courses in a single school. This has been partly realized in the specialized secondary school of the Belgian Congo; and recently Fiji and Malaya have adopted streaming of secondary schools into academic and general courses. In territories under United States administration this integration of courses has been taken a stage further in the comprehensive high schools which offer academic, general and vocational studies. The resulting contact between students of various branches is an advantage, and those who continue to higher education appear to compare favourably with students from a single-stream school. Schools of this type, however, require a fairly high enrolment (over 500) as well as special staffing and equipment; few territories have attempted to establish them during the period reviewed.

G. Secondary education for girls

352. Educational authorities have paid particular attention to the need for expanding facilities for girls at both primary and secondary levels. In the latter case, development has often been designed to produce teachers, and many of the secondary schools for girls have been established in conjunction with teacher training centres.

353. The increase in total secondary enrolments has already been commented on, and it may suffice at this point to examine briefly how the proportion of girls in the total has changed. The general conclusion is that the lag in girls' schooling has been reduced, even though much still remains to be done.

354. For the eleven United Kingdom African Territories with available figures, the percentage of girls in secondary enrolments rose during the period in **eight** - in one case, Basutoland, the rise being from 15 per cent to 36 per cent. Two territories show a decrease; and in one, British Somaliland, no girls had reached secondary education by the end of the period.

355. In the United Kingdom Caribbean Territories, there is no particular problem. Girls made up 45 per cent or more of enrolments before 1946, and fluctuations during the decade were slight.

356. The Asian Territories under the United Kingdom administration have increased the enrolment of girls more rapidly than that of boys, except in two cases where the percentage remained stationary. A rise was recorded in most of the **other** cases: in Aden the first girls reached the secondary grades during the period reviewed, and by the end they made up 16 per cent of total enrolments; in Fiji, the percentage of girls rose from 16 per cent to 29 per cent in the decade.

357. Much the same trend has obtained in territories under French administration. In Madagascar, the proportion of girls rose from 8 per cent to 31 per cent. Morocco and Tunisia reported a slight fall in the percentage of girls, but the level in both cases is fairly high (40 per cent and 33 per cent respectively).

358. The necessary data for analysis are not available for most territories under other administrations.

H. Limiting factors and problems

359. Despite the expansion of secondary education recorded above, territorial authorities have reported a wide range of difficulties which impede progress.

360. Finance is the first. Buildings and the equipment of laboratories and libraries make secondary education much more expensive than primary. Populations on the island territories and in parts of Africa are scattered, so that boarding establishments are necessary; even in more populous areas, a selective system of secondary education inevitably draws some students from a distance, and they must be lodged.

361. A shortage of qualified teachers has also been apparent. Since teachers require university training, most of the territories in 1946 were dependent on metropolitan sources of supply, either by sending their students abroad for higher education or by recruiting in competition with schools in these countries. Both methods are costly. The pressing need for teachers has been one of the chief incentives for the recent expansion of higher education in the territories. In particular, women teachers and teachers of science have been in short supply throughout the period.

362. The poor quality of entrants to schools has been reported as a problem, at least for the academic secondary schools. This is due in part to the change in medium of instruction in those territories which employ the vernacular as medium in primary schools. But more generally, the difficulty arises from the somewhat different factors determining the curriculum at primary and at secondary level, the former being more responsive to territorial conditions, the latter to university entrance standards.

363. Finally, the economic situation of parents and the public at large may present difficulties. Secondary education still requires financial sacrifices by parents in most territories, either for tuition or boarding fees or even for school supplies, and poverty certainly plays a part in limiting enrolments. On the other hand, while schooling at this level is not wide-spread, parents tend to demand that it follow the academic form which has prestige as an opening to the lucrative professions. The modern and practical types of secondary education have not acquired as much prestige.

I. Concluding note

364. Secondary education has undergone numerous changes in the years 1946-1956. Enrolment has been expanded, and this expansion is more marked in the case of girls than of boys. Modifications in the form of organization, in curricula and in examination requirements at the start and the end of the secondary course have occurred in a majority of territories. For a certain number of territories the past decade has marked the beginning of a secondary school system.

365. Because it has been perhaps the most rapidly growing part of the educational system, secondary education has met with serious problems. Future development will depend to a large extent on how the needs expressed in recent reports are met. These needs may be summarized as follows:

- (a) In educational planning and the allocation of finance, expansion of secondary education must be integrated with the raising of standards in primary schools, with the training of secondary school teachers and with the needs of institutions of higher education.
- (b) In the financing of secondary education, still wider provision of boarding facilities and of free places are needed, so that no child with ability should be debarred from schooling by geographical or economic circumstances.
- (c) In the curriculum, further adaptation to the social background of the students will undoubtedly take place. This also entails the recognition of the value of a more broadly-based secondary course, embracing the "modern" school and vocational studies as well as studies preparatory to higher education.

NUMBER OF SCHOOLS AND ENROLMENT

IN SECONDARY EDUCATION IN TERRITORIES UNDER UNITED KINGDOM ADMINISTRATION, BETWEEN 1946 AND 1956^{1/}

Territories	Year	Number of schools				T O T A L		Government or local authority		Enrolment			
		Total	Government or local authority	Aided	Unaided	Male and female	Female	Male and female	Female	Aided	Unaided	Male and female	Female
ADEN, Colony	1946/47	1	1	-	-	280	-	280	-	-	-	-	-
	1953/54	3	1	1	1	431	52	180	-	190	52	61	-
	1956	8	3	4	1	1,084	179	557	64	263	94	264	21
ADEN, Protectorate	1946/47	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	1953/54	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
BAHAMAS	1946/47	5	1	1	3	599 ^{a/}	280 ^{a/}	130 ^{a/}	52 ^{a/}	342 ^{a/}	167 ^{a/}	127 ^{a/}	61 ^{a/}
	1955/56	8	1	3	4	1,341 ^{b/}	702 ^{a/}	209 ^{a/}	125 ^{a/}	596 ^{a/}	297 ^{a/}	536 ^{a/}	280 ^{a/}
BARBADOS	1948/49 ^{b/c/}	130	112	11	7	11,865	5,711	8,188	3,834	2,433	820	1,244	1,057
	1953/54 ^{b/}	114	95	10	9	12,774	5,985	8,278	3,935	2,800	926	1,696	1,124
BASUTOLAND	1946	4	1	3	-	467	83	155	49	312	34	-	-
	1956	17	-	1,278	454	-	-
BECHUANALAND ^{e/}	1946	57	29	-	-
	1956	5	3	2	-	325	123	105	56	220	67	-	-
BERMUDA	1946 ^{f/}
	1950	10	-	765	380	-	-
	1956	13	-	9	4	1,256	682	-	-	966	520	290	162
BRITISH GUIANA	1946/47	...	2	1	626	226	244	92
	1954/55	...	2 ^{h/}	2	974 ^{h/}	401 ^{h/}	641	181
	1956	4	1,759	530
BRITISH HONDURAS	1948	5	-	-	5	557	270	-	-	-	-	557	270
	1955	8	-	-	8	1,084	521	-	-	-	-	1,084	521
	1956	8	-	-	8	1,219	582	-	-	-	-	1,219	582
BRITISH SOLOMON ISLANDS	1946) 1956)	Information not available											
BRUNEI	1948	-	2	3	...	607	193	283	73	324	120
	1956	5	-
CYPRUS ^{1/}	1946/47	42	-	21	21	8,893	2,578	-	-
	1955/56	57	-	22	35	19,406	6,393	-	-	7,478	2,118	11,928	4,275

^{1/} A school giving education at different levels is generally counted separately at each level. Excludes primary sections of secondary schools, unless otherwise stated. Intermediate, senior primary or junior secondary schools are included either in primary or in secondary education, according to their level in the Territory concerned.

- a/ Including pupils in primary departments.
 b/ Including a small number of pupils in vocational training courses.
 c/ Including data on 112 senior departments of primary schools, counted as separate secondary schools.
 d/ Including data on ninety-three senior departments of primary schools, counted as separate secondary schools.

- e/ African pupils only. European pupils attend secondary schools outside the Territory. In 1946 there were 104 European pupils in primary and high schools in the Union of South Africa. In 1955 there were over 200 European pupils from the Territory in secondary schools in the Union of South Africa, plus a small number in secondary institutions in the United Kingdom.

- f/ Included within primary education.
 g/ It is estimated that in 1954/55 there were 23 unaided secondary schools with about 4,950 pupils.
 h/ Included under aided schools.
 i/ Including enrolment in commercial vocational training.

TABLE 23 (continued)

Territories	Year	Number of schools				T O T A L		Government or local authority		Enrolment			
		Total	Government or local authority	Aided	Unaided	Male and female	Female	Male and female	Female	Aided Male and female	Female	Unaided Male and female	Female
FALKLAND ISLANDS ^{j/}	1947	-	-	-	-	-	-
	1955	-	-	-	-	-	-
FEDERATION OF MALAYA	1949	144	42	70	32	24,081 ^{k/}	6,418 ^{k/}
	1954	353	99	165	89	68,485 ^{k/}	20,625 ^{k/}
FIJI	1947	7	475	87
	1956	23	8	8	7	2,713	786	650	220	985	367	1,078	199
GAMBIA	1946	4	-	4	-	314	139	-	-	314	139	-	-
	1956	5	1	4	-	664	199	95	-	569	199	-	-
GI BRALTAR	1946/47	4	4	-	-	697	331	697	331	-	-	-	-
	1956/57	5	5	-	-	1,106	571	1,106	571	-	-	-	-
GILBERT AND ELLICE ISLANDS	1946 ^{l/}	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	1956	7	1	6	-	196	30	103	-	93	30	-	-
GOLD COAST ^{m/}	1946	185	...	166	19 ^{n/}	17,706	2,180	15,320	2,099	2,386 ^{o/}	81 ^{o/}
	1955	1,033	...	817	216	123,906	26,897	112,720	25,057	11,186	1,840
	1956	1,048	...	897	151	126,677	28,738	117,456	27,268	9,221	1,470
HONG KONG	1946/47	16,041	6,093	1,305	482	4,656	2,185	10,080	3,426
	1955/56	237	11	28	198	48,983	18,340	5,147	1,828	10,740	3,623	33,096	10,889
JAMAICA	1946/47	...	2	22	4,755	2,503
	1954	...	9	28	8,174	4,466
	1956	*9,000	*5,000
KENYA	1946 ^{q/}	25	9	12	4	2,000	...	1,214	...	648	...	138	...
	1956 ^{r/}	55	25	19	11	10,856	3,423	7,000	1,750	2,653	1,007	1,203	666
LEEWARD ISLANDS													
- Antigua	1947	...	-	567	...	-	-
	1956	6	-	4	2	1,533	885 ^{s/}	-	-	1,045	615	488	270
- Montserrat	1947	1	1	-	-	130	...	130	...	-	-	-	-
	1956	2	2	-	-	167	95	167	95	-	-	-	-
- St. Kitts, Nevis, Anguilla ^{t/}	1946	4	2	1	1	388	192	204	90	34	17	150	85
	1954	5	4	-	1	822	487	620	374	-	-	202	113
	1956	669	372
- Virgin Islands	1950	1	1	-	-	59	44	59	44	-	-	-	-
	1955	1	1	-	-	106	75	106	75	-	-	-	-

j/ Included under all range schools in primary education.

k/ Including enrolment of 9,126 (2,346 F) students in secondary vocational and teacher-training classes, given separately elsewhere.

l/ Including senior primary schools (1946), middle schools (1955, 1956) and secondary schools.

m/ Government, encouraged or approved schools included together under aided schools.

n/ Figures incomplete.

o/ Included in statistics of primary schools.

p/ It is estimated that in 1954 there were thirty unaided secondary schools with about 5,500 pupils.

q/ Returns were not in all cases complete.

r/ Two changes occurred in the educational system for African schools between 1946 and 1956. In 1946 primary education consisted of eight years (5 plus 3 years). In 1947, the three last years of primary education were classified as secondary. In 1951, the eight years primary education system was re-established (4 years primary plus 4 years intermediate). Thus, the comparison of secondary education figures is possible between 1946 and 1956. Seventy-six female pupils receive vocational training in home economics.

s/ It is not sure that figures are comparable as we do not know whether senior primary classes have been classified in the same way in the different years.

TABLE 23 (continued)

Territories	Year	Number of schools				Enrolment							
		Total	Government or local authority	Aided	Unaided	TOTAL		Government or local authority		Aided		Unaided	
						Male and female	Female	Male and female	Female	Male and female	Female	Male and female	Female
MAURITIUS	1946/47	54	2	6	46	5,784	2,175	528	-	1,774	1,103	3,482	1,070
	1954	59	3	8	48	8,221	2,587	1,042	148	1,859	1,033	5,320	1,406
	1956	68	3	8	57	10,960	3,509
NIGERIA	1947	9,904	866
	1950/51	239	36	141	62	21,437 ^{u/}	1,827 ^{u/}
	1955	26,299 ^{u/}	3,661 ^{u/}
NORTH BORNEO	1947	93 ^{y/}	106 ^{y/}	...
	1955	2,070 ^{y/}	554 ^{y/}	-	-	1,964 ^{y/}
NORTHERN RHODESIA (African Education)	1946/47	2	1	1	-	143	4	139	-	4	4	-	-
	1955/56	10	4	5	1	901	75	550	-	310	75	41	-
NORTHERN RHODESIA (European Education)	1946/47	406	212	302	109	3	2	101	101
	1955/56
NYASALAND	1946/47	2	2	-	-	76	-	76	-	-	-	-	-
	1955/56	14	1	10	3	716	41	108	-	500	35	108	6
ST. HELENA	1947	1	1	-	-	22	15	22	15	-	-	-	-
	1955	3	3	-	-	438	223	438	223	-	-	-	-
SARAWAK	1946
	1948	15	*1,050	*300
	1956	33	2	31	-	7,174	2,333	288	55	6,886	2,278	-	-
SEYCHELLES	1947	2	1	1	-	119	44	75	-	44	44	-	-
	1955	4	3	1	-	376	202	256	82	120	120	-	-
SIERRA LEONE	1946	11	2	9	-	2,094	...	320	...	1,774	...	-	-
	1956	23	6	15	2	5,776	1,911	1,345	2	3,910	1,666	521	243
SINGAPORE	1946	6,060	1,599	6,060	1,599
	1955	65	13	29	23	27,522	9,286	6,014	1,346	19,051	7,340	2,457 ^{w/}	600 ^{w/}
SOMALILAND PRO- TECTORATE	1948/49	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	1956	1	1	-	-	63	-	63	-	-	-	-	-
SWAZILAND	1946	230	99	117	46	109	49	4	4
	1956	14	4	9	1	658	292	250	79	372	177	36	36
TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO ^{x/}	1946	35	3	15	17	11,055	8,383	...	2,672	...
	1949	40 ^{y/}	3 ^{y/}	16 ^{y/}	21	14,676	6,844	13,328	6,179	1,348	665
	1955	42 ^{y/}	4 ^{y/}	18 ^{y/}	20	23,258	11,197	17,806	8,360	5,452	2,837

^{u/} Provisional figures; including 1954 data for the Northern Region.

^{v/} Including some part-time secondary pupils.

^{w/} A small number of secondary education pupils of the 5,669 (2,387 F) pupils of private English schools was included under primary education; in 1947 these schools had 9,184 (3,664 F) pupils, of which only 242 (25 F) pupils were in secondary classes.

^{x/} In 1946, enrolment in intermediate schools was included; in 1949 and 1955, all the pupils above the seventh year of primary schools were included.

^{y/} Data incomplete as the number of primary schools where secondary education is given, was not included.

TABLE 23 (continued)

Territories	Year	Number of schools				Enrolment							
		Total	Government or local authority	Aided	Unaided	T O T A L		Government or local authority		Aided		Unaided	
						Male and female	Female	Male and female	Female	Male and female	Female	Male and female	Female
UGANDA	1947	51	3	48	-	4,746	671	659	171	4,087	500	-	-
	1956	175	20	110	45	20,716	3,189	4,016	898	11,708	2,166	4,992	125
WINDWARD ISLANDS													
- Dominica	1947	4	1	3	-	461	255	136	-	325	255	-	-
	1954	4	1	3	-	837	446	248	-	589	446	-	-
	1956	4	-	951	471
- Grenada	1947	5	963	553
	1956	6	1,300	660
- St. Lucia	1946	2	-	2	-	261	124	-	-	261	124	-	-
	1953	2	-	2	-	629	323	-	-	629	323	-	-
- St. Vincent	1946	4	2	2	-	525 ^{z/}	...	371	181	154	...	-	-
	1956	4	2	1	1	789	387 ^{z/}	484	253	112	50	193 ^{z/}	84 ^{z/}
ZANZIBAR AND PEMBA	1946	3	3	-	-	350	28	350	28	-	-	-	-
	1949	4	4	-	-	532	90	532	90	-	-	-	-
	1956	5	3	2	-	701 ^{aa/}	228 ^{aa/}	430 ^{aa/}	142 ^{aa/}	271	86	-	-

^{z/} Including 40 (24 F) children in primary division.

^{aa/} Including one secondary technical school.

TABLE 24

NUMBER OF SCHOOLS, ENROLMENT AND EXAMINATION RESULTS IN SECONDARY EDUCATION
IN TERRITORIES UNDER FRENCH ADMINISTRATION BETWEEN 1946 AND 1956 ^{1/}

Territory	Year	Number of schools			Enrolment						Examination results						
		Total	Public	Private	Total		Public		Private		B.E.P.C. ^{a/}		Baccalauréat 1st part		Baccalauréat 2nd part		
					MF	F	MF	F	MF	F	Candi- dates	Passes	Candi- dates	Passes	Candi- dates	Passes	
COMORO ARCHIPELAGO	1947/48 ^{b/} 1955/56	-	-	-	96 ^{c/}	-	96	-	-	-	-	10 ^{d/}	6 ^{d/}	-	-	-	-
FRENCH EQUATORIAL AFRICA	1946/47 1955/56	13 38	6 16	7 22	545 ^{e/} 3,348 ^{e/}	89 ^{e/} 496 ^{e/}	478 2,119	76 368	67 1,229	13 128	...	298 ^{d/f/}	...	56 ^{d/}	...	22 ^{d/}	
FRENCH WEST AFRICA	1947/48 1955/56	...	26 43	...	10,897	2,622	3,820 8,082	1,005 1,590	2,815	1,032	2,470 ^{g/}	1,079 ^{g/}	619 ^{h/h/}	300 ^{g/}	331 ^{g/}	228 ^{g/}	
MADAGASCAR	1947/48 1955/56	35 132	7 31	28 101	1,979 ^{i/} 13,023 ^{i/}	4,171 ^{i/}	159 4,400 ^{i/}	13 1,359 ^{i/}	1,820 ^{i/} 8,623 ^{i/}	2,812 ^{i/}	3,755 ^{k/}	1,469 ^{k/}	451 ^{k/}	169 ^{k/}	246 ^{k/}	89 ^{k/}	
MOROCCO	1946/47 1953/54	...	20 25	10,343 ^{j/} 17,605 ^{j/}	4,359 ^{j/} 7,107 ^{j/}	1,982 ^{n/} 3,143 ^{o/}	592 ^{n/} 1,474 ^{o/}	1,856 ^{n/} 1,706 ^{o/}	717 ^{n/} 798 ^{o/}	1,129 ^{n/} 1,125 ^{o/}	556 ^{n/} 647 ^{o/}	
NEW HEBRIDES	1946/47 1955/56	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
SOMALILAND	1946/47 1955/56	-	3	2	138 ^{e/}	30 ^{e/}	68	3	70	27	13 ^{d/}	7 ^{d/}	-	-	-	-	
TUNISIA	1946/47 1954/55 1955/56	...	15 38	7,690 ^{g/} 17,764 ^{g/} ...	3,270 ^{g/} 6,080 ^{g/} ...	6,437 ^{g/} 15,574 ^{g/} 16,350 ^{g/}	2,328 ^{g/} 4,761 ^{g/} 4,994 ^{g/}	1,253 2,190 ...	942 1,319 ...	996 ^{n/} 3,882 ^{g/} ...	285 ^{n/} 977 ^{g/} ...	652 ^{n/} 2,221 ^{g/} ...	416 ^{n/} 721 ^{g/} ...	489 ^{n/} 1,807 ^{g/} ...	334 ^{n/} 582 ^{g/} ...	

^{1/} Includes "Enseignement primaire supérieur", "Cours complémentaires", "Lycées" and "Collèges", unless otherwise stated. Excludes, wherever possible, primary sections of secondary schools and vocational sections of the latter.
A school giving education at different levels is generally counted separately at each level. Morocco is an exception.

^{a/} "Brevet d'études du premier cycle", or similar certificates.

^{b/} In 1947/48 there was no school on the secondary level in the Territory. There were 29 students from the Comoro Archipelago at the Lycée Gallieni in Tananarive.

^{c/} "Cours complémentaires" only, comprising a section for teacher training. There were in addition 29 (4F) scholarship holders from the Territory at secondary schools in Madagascar.

^{d/} Examinations held in 1955.

^{e/} Including enrolment in teacher training courses and schools; in 1946/47 teacher training was given in the "sections d'élèves-moniteurs"; in 1955/56 most of the latter were abolished and the "collèges courts" were transformed into "Collèges normaux".

^{f/} Including 37 candidates who passed the "Certificat d'aptitude pédagogique".

^{g/} Examinations held in 1955. There were, in addition, free candidates for the following examinations: B.E.P.C. - 564 candidates, 64 passes; Baccalauréat 1st part - 90 candidates, 64 passes; Baccalauréat 2nd part - 24 candidates, 14 passes.

^{h/} Incomplete data.

^{i/} Private African students only; all the students of private European and Indo-Chinese schools were included in primary education.

^{j/} Including enrolment in teacher training schools and courses.

^{k/} Examinations held in 1955. There were, in addition, free candidates for the following examinations: B.E.P.C. - 1,229 candidates, 181 passes; Baccalauréat 1st part - 333 candidates, 43 passes; Baccalauréat 2nd part - 49 candidates, 9 passes.

^{l/} Including enrolment in teacher training schools and courses; enrolment in the "Cours complémentaires" is included in primary education.

^{m/} No figures available for private secondary Muslim education. The high ratio of secondary examination candidates to enrolment figures gives an idea on the extent of private secondary education.

^{n/} Examinations held in 1946.

^{o/} Examinations held in 1953.

(Footnotes continued on next page)

TABLE 24 (continued)

(Footnotes continued from previous page)

- p/ "Cours complémentaires" only, including enrolment in teacher training courses.
- q/ Secondary students in "Cours complémentaires" were included in primary education in 1946/47; in 1954/55 and 1955/56 they were included in secondary education. No separate figures are available for 1946/47; in 1954/55 there were 21 "Cours complémentaires" with 2,741 (570 F) pupils and in 1955/56 there were 23 "Cours complémentaires" with 2,670 (584 F) pupils. No figures are available for the traditional Arab secondary education of the EZ-ZITOUNA University in 1946/47; they were estimated to be 14,000 (150 F) in 1955/56. For the sake of comparison we have not included them in either of the three years.
- r/ Examinations held in 1954.

TABLE 25

NUMBER OF SCHOOLS AND ENROLMENT IN SECONDARY EDUCATION IN TERRITORIES
UNDER U.S.A. ADMINISTRATION, BETWEEN 1946 AND 1956 ^{1/}

Territories	Year	Number of schools			Enrolment					
		Total	Public	Private	Total		Public		Private	
					Male and female	Female	Male and female	Female	Male and female	Female
ALASKA	1946/47 ^{a/}	... ^{a/}	1,773 ^{c/}	... ^{c/}	... ^{b/}	... ^{b/}
	1955/56 ^{a/}	... ^{a/}	5,589 ^{c/}	... ^{c/}	... ^{c/}	... ^{c/}
AMERICAN SAMOA	1946/47	1	1	-	132	...	132	...	-	-
	1955/56	1	1	-	279	95	279	95	-	-
GUAM	1946/47	1,263
	1955/56	2,986	1,516
HAWAII	1946/47	45,379	...	38,129	19,451	7,250	...
	1955/56	52,341	...	41,990	20,462	10,351	...
PUERTO RICO	1946/47 ^{d/}	89,828 ^{d/}	...	83,361	...	6,467 ^{d/}	... ^{d/}
	1951/52	413	321	92 ^{d/}	112,714 ^{d/}	55,355	104,316	50,205	8,398 ^{d/}	5,150 ^{d/}
VIRGIN ISLANDS	1946/47	3	3	-	988	...	988	...	-	-
	1955/56	13	6	7	2,350	...	1,736	...	614	...

^{1/} Secondary vocational training is included above. The following grades were included in table:

Hawaii, Guam, Puerto Rico and Virgin Islands: grades 7 to 12.

Alaska : grades 9 to 12.

American Samoa : grades 10 to 12.

A school giving education at different levels is generally counted separately at each level.

^{a/} Including enrolment in schools of the Alaska Native Service which consist of grades 1 to 12. In 1946/47 there were 5,425 pupils in these and in 1955/56 there were 5,828 pupils.

^{b/} There were 757 pupils in "private and denominational schools" given under primary education which might include secondary pupils.

^{c/} Public and private schools included together under public education.

^{d/} Excluding non-accredited private schools (in 1948/49 there were 106 pupils in those schools that submitted reports).

TABLE 26

NUMBER OF SCHOOLS AND ENROLMENT IN SECONDARY EDUCATION IN TERRITORIES
 UNDER THE ADMINISTRATION OF AUSTRALIA, DENMARK, BELGIUM AND NEW ZEALAND,
 BETWEEN 1946 and 1956 ^{1/}

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Territory	Year	Number of schools			Enrolment								
		Total	Public	Private	Total			Public			Private		
					Male	Female	Female	Male	Female	Female	Male	Female	Female
AUSTRALIA													
- Papua ^{a/}	1949	17	3	14	1,377	203	-	-	1,174
	1955	28	7	21	1,174	172	...	523	14	...	651	158	...
BELGIUM													
- Belgian Congo ^{b/}	1947/48	8,969	5,426	3,543
	1955/56	846	617	229	38,758	27,355	11,403
DENMARK													
- Greenland	1946/47	-	-	-	-
	1953/54	4	4	-	151	47	...	151	47	...	-	-	-
NEW ZEALAND													
- Cook Islands	1946 ^{c/}	-	-	-	-	-	...	-	-	...	-	-	-
	1956	4	1	3	166	85	52	...	81
- Niue Island	1946 ^{d/}	-	-	-	-	-	...	-	-	...	-	-	-
	1957	1	1	-	59	34	...	59	34	...	-	-	-

^{1/} A school giving education at different levels is generally counted separately at each level.

^{a/} Including vocational and teacher training education.

^{b/} African education only; including vocational education and teacher-training.

V. TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

366. This aspect of the educational system has received special attention during the past ten years, as a result of the accelerated pace of economic development, the wide-spread policy of raising productivity and standards of living, and the promotion in some territories of industrialization. A number of important international and regional conferences have had a direct bearing on technical and vocational education in Non-Self-Governing Territories, and have given rise to surveys of existing facilities and recommendations for action. Among these may be mentioned the International Labour Organisation's Committee of Experts on Social Policy in Non-Metropolitan Territories, 1951, 1953 and 1956; the Asian Regional Conference of the ILO, 1953, the Caribbean Commission Industrial Development Conference, 1952, the Inter-African Labour Conference, 1953, and the South Pacific Commission special study in 1952-3 of vocational training facilities on a regional basis.

367. The Committee on Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories has examined the question both from the angle of economic development and from that of the educational system as a whole, and in its reports^{62/} has suggested the principles on which vocational and technical education should be developed.

A. Factors in the situation

368. The present survey is concerned only with provisions within the school system for technical and vocational education. An examination of the situation and recent trends in territories must be prefaced by some references to policy issues which, although not entirely educational in character, have to be taken into account by educational administrators.

369. For the most part, socio-economic conditions in the territories present a number of serious difficulties to the organization of an effective school system. Only a small proportion of the population in most territories are wage earners, and

62/ Official Records of the General Assembly, Eighth Session, Supplement No. 15 (A/2465), Part Two, paras. 41-46; Ibid.: Eleventh Session, Supplement No. 15 (A/3127), Part Two, paras. 36-39.

there is a great turnover of intermittent and short-term workers. Migrant workers, who at times move from one territory or region to another, are a further unsettling factor. Since most of the population are on the land, training schemes have tended to be agricultural and rural in context, although long-term development programmes create a demand for trained workers. There is also an added problem in the effect of training on labour systems which rely upon a large supply of unskilled workers, particularly in populous areas where the level of population is high in comparison with employment possibilities.

370. A few territories have faced the difficulty of social structure in which specific skills are limited by tradition to special groups.

371. Geographical factors have also to be taken into account. The scattered population, especially in island territories, represents a serious obstacle to the organization of all forms of post-primary education.

372. Within the school system proper, the development of technical education has to compete for finances with other major developments such as the extension of primary education. The relatively high cost per head of technical schooling and the absence of immediate visible returns from investment combine to place this branch at a disadvantage. Thus, for example, a projected Pacific Central Vocational Training Institution for the United Kingdom Territories of the region was estimated in 1953 to cost £185-10-0 per student for an enrolment of 400, with an added £37-10-0 of interest was required on capital outlay.^{63/} The corresponding figure for primary schooling would be between £10 and £20. The Pacific College has not yet been established.

373. Another educational problem, shared by vocational and general secondary schooling is the inadequate basic education of students entering the course. Standards of primary schooling have particular relevance, since the tendency in most territories is for the brightest students to choose academic and general courses.

^{63/} F.J. Harlow, Central Vocational Training Institution, S. Pacific Commission Technical Paper No. 47, Noumea, 1953, p. 56.

B. Policy considerations

374. A number of points made in recent reports may be summed up here for the bearing they have on the extension of this branch of education.

375. It is obvious that vocational programmes have to be related to present and future requirements of the economy. In view of the cost of training, there is need for rigorous inspection of the results of technical and vocational education, which in turn implies adequate surveys and projections of the manpower situation in a territory. While some recent development plans are based on a broad classification of the wage earning population, e.g. into agriculture, industry, public service, such classes are too wide to permit of the accurate forecast by group of occupations which is required. Considerable statistical machinery is involved and there is little evidence that the territories have the staff and equipment to produce the necessary information.

376. Technical training has to be differentiated by level as well as by branch of study. In the early stages of a school system this may be unnecessary or impossible, but the stage soon arrives when formal training is needed for posts at a supervisory as well as at the artisan level.

377. The link between technical and vocational training and the rest of the school system cannot be ignored. It is inevitable that at the outset a variety of government departments and even private enterprises evolve schemes for preparing the personnel they urgently need. But the trend appears to be in favour of a steady centralization of the control of these courses and schools in the hands of the educational authorities - if for no other reason than to avoid splitting up what is an essentially unified process. Recruits for technical schools come from primary and lower secondary schools; the differentiation of the secondary curriculum and the establishment of practical middle school courses make a direct contribution to the improvement of technical school standards; and adult education in the context of community development schemes provides a similar opportunity for giving pre-vocational or even vocational training.

378. Despite the links within the school system, technical and vocational education has to maintain contact with the working world; hence there is need also for advisory bodies with employer and employee representation. The creation of consultative machinery has in fact been a feature of developments in the territories

over the past ten years. What is true at the policy level is equally so for the classroom. While accepted teaching techniques need to be adopted for technical instruction, the classroom should not be divorced from industry. And from the point of view of students, the extension of vocational education sets up a need for vocational guidance services and occupational information.

379. Finally, both the cost and nature of technical education suggest that policies might be worked out on a wider basis than that of a single territory. Regional co-operation seems to be the only economical solution to certain problems of training, where the number of personnel required by a single territory is not high or where, as in advanced courses, the equipment is extremely expensive.

C. Trends and developments

380. Much of the provision in this field is not covered by educational statistics. Without adequate statistics, it is difficult to judge the extent of this form of vocational education, but it is known that some work in this field has been done by government departments of agriculture, public works, communication, and health which have organized training departments and courses both to prepare specialized staff and to give in-service training to those already in employment. In Morocco, for example, for the year 1953/54 educational statistics recorded 16,703 students in public vocational schools maintained by the Department of Public Instruction. In addition, the Statistical Abstract refers elsewhere to the following enrolments:

Vocational training courses	1,016
(Department of Labour)	
Agricultural training courses	16,221
(Departments of Agriculture and Forestry and of Public Instruction; no indication whether already counted under primary and secondary)	
Seaman's training courses	364
Others	<u>868</u>
Total	18,469

381. Facilities are also developed by private industry, by means of apprenticeship and in-service training schemes. This has been the case, for example, with oil

companies in Trinidad. Most large-scale development schemes not controlled by single government departments - for improved communications, water resources, etc. - have also provided a certain amount of on-the-job training for their workers.

382. These provisions are difficult to document, but it seems that the years 1946-1956 have seen an expansion of technical and vocational education as a whole. Regional surveys, such as that made by the British East African Governments^{64/} in 1947, have summed up existing facilities and traced future policy at both a territorial and an inter-territorial level. Similar surveys have been made in the Caribbean and Pacific regions. At the annual meeting of Directors of Education in French tropical Africa the general principles underlying the development of technical education have been concisely expressed in order to ensure parallel extension in the various territories.^{65/}

383. Some of the territorial surveys are concerned with the setting up of a particular institution but others, like the Uganda memorandum of 1954,^{66/} contain a projection of the territory's future needs in this field.

384. Studies have been accompanied or followed by efforts to expand the system of technical and vocational education. Various forms of organization for these schools have been created in the territories over the past ten years and are described more fully below. Alongside the formal school system there has been a trend to establish accelerated training programmes of a temporary nature, as in French West Africa, in order to meet the needs more rapidly. In territories under the United Kingdom administration the "sandwich" scheme developed in the United Kingdom has gained ground. Under this system students spend alternate full-time periods in industry and at school.

385. Finally, a significant achievement of the period 1946-1956 has been the setting up of new centres for higher technical education. Among these

^{64/} East Africa, Governments, Technical education and vocational training in East Africa, London, Crown Agents for the Colonies, 1947.

^{65/} France, Ministère de la France d'Outre-Mer, Direction générale de l'enseignement et de la jeunesse, Bulletin, déc. 1954, pp. 14-15.

^{66/} Uganda, Technical and Commercial Education in Uganda, Entebbe, 1954.

institutions have been the College of Technology in the Gold Coast, the tripartite College of Arts, Science and Technology in Nigeria, the Technical College in Madagascar and the Royal Technical College in Kenya.

386. It will be noted that the major attention appears to have been given to facilities preparing the young worker for industry, commerce or agriculture. During the period reviewed, little has been reported on training by which employees could improve their skills and qualifications.

D. Territorial developments

387. Available statistics on the technical and vocational schools provided by the educational authorities will be found in table 27 at the end of this section. Because these figures only partially reflect the situation, and because in many cases it is impossible to separate general from vocational secondary school enrolments, there is little purpose in attempting a survey of quantitative growth. Instead, references will be made to the table whenever appropriate in this examination of the present system in the various groups of territories.

388. Australian Administration (Papua). No schools for specific vocational or technical education were set up by the educational authorities during the period reviewed.

389. Belgian Administration (Belgian Congo). There is a special technical training department in the Department of Education. Since 1946 a vocational school system of considerable dimensions has been set up for African pupils. An outline of the new system, with targets for the period, is given in the ten-year plan.^{67/} In 1947 the existing "écoles professionnelles" enrolled 859 students; and the report for 1956 indicates an enrolment of 12,146 in schools of the same category. Figures in table 27 are higher, because vocational streams of secondary schools are included.

390. The Congo system embraces schools (or sections) of four distinct types. The "écoles artisanales" have a rural bias, are conducted in the vernacular, and are generally of the aided school type. The "écoles d'apprentissage" now

^{67/} Belgium, Ministère des Colonies, Plan décennal pour le développement économique et social du Congo Belge, Brussels, 1949, tome 1, pp. 77-79.

replace the earlier "ateliers"; they are urban schools with a two-year post-primary course sometimes containing also the two final primary grades, and they give a practical training in wood, iron and building trades. On completing the course students have to serve their apprenticeship. At the next level are "école professionnelles" with a four-year post-primary course directed to industrial trades in urban areas. Many of these schools provide also the lower level pre-apprenticeship course. And finally come the "écoles d'arts appliqués" lasting six years after primary school, for the training of supervisors and intermediate level technicians.

391. This group of technical schools stands beside other groups of schools for domestic science and teacher training. Vocational schools of agriculture ("écoles professionnelles agricoles") with two or three years of post-primary study are separately classified; in 1956 they accounted for an enrolment of 1,372 students.

392. The extension of vocational education has been stimulated by funds available from the Fonds de Bien-Etre Indigène for constructions and equipment. Thus, in the 1955 budget period, the educational expenditure of over 37 million Belgian francs by the F.B.I. was devoted, as to 25 millions, to various forms of vocational schooling.

393. This system has recently been completed by the provision of higher technological education in the new universities. Lovanium in 1956 had 6 students in engineering and 10 in agronomy; the official University of Elisabethville, opened in 1956, had not yet progressed so far in the technical faculties.

394. United Kingdom Administration. There has been a steady expansion since 1946, when technical education was still in its infancy in most territories. Following the impulse given by Colonial Development and Welfare schemes and the appointment in 1950 of an Assistant Educational Adviser for Technical Education to the Secretary of State for the Colonies, many of the territories have worked out a structure for organizing technical schools which is broadly similar in all territories.

395. At the first level are trade training centres for producing skilled artisans. These trade schools give a post-primary course varying in length with the branch; they are designed as an alternative to the practice common in industrialized

countries, by which industry undertakes to train skilled workmen through apprenticeship schemes and part-time study at technical colleges.

396. Next come the technical institutes which offer a variety of full- and part-time courses at secondary level; they provide the necessary theoretical courses which accompany apprenticeship schemes as these are introduced, and also give the courses needed for the training of foremen and supervisors. In a few cases secondary technical schools have also emerged; on the British pattern these are parallel with secondary grammar and modern schools, and although not vocational in character, they prepare students for higher technical education or for further part-time training at the institutes. Higher education at colleges of technology is designed to prepare senior professional staff.

397. African Territories (United Kingdom). Among the West African territories, Gambia has a small trade school, and Sierra Leone recently converted its trade training centre into a technical institute. Gold Coast had by 1955 developed establishments at all levels, including one secondary technical school and the College of Technology at Kumasi. Full-time enrolment at the schools rose from 277 in 1946 to 2,496 in 1956. Some indication of the fields studied may be obtained from the following figures for 1955 (female enrolment in brackets):

total enrolment	1,938 (271)
trade schools	
mechanical engineering	204
carpentry	87
masonry, building	100
technical institute	
technical training	555 (23)
commercial training	965 (221)
dressmaking	27 (27)

398. In Nigeria, technical education has become a regional responsibility, although the Federal Government has an adviser on technical education to assist the regional governments. A full range of vocational and technical schools has been developed.

399. In East Africa, the Royal Technical College at Nairobi, started in 1956, provides higher technological education on an inter-territorial, inter-racial basis. Within the Kenya school system there are trade and technical schools for Africans, two Government schools of agriculture and a system of practical

continuation classes (enrolling 1,931 students in 1956) which are not reflected in Table 27. For Asian and European students the trend has been towards streaming existing secondary schools so as to offer vocational training. In Uganda technical education has progressed from an enrolment of 626 in 1947 to 3,338 in 1956. A large technical institute has been set up in Kampala for a wide range of courses including technical teacher training. A number of junior technical trade schools give trade training. A particular feature of Uganda is the rural trade school for training in village crafts. Zanzibar has no technical school, although at least two are projected; in the meantime, students attend the nearby Mombasa Institute of Muslim Education. In Northern Rhodesia the most advanced institution is the Hodson Training Centre which gives a variety of trade courses leading to the City and Guilds certificate and the industrial instructors' certificate. There are also a number of trade schools. Total enrolments have risen from 105 in 1946 to 1,700 in 1955. In Nyasaland, Government provisions chiefly cover trade schools and a technical stream in a secondary school at Dedza. The three High Commission territories have trade schools which have grown steadily but slowly.

400. Caribbean Territories (United Kingdom). At the higher education level, the Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture in Trinidad, founded in 1922, has continued to provide facilities for the entire region. Within the school system, the development of technical education has been relatively slow and is perhaps more marked in the larger and more populous territories. In British Guiana a technical institute was opened in Georgetown in 1951, and technical enrolments have risen from 54 in 1946 to 1,535 in 1956. The first technical school in British Honduras was opened in 1952, and by 1956 enrolled 118 students.

401. In Jamaica, total enrolments appear to have increased slowly during the decade. The system includes the Kingston technical school with day and evening classes in building, engineering, domestic science, commercial subjects, etc; government training centres for primary school leavers and for apprentices; and the Jamaica school of Agriculture, founded in 1910, with a practical three-year course.

402. Trinidad has recently set up a combined trade school and technical institute. Continuation and trade classes are organized in a number of places. By arrangement between the oil companies and the Government, an extensive scheme of in-service training for apprentices has been organized.

403. Asian Territories (United Kingdom). Higher technological education is provided in the faculties of the University of Hong Kong, and the University of Malaya. The Federal College of Agriculture in Malaya is of recent origin, and plans are well advanced for a polytechnic in Singapore.

404. The school system of Malaya contains a number of junior technical (trade) schools at lower secondary level. Total enrolments in various types of vocational education have increased as follows:

	<u>Vocational education in Malaya, 1947-1954</u>	
	<u>1947</u>	<u>1954</u>
Total	1,290	6,961
Commercial schools	909	3,222
Trade schools	289	768
Domestic science schools	-	2,219
Others	92	752

405. In Singapore the school system comprises junior technical trade schools. Two technical high schools were under construction in 1956.

406. In the territories in Borneo technical and vocational education is of recent origin. A number of trade schools have been set up by the government and, in Brunei, by oil companies. In Sarawak the major development has been the opening of the Rural Improvement Centre at Kanowit; this is designed for adults, who receive a practical course related to farming, home care and rural crafts.

407. The Hong Kong authorities have established a technical college with full- and part-time courses and a junior technical school with a four-year post-primary course. There are also a number of unaided technical schools.

408. Other Territories (United Kingdom). In Aden a technical college was opened in 1951, mainly for trade-training, but with part of the time-table devoted also to general education at secondary level. In Fiji technical centres and farm schools at lower secondary level represent existing facilities. A college is

projected. Gibraltar has recently completed a secondary technical school, and in Cyprus the Government runs an apprentices' training centre and two rural central schools biased towards agriculture.

409. Danish Administration (Greenland). The school system provided for full- and part-time vocational instruction for young people and adults, through a technical school and a domestic science school. In addition, there was a practical lower secondary school. Enrolments at various vocational courses totalled 2,738 in 1953/54 as compared with 4,578 in the primary and secondary schools.

410. French Administration. Vocational and technical school systems were fairly well developed before 1946, but have undergone considerable expansion and modification since then. Broadly speaking, the following categories of schooling have emerged and are now general in the territories:

- (a) practical courses in trades, rural industries, home economics, given in terminal classes of the primary school or in special "sections artisanales" attached to primary schools. Although these are more pre-vocational than vocational, French educational administrators have stressed the fact that there should be continuity throughout school life, and such a bias in the primary school leads on to vocational education proper;
- (b) apprenticeship centres, at a level between primary and secondary education, giving a three-year practical course for artisans which leads to a "certificat d'aptitude professionnelle";
- (c) technical schools and colleges which give courses corresponding to the first modern cycle of secondary education (leading to a "brevet d'enseignement industriel") and with further specialization to a "brevet professionnel" for foremen and intermediate level technicians;
- (d) higher technical schools which provide a full secondary course leading to a technical baccalaureate; and thence to a higher technological education.

411. While certain differences, chiefly in the rate of growth, exist between territories, the same characteristics are common to all: a recognized form of certification and a system of instruction in public schools which parallels general secondary education, with a view to safeguarding the prestige of the technical education branch.

412. In French West Africa, a directorate of technical education and apprenticeship was set up in 1942. In 1947 the structure of technical schooling having been established, it was decided to organize agricultural education along similar lines, under the responsibility of the public education authorities. The territory has developed a full range of technical schools, with a considerable number of "section artisanales" which are not included in Table 27 and more recently opportunities for higher education in colleges of agriculture and technology and in the University of Dakar. The technical schools proper increased their enrolment from 1,631 in 1947/48 to 4,790 in 1955/56.

413. In French Equatorial Africa a similar form of organization obtains. Particular importance has been attached to agricultural training in which schools are now organized at three levels: centres of agricultural apprenticeship, agricultural schools, and a central school at higher level. During the period enrolments at technical schools rose from 579 in 1946/47 to 1,904 in 1955/56.

414. The 1952 school reform in Madagascar led to a reorganization of the technical and vocational school system. Three levels of training are distinguished in the Madagascan-type schools: workshop schools, for trade and domestic science teaching; the vocational sections (corresponding to apprenticeship centres) which form part of district schools; and specialized vocational sections or industrial schools, boarding establishments which prepare foremen. Higher education has recently become available in agriculture and technology. Beside this system, the technical college of French type, giving a secondary technical education, has also been adopted. Because of the reorganization, it is impossible to compare enrolment figures for the years 1946 and 1956.

415. In the smaller territories, such as the Comoro Island and Somaliland, provisions for this branch of education are limited to apprenticeship centres.

416. Both Morocco and Tunisia had vocational education systems before 1946. The main three levels distinguished above have been followed, with perhaps more emphasis on "collèges techniques" and technical sections of modern secondary schools than has been the case in other territories. School enrolments in Tunisia rose from 5,953 in 1946/47 to 14,116 in 1954/55; during the same period in Morocco, the progress was from 11,228 to 16,703.

417. Netherlands Administration (Netherlands New Guinea). A system of junior technical schools is of very recent origin. These schools are post-primary in level and give practical courses in woodwork and metal-work. The enrolment by 1956 reached 371.

418. New Zealand Administration. Technical and vocational education is provided by means of scholarships for study in New Zealand or Fiji.

419. United States Administration. In general, no sharp distinction is drawn between general and vocational studies at the secondary level. As was mentioned above, the tendency is to draw these various forms of secondary schooling still closer through the comprehensive high school. This does not imply that vocational studies are neglected, but rather that all education is orientated to practical living.

420. No statistical data are given in Table 27 for the United States territories. Vocational education opportunities in these territories have expanded and are reaching a large proportion of secondary school enrolments.

E. The content of vocational education

421. It would be difficult, even if the documentation were available, to attempt a comparative survey of curricula for vocational education. But some of the broad classes of training may be reviewed briefly.

422. Training in agriculture. This is the basis of vocational education in most territories. Provision usually exists for some form of training in the upper classes of primary schools, starting from the school garden. Many educationists would prefer an agricultural "atmosphere" rather than vocational training at this stage. Extra-curricular activities such as the 4 - H Club and the Young Farmers Club movements have proved successful in creating this atmosphere in several territories in the Caribbean.

423. Vocational training in agriculture is given in a number of types of school at the secondary level. In French African territories these schools parallel those for technical and industrial courses, and provide both a general curriculum and practical and theoretical work related to agriculture. Certain experimental approaches to the same level of study have occurred in other territories: the development of farm schools, frequently attached to land settlement schemes; residential schools with a course based on the exploitation of natural resources, and so on.

424. At a similar level of technicality come the schemes and courses for agricultural extension, sponsored by Departments of Agriculture but involving also adult education and vernacular reading material programmes under the educational authorities.

425. Agricultural schools at post-secondary level have been organized mainly by government departments. The emergence of the new universities and of agricultural colleges is likely to increase facilities at this level. A considerable number of territorial students pursue agricultural, veterinary and forestry courses in the metropolitan countries.

426. Vocational education for girls. As with agriculture, the basis of homecraft training lies in upper primary schools. Some territories - notably the Belgian Congo - have developed an extensive range of domestic science schools within, alongside and as a continuation of the primary school system. Elsewhere, difficulties of equipment and staff have led to pooling of resources, by which a single homecraft centre serves a number of nearby schools.

427. At the secondary level, teaching of the component home economics subjects appears to have progressed slowly. Perhaps the greatest advance has been in the direction of teacher training - preparing teachers for girls' classes in the primary schools. For other occupations, such as commerce, industry and agriculture, the enrolment of girls in most territories is still low.

428. Vocational training for industry and commerce. As the survey shows, there is a wide variety of institutions ranging from apprenticeship schemes and workshops in carpentry and masonry, to multi-purpose institutions such as the Nigerian College of Arts, Science and Technology, the apex of a system founded on trade centres and technical institutes.

429. The content of training appears now to be organized in recognizable stages, and one of the features of territorial progress from 1946 to 1956 has been, in many cases, an organized formal school system. The fact that industry and commerce did not undertake much responsibility for training their workers has obliged public education authorities to create a sub-structure for the vocational school system.

430. Among the various vocational schools, an important place has been given to training in the building trades, mechanical and electrical trades and in commercial and secretarial practice, for all of which there is a persistent demand in the territories.

431. At the higher level of the institute of technology or its equivalent, courses are provided over a wide range of subjects for building, surveying, civil, mechanical and electrical engineering, mining, telecommunication, agriculture, forestry, veterinary science, medical auxiliary services, secretarial and commercial work, as well as teacher training for technical subjects.

F. Concluding note

432. This survey has shown that technical and vocational education in the territories has progressed in the years 1946-1956. The foundation of a school system has been laid in many territories and in a few the structure has been filled in to provide opportunities for training at all levels. Numerically the expansion has been much less marked than in other branches of the education system because of various difficulties and because the first stage of organization had to be surmounted before any rapid growth of enrolments could be expected. On the whole, the technical and vocational schools have been the result of government action; in a few cases private enterprise and the voluntary school system have also made their contributions.

433. A number of basic problems still confront technical and vocational education. These may be summarized as follows:

- (a) the tendency of the general schools to prepare for clerical employment, with the result that the best pupils tend to remain on the general side and that trainees entering technical courses are not of a high standard;
 - udice against manual work as the end product of education;

- (c) financial difficulties, because of the high costs of building, equipment and maintenance;
- (d) shortage of qualified staff, both at the technical institute and at the craftsman level for apprenticeship training;
- (e) language difficulties, since much territorial and all regional training is conducted in the second language;
- (f) wastage of pupils: the better the course, the more "poaching" there is by industry, especially in the many industrial processes that require a few skilled supervisors and many routine workers.

434. In regard to the future development of technical and vocation education, the trends observed over the past ten years would appear to indicate that the following points are worthy of attention:

- (a) the necessity for legislation to protect apprentices; many successful vocational schemes are the result of collaboration between Education and Labour Departments;
- (b) the necessity for closer appraisal of present and future needs of industry; the multi-purpose training institution with a flexible programme may prove better than specialized institutions, especially at the lower levels;
- (c) similarly, the need for continuing and strengthening the link between industry and education departments in framing and conducting vocational education;
- (d) the provision of more part-time education facilities to suit the needs of in-service training schemes;
- (e) the need for vocational guidance services, and particularly for occupational information directed to pupils in general schools;
- (f) avoidance of a divorce between general and vocational education, and in particular, added emphasis on provisions for general education during vocational training;
- (g) greater attention to the vocational needs of women; provisions are still largely limited to the home crafts and dressmaking.

TABLE 27
VOCATIONAL EDUCATION IN NON-SELF-GOVERNING TERRITORIES
BETWEEN 1946 AND 1956
(in schools maintained or aided by Departments of Education)

Territory	Year	Number of schools	Enrolment		
			Male	Female	Female
ADEN (Colony)	1946/47	1	16	-	-
	1953/54	1	112	-	-
	1956
BARBADOS	1953/54	-	- <u>a/</u>	- <u>a/</u>	- <u>a/</u>
BASUTOLAND	1946	4	146	41	41
	1956	9	557	333	333
BECHUANALAND	1946	- <u>b/</u>	- <u>b/</u>	- <u>b/</u>	- <u>b/</u>
	1955	1	22	22	22
	1956	1	30	30	30
BELGIAN CONGO	1955/56	483 ^{c/}	16,693 ^{c/}
BERMUDA	1946	- <u>a/</u>	- <u>a/</u>	- <u>a/</u>	- <u>a/</u>
	1956	8	331	315	315
BRITISH GUIANA	1946/47	...	54 ^{e/f/}
	1954/55	3 ^{e/}	1,347 ^{e/f/}	259 ^{e/}	259 ^{e/}
	1956	3 ^{e/}	1,535 ^{e/}	262 ^{e/}	262 ^{e/}
BRITISH HONDURAS	1946	- <u>h/</u>	- <u>h/</u>	- <u>h/</u>	- <u>h/</u>
	1955	1	88	16	16
	1956	1	118	31	31
BRUNEI	1948
	1956	1	166	-	-
COMORO ARCHIPELAGO	1948/49	3	73
	1955/56	3	97
CYPRUS	1946/47 <u>i/</u>	... <u>i/</u>	... <u>i/</u>
	1956	4	228 ^{i/}	- <u>i/</u>	- <u>i/</u>
FEDERATION OF MALAYA	1947	15	1,290 ^{j/}
	1954	44	6,961	3,292	3,292
FIJI	1947	-	- <u>k/</u>	- <u>k/</u>	- <u>k/</u>
	1956	5	216 ^{l/}	44 ^{l/}	44 ^{l/}
FRENCH EQUATORIAL AFRICA	1946/47	...	579 ^{m/}	-	-
	1955/56	45	1,904 ^{n/}	833	833
FRENCH WEST AFRICA	1947/48	...	1,631	-	-
	1955/56	38	4,790 ^{o/}	841 ^{o/}	841 ^{o/}

TABLE 27 (continued)

Territory	Year	Number of schools	Enrolment		
			Male	Female	Female
GAMBIA	1947	-	-	-	-
	1954	3	42	9	
	1956	4	37 ^{p/}	12 ^{p/}	
GIBRALTAR	1946/47	1	30	15	
	1956/57	1	113	-	
GILBERT AND ELLICE	1946	-	-	-	
	1956	3	191	66	
GOLD COAST	1946	2	277	-	
	1955	24	1,938 ^{q/}	271 ^{q/}	
	1956	33	2,496 ^{r/}	397 ^{r/}	
HONG KONG	1946/47	- ^{s/}	- ^{s/}	- ^{s/}	
	1955/56	55	1,535 ^{t/}	823 ^{t/}	
JAMAICA	1946/47	...	1,043	...	
	1956	7	1,655	648	
KENYA	1946	
	1956	5	1,087	...	
LEEWARD ISLANDS - Antigua	1947	-	-	-	
	1956	-	- ^{u/}	- ^{u/}	
MADAGASCAR	1947/48	...	2,359 ^{v/}	...	
	1955/56	23	2,198 ^{v/}	262 ^{v/}	
MAURITIUS	1946/47	-	-	-	
	1956	1	157	27	
MOROCCO ^{w/}	1946/47	...	11,228	1,786	
	1953/54	...	16,703	7,540	
	1955/56	...	19,416 ^{x/}	...	
NIGERIA	1947	
	1950/51	...	1,396	24	
	1954/55	...	2,086	-	
NORTH BORNEO	1947	-	-	-	
	1955	1	29	-	
NORTHERN RHODESIA - African Education	1946/47	...	105	36	
	1955/56	32	1,700	395	
NYASALAND	1946/47	26	597	95	
	1955/56	6 ^{y/}	143 ^{y/}	18 ^{y/}	

TABLE 27 (continued)

Territory	Year	Number of schools	Enrolment		
			Male	Female	Female
ST. HELENA	1955	-	-	<u>z/</u>	- <u>z/</u>
SEYCHELLES	1948	-	<u>aa/</u>	- <u>aa/</u>	- <u>aa/</u>
	1950	-	<u>aa/</u>	- <u>aa/</u>	- <u>aa/</u>
	1955	-	<u>aa/</u>	- <u>aa/</u>	- <u>aa/</u>
	1955	-	<u>aa/</u>	- <u>aa/</u>	- <u>aa/</u>
SIERRA LEONE	1946	-	-	-	-
	1956	3	377	<u>bb/</u>	128 <u>bb/</u>
SINGAPORE	1946	1	46	-	-
	1955	<u>2cc/</u>	399	<u>cc/</u>	- <u>cc/</u>
SOMALILAND (British)	1948	-	-	-	-
	1956	3	73	-	-
SOMALILAND (French)	1947/48	1	35	-	...
	1955/56	7	165	-	47
SWAZILAND	1947	5	62	-	9
	1956	3	81	-	15
TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO <u>dd/</u>	1946	1	63	<u>ee/</u>	...
	1949	1	80	<u>ee/</u>	...
	1956	1	180	-	-
TUNISIA <u>x/</u>	1946/47	...	5,953	-	2,513
	1954/55	70	14,116	-	6,918
	1955/56	67	14,482	-	6,959
UGANDA	1947	12	626	-	24
	1956	58	3,338	-	104
ZANZIBAR AND PEMBA	1946	-	-	<u>ff/</u>	- <u>ff/</u>
	1956	...	36	<u>gg/</u>	12 <u>gg/</u>

- a/ In 1953/54, 170 students of aided secondary schools were attending technical courses.
- b/ In 1946, homecraft education is given in primary and secondary education.
- c/ Included elsewhere under secondary general education.
- d/ In 1946, 640 girls of primary education were attending domestic science courses and about 590 boys manual training courses.
- e/ Government and aided schools only.
- f/ In addition, 882 male pupils from 41 primary schools receive vocational training in 7 handicraft centres, and 590 female pupils receive instruction in domestic subjects, in 3 centres.

TABLE 27 (continued)

(Footnotes continued from previous page)

- g/ In addition, 7 handicraft and 4 domestic science centres provide some pre-vocational training for 1,054 boys and 520 girls of the primary schools; other pupils attend similar classes at departments attached to their schools.
- h/ Manual training was given in primary and secondary schools.
- i/ Enrolment in commercial-vocational training was included in secondary education.
- j/ In addition, there were 4,011 students in 34 evening classes.
- k/ In addition, 311 boys of primary education attending manual instruction, and 275 girls attending domestic science classes.
- l/ In addition, 3,036 (1,082 F) pupils of primary education and 634 (348 F) students of secondary education, attended handicraft and homecraft classes.
- m/ Public education only; in addition, vocational training was given to 1,321 pupils in public primary or secondary schools, and to 535 (360 F) pupils in private primary and secondary schools.
- n/ Of which 1,131 (367 F) in the public sector.
- o/ In addition, there were 1,622 (788 F) in the manual work sections of primary and secondary education.
- p/ There were, in addition, 10 (3 F) pupils in vocational education in the United Kingdom.
- q/ In addition, there were 983 (86 F) part-time students.
- r/ In addition, there were 834 (68 F) part-time students.
- s/ Technical education has been at a stand-still during the year as war damages had not yet been repaired.
- t/ In addition, there were 3,839 (1,393 F) students in part-time courses.
- u/ In 1956, 631 female pupils in senior primary schools and 76 female students of secondary education, receive instruction in Home Economics.
- v/ Excluding the manual work sections in primary and secondary education, which had an enrolment of about 4,000 pupils in 1955/56. 96 students of private vocational education in 1947/48, were already included under primary or secondary education.
- w/ Vocational instruction was, in addition, given in public institutions that were not under the administration of the Department of Public Instruction.
- x/ Public education only.
- y/ The drop in the number of schools and pupils is due to the fact that from 1955 only legally registered unaided schools are included. The number of students is therefore not really comparable.
- z/ In 1955, 64 students (56 F) attending part-time instruction as follows: Post-primary needlework 50 (50 F); Further education 14 (6 F).

TABLE 27 (continued)

(Footnotes continued from previous page)

aa/ It seems to us that only students in Government Technical Centres Apprentices Workshop, founded in June 1947, and probationer nurses and student midwives courses, can be regarded as full-time vocational students in the Territory. There were 10 students in the Technical Centre in 1948; 35 (17 F) students in 1950 and 44 (19 F) in 1955.

bb/ In addition, there were 1,228 (314 F) students in evening classes.

cc/ There were, in addition, 4,797 (2,863 F) students in 64 vocational and general education part-time schools.

dd/ Vocational training was given, in addition, in handicraft and domestic science centres attached to primary schools, with an enrolment of several thousand pupils.

There were, in addition, part-time day release classes and evening classes with the following enrolment:

	1946	1949	1955	
			MF	F
Part-time day release classes	172	171	208	-
Evening classes:				
Technical	1,636	2,367	3,110	150
Commercial		120	73	55
Dressmaking		221	647	647
Continuation (general education))		...	783	-
Ex-servicemen training	270	-	-	-

ee/ Junior Technical School, San Fernando, the enrolment of which is already included in secondary education.

ff/ A domestic science school was opened in 1944 and provides courses for pupils from government primary girls school, government girls secondary school and women teachers in training.

gg/ In addition, there were 48 male students at the Mombasa Institute of Muslim Education in Kenya and 39 male students at the Muslim Academy. The 36 students were in a new trade school, 22 male students studying masonry and 12 female students in a dressmaking class.

VI. HIGHER EDUCATION

435. The particular importance of higher education to Non-Self-Governing Territories lies in the fact that political, social and economic evolution all depend on the presence of sufficient professional men and women to ensure leadership for the community. Among the results of higher education not the least important is scientific research, the means by which solutions may be found to the most pressing problem of these territories - how to make better use of the human and natural resources for the common welfare.

436. The need for attention to this level of education is generally recognized by the Administering Members. The Committee on Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories has devoted itself repeatedly to the question, and in its Report for 1956 states that: "With the development of the Non-Self-Governing Territories, there are increasing calls for more and more of the inhabitants to participate fully, up to the highest levels, in all branches of the administration and in all professions. In these circumstances, a further development in university institutions is a matter of urgency".^{68/} The special studies laid before the Committee in 1953 and again in 1956 contained a detailed survey of provisions for higher education^{69/} and an analysis of the ways in which universities are being financed.^{70/}

437. The present survey will be limited to an examination, in general terms, of progress made between 1946 and 1956 and to a summing up of the available statistics on enrolments. The statistics are given in four tables at the end of this section, 28 to 31, covering respectively Belgian, United Kingdom, French and United States administered territories.

^{68/} United Nations, Committee on Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories, Report (seventh session 1956), Supplement No.15 (A/3127) to the official records of the General Assembly, para. 58.

^{69/} United Nations, Special Study on Educational Conditions in Non-Self-Governing Territories, New York, 1953, pp. 109-117.

^{70/} Ibid., 1956, pp. 71-84.

A. General trends

438. A certain number of universities and of small specialized colleges for higher education existed before 1946. The larger institutions, notably in Alaska, Hawaii, Hong Kong and Puerto Rico, have continued to develop both by increased enrolments and by wider offerings.

439. The most pronounced trend of the period has been the emergence of new institutions. In some cases these have been set up as entirely new ventures, but more often they have grown organically from preceding institutions of college level and from post-secondary courses conducted by various government departments. Progress towards substantive autonomous universities has varied and it is perhaps true to say that the years 1946-1956 saw much effort devoted to buildings, equipment and staffing, the results of which, in terms of enrolment and status, were only beginning to show by 1956.

440. Assistance from metropolitan countries, in the form of public funds and of inter-university collaboration, has contributed to the development of higher education in the territories. Direct relationships between centres in the territories and universities in the metropolitan countries have covered advisory services, the loan of staff and joint consultation for fixing curricula and examination standards.

441. Even with this type of support many territories have been, and still are, unable to maintain their own institutions of higher education. For some small territories, in terms of area, population and resources, it is likely that the only solution they are faced with is to send their students abroad. In other cases, where the obstacles in terms of finances and limited secondary school enrolments are of a temporary nature, regional solutions have been sought. Many of the institutions created since 1946 in Africa, Asia and the Caribbean are the outcome of a pooling of resources by territories within a region.

442. The problem of study abroad as a means of providing higher education appears to have grown in importance. As the Committee on Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories stated before, there are certain dangers in the procedure - the possible loss of some of the best students, who will find posts abroad, and the fallacious argument that public-supported study abroad relieves a territory of the necessity of creating its own institutions of higher education. The

evidence would seem to indicate, however, that in proportion as territorial institutions have made progress, the need for fellowships for more advanced study, research, or specialized training continues also to grow, at least in the short run. A brief survey of existing data on this question, limited to territories under United Kingdom Administration, is given below.

443. A trend which may be noted is the extension of the fields of higher study during the past decade. The main effort in organizing new institutions has been to provide the traditional faculties; but territorial needs and the younger disciplines have also influenced policy. The development of technological courses, mentioned earlier, has been a case in point, and there has been considerable stress also on the social and administrative sciences.

B. Territorial developments

444. Since relatively few institutions are involved and statistics do not often extend over the entire period 1946 to 1956, it seems preferable to review developments by territory, referring at the same time to the quantitative growth and to the range of studies. Tables 28 to 31 give available statistics for each institution, analysed by faculty or branch where possible and, in the case of territories under the French Administration, also by examination results.

445. Belgian Administration (Belgian Congo). Until 1946, higher education was provided only in private institutions, on a limited scale, and through departmental training courses. The institutional enrolment at four centres for training clergy and the private school of agriculture maintained at Yaseke by the Huileries du Congo Belge amounted in 1947/48 to 286 students. Since then the trend has been towards the establishment of universities. In 1948 the Lovanium University Centre was begun, a private institution under the auspices of the University of Louvain, but receiving Government subsidies. The University which is in Leopoldville, organizes both secondary (preparatory) and university courses proper, and only reached the full higher level in 1954/55. Enrolments by 1956 reached 105, distributed over the fields of medicine, science, philosophy and arts, and education.

446. The two universities are multi-racial, and in their early stages European students appear relatively numerous: 38 at Lovanium, 71 at Elisabethville.

447. African Territories (United Kingdom). Among the West African territories developments have occurred in the Gold Coast, Nigeria, Sierra Leone. In 1946, Achimoto College in the Gold Coast was already organizing post-secondary courses for degree purposes with an enrolment of 105 students. This led in 1948 to the foundation of the University College of the Gold Coast and in 1952 to the Kumasi College of Technology, the joint enrolment of which in 1955/56 amounted to 767 if teachers in training at Kumasi are excluded. The two institutions between them provide degree courses in arts, science, medicine, commerce, engineering and diploma courses in education and social sciences.

448. Somewhat similar developments took place in Nigeria. Earlier institutions for higher studies and medicine were in 1948 transferred from Yaba to Ibadan and the University College of Nigeria was founded. In 1952 the College of Arts, Science and Technology was established as a tripartite institution with centres at Ibadan, Enugu and Zaria, corresponding to the three regions of the Federation. The total higher education enrolment in 1955 amounted to 937 students.

449. Fourah Bay College in Sierra Leone has a long history and has played an important part in the provision of higher education for the other West African territories under British administration. The College expanded considerably after 1946, with new facilities for science teaching and an enrolment which rose from fifty-six in 1946 to 234 in 1956. In the latter year, ninety-two students came from outside the Territory.

450. The East African territories have favoured a regional approach to the problem of higher education. Makerere College in Uganda, founded in 1922, was extended in 1949 to become the University College of East Africa, jointly supported by and drawing students from four territories. Enrolments have risen from 197 in 1947 to 625 in 1956, and of the latter, 414 came from outside the Territory. A wide field of studies is offered, including arts, science, medicine, agriculture, and the college includes institutes of education and of social research. A more recent territorial development was the foundation in Nairobi, Kenya, in 1956 of the Royal Technical College of East Africa. It enrolled 210 students in the first year over a variety of science and technical courses at higher levels. Of these students 136 came from Kenya and seventy-four from other East African territories.

451. Another regional institution is the University College of Rhodesia and Nyasaland, set up in Salisbury in 1955. The College is not shown in Table 29 because of its location, but it should be noted that it provides higher education facilities for students from the Territories of Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland.

452. In the High Commission Territories, a small unaided private centre was founded in Basutoland in 1945. It prepares for degrees in arts and science, and the majority of its students come from outside the Territory.

453. Caribbean Territories (United Kingdom). Two institutions were already in existence before 1946: the Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture in Trinidad and Codrington College in Barbados. The Imperial College has continued to give advanced specialized training not only to students from the region but also from other parts of the world. Codrington College mainly serves the needs of Barbados and has a link with Durham University in the United Kingdom.

454. The major development during the period was the foundation in 1948 of the University College of the West Indies in Jamaica. This is a regional institution which provides courses in arts, science, medicine and education and it includes a recently established institute of social and economic research. The majority of students come from other territories in the region: of a total enrolment of 494 in 1946, there were 216 Jamaicans.

455. Asian Territories (United Kingdom). In Hong Kong the existing facilities for higher education were largely destroyed during the war. The University was formally reconstructed in 1948, with a greatly developed programme including forty-two senior posts. Between 1952 and 1956, enrolment has remained at about 800 students. The Hong Kong Technical College was similarly reconstructed; it opened its first full-time day courses in 1949, reaching an enrolment of 265 by 1956. No information is available for the private post-secondary courses before 1951/52, but it is reported by the Department of Education that these should be included under full-time higher education. Enrolments in this sector stand at about 2,000. Considerable provisions, public and private, are also made for part-time study. The Evening School of Higher Chinese Studies, opened in March 1951, had an enrolment of 256 (94 F) students in 1951/52 and of 328 (161 F) students in 1955/56. The Technical College enrolled 3642 (111 F) students in evening classes in 1955/56.

456. The Federation of Malaya and Singapore together possessed a number of colleges for higher education in 1946, with a total enrolment of 784 students. With the fusion of Raffles College and the King Edward VII College of Medicine, the University of Malaya was created in 1949. The Technical College in Kuala Lumpur and the Serdang College of Agriculture continued to function independently. In 1956 the Nanyang University was founded in Singapore and plans were well advanced for a polytechnic. There were well over 2,000 students of the two territories enrolled in higher education in 1956, with facilities for study in all the recognized branches leading to degrees.

457. Other territories (United Kingdom). Figures relating to the Forestry College in Cyprus, the Central Medical School in Fiji and the College of Agriculture in Mauritius are reported in Table 29.

458. French Administration. In French West Africa a group of higher schools came into existence after 1946: the Higher School of Law, preparing for the "licence en droit", the Preparatory School of Medicine and Pharmacy, with courses up to the third year of the doctor's degree, the High School of Science, preparing for the certificate in physics, chemistry and biology (P.C.B.) as well as other certificates in science, and the Higher School of Arts, leading to the "certificat d'études littéraires générales" in classical and modern sections. A decree of April 1950 created in Dakar an Institute of Higher Studies to co-ordinate the activities of these schools. This gave way in 1957 to the University of Dakar. Enrolments had risen by 1955/56 to 489 students. During the development of this institution the Universities of Paris and Bordeaux have been associated with it. It should be noted also that higher education in agriculture and technology are provided in the territory, although not for degree purposes during the period reviewed. The institutes for these studies have developed, as in France, alongside the traditional university faculties. And finally, the Institut Français de l'Afrique Noire continued to grow between 1946 and 1956, undertaking research in a wide range of natural and social scientific fields and providing training opportunities at a post-graduate level.

459. The growth of higher education in Madagascar has been associated with the Universities of Aix and Marseilles. As in French West Africa a number of courses and schools have evolved during the period, leading to the creation in 1955 of

the Institut des Hautes Etudes which co-ordinates activities. The School of Law (1947) is attached to the University of Aix; the Higher Scientific Courses (1948) prepare for the P.C.B. and other certificates; a class for higher literacy studies has been added to the Lycée Gallieni since 1952; and finally, a School of Medicine (1896) has been expanded through the addition of a pharmacy section in 1947. The traditional university faculties are thus all represented, and these higher courses contained 446 students in 1955/56. Agricultural and technical institutes have also evolved during the period.

460. In Morocco the institutions for higher education existed before 1946, but appear to have expanded steadily during the period reviewed. For various reasons it is difficult to effect any comparison of statistics over the period 1946 to 1954. Two traditional Universities, the Qaraouyine and the Ben Youssef, provide Islamic studies in classical fields. Modern studies are represented by the Institut des Hautes Etudes Marocaines, founded in 1921, which gives higher education in the human sciences of Morocco and North Africa either at the Institute itself or through regional centres and correspondence courses. The Institute also serves to co-ordinate other activities in the fields of law, science and letters. The Centres d'Etudes Juridiques, in Rabat and Casablanca (1930) prepare for the "licence en droit" and are attached to the Institute. The Centre d'Etudes Supérieures Scientifiques (1940) covers both scientific and medical fields; it prepares for certificates in science and since 1949 has had a dentistry section. Arts and letters were until recently represented by classes attached to secondary schools.

461. Much the same situation has obtained in Tunisia, with corresponding difficulties in the comparison of statistics. Traditional Islamic studies are centred on the Ez-Zitouna University with a very large enrolment not reflected in Table 30. Ez-Zitouna was in 1955 attached to the Ministry of National Education, and it has developed courses in mathematics, sciences and modern languages in addition to the classical curriculum. Modern studies are represented by the Institute of Higher Studies, founded in 1945 and attached to the University of Paris; the Institute comprised three faculties initially, law, science and arts. A School of Fine Arts (1923) and a Conservatory of Music fall outside this pattern. Finally, a course in Tunisian Law (1922) has continued during the period.

462. United States Administration. For the most part, the relevant institutions were founded before 1946, but more recent establishments are known to exist in Guam and Puerto Rico.

463. In Alaska, the University (1935) grew from 379 students in 1946/47 to 979 in 1955/56, veterans and students at extension classes not included. The University of Hawaii (1919) has expanded rapidly from 2,381 students in 1946/47 to 5,340 in 1955/56. The range of studies has increased through the setting up of a college of business administration in 1950. The University of Puerto Rico (1903) has grown further, its enrolment rising from 9,641 to 14,268; the wide range of courses offered is shown in Table 31. Other facilities in the Territory included the Polytechnic Institute and two private universities, one of which was founded in 1948.

464. In Guam a Territorial College was first set up in 1952, and by 1955 its enrolment had risen to 236.

C. Students abroad - a survey of territories under United Kingdom Administration

465. To supplement information on higher education within territories, it is desirable to know also how many students are enrolled at institutions outside the Territory. Because of the difficulties in interpreting data, it is impossible to provide a short tabulated answer on this point, and one group of territories - those under United Kingdom Administration - has therefore been selected for more discursive treatment. The enumeration given below may serve as an indication of how far all the territories in this group rely on higher education institutions elsewhere for training their professional men and women.

466. The data are not complete in all cases. For some territories only the aided students are known, with no information about private students; or else, these latter are partially but not wholly accounted for when they register with the students' liaison officer of the Territory. Very often the information covers only some of the countries to which students proceed for higher education; and similarly, at times only some ethnic groups but not all are reported.

467. Another problem arises from classification at secondary and higher levels. Within the territories the distinction is usually clearly drawn in statistics, but students abroad are often shown as a group, irrespective of the courses they follow. In particular, the territorial statistics shown in Table 29 exclude

teacher training except where it is for degree purposes, but such a distinction cannot be made in students abroad, although it is known that many of these are in fact training to be teachers. Comparison between the figures below and those in Table 29 is therefore not valid; but cross-references will be made as a rough guide.

468. Territories in West Africa. For Gambia there were in 1949 about twenty-five higher education students in the United Kingdom, mostly holding scholarships. The 1956 figure was seventeen male students.

469. The Gold Coast information for 1947/48 sums up the preceding three years. One scholarship scheme started in 1944 for staffs of the educational units led ninety-six higher education students to Nigeria (4) and the United Kingdom (92); a similar scheme for members of the Education Department enabled thirty-six students to go to the United Kingdom. Several other official schemes involved only a few students. In addition, 112 students had proceeded by private means to the United Kingdom in the same period. This total, distributed equally over the years 1944-1947, would make a rough figure of about eighty students a year. The situation reported for 1954/55 shows a total of 363 students abroad with some form or another of government assistance; 218 open scholarships in the United Kingdom and the United States of America, ninety-one students under departmental training schemes, twenty-seven engineering students and twenty-seven other scholarships awarded by the Governments of India and Yugoslavia and by local government bodies in the Gold Coast. It would seem that the number of students and range of studies had expanded during the period that the Territory's own facilities had grown considerably.

470. In the case of Nigeria, it is known that a large number of students have gone abroad, but no figures are available. For Sierra Leone, in 1956 there were 923 students in the United Kingdom, 158 of them with scholarships. Some of these students were taking secondary vocational courses.

471. Territories in East Africa. Considerable expansion took place in Kenya: 184 students were assisted for study abroad in 1947 (the number going to Makerere College is not known); by 1949 there were 164 overseas bursaries and eighty-one students at Makerere; and in 1956 a total of 1,417 students were outside the Territory, including 222 at Makerere, 725 in the United Kingdom, 400 in India and Pakistan and seventy in other countries.

472. Earlier figures for Uganda are not available, but it is estimated that in 1956 some 616 students were abroad, including 255 scholarships in the United Kingdom and fifty-five in India and Pakistan.

473. For Zanzibar, there were twenty-three higher education students abroad in 1947, thirteen at Makerere, six in the United Kingdom, three in India and one in Egypt. No information is available for Somaliland.

474. Territories in Central and Southern Africa. The numbers for Northern Rhodesia rose from twenty-one African students in 1948 (Makerere six, United Kingdom eight, Union of South Africa seven) to thirty-six African scholarship holders in 1955 (makerere five, United Kingdom 6, Union of South Africa twenty-five). Similarly in Nyasaland there was an expansion from four scholarship holders in 1946/47 to thirteen in 1955. In addition there are believed to have been fifteen scholarship holders in India in the latter year.

475. The High Commission Territories have shown some expansion at the higher education level, while studies at the secondary level in the Union of South Africa have probably been reduced. Basutoland had thirteen African students at Fort Hare in 1946; and in 1956, still thirteen in the Union and eight in the United Kingdom. Bechuanaland post-graduate bursaries were four in 1946, seven in 1956. Figures are not known for Swaziland but are believed to be low.

476. Territories in the Caribbean. Insufficient information is available for a report on Barbados and the Leeward and Windward groups.

477. From the Bahamas, there were forty-six students abroad in 1947, thirty of them at Queens College, Belfast. In Bermuda, ten scholarships were allotted during the year 1946; in 1953/54 it was estimated that about 179 students were in higher institutions in Canada and the United States of America, and twenty-five in the United Kingdom.

478. The British Guiana reports refer to twenty-three scholarships in 1946 for higher education abroad. In 1952/53 there were a total of 273 students abroad (215 in the United Kingdom, thirty-two in Jamaica); and this rose in 1954/55 to 349.

479. For British Honduras, twelve students were in training in Jamaica in 1948, and a further fifty in the United Kingdom and the United States of America. The number of assisted students in 1955 rose to twenty-four (ten in Jamaica) and there were fifty private students.

480. Jamaica reported thirty-six university scholarship holders abroad in 1946. By 1956 the total of higher education students abroad was 1,915, including 1,232 in the United Kingdom. The level was high also for Trinidad: 628 in 1952, of whom fifty-nine scholarship holders, rising to a total of 980 in 1956.

481. Territories in Asia. In 1947 about 241 students from the Malayan Union were abroad; no figures are available for Singapore. By 1955, some 685 higher education students from the Federation were registered with the Malayan Student's Union in the United Kingdom and the Republic of Ireland, and over 350 were in Australia. In addition, 450 teachers were in training in the United Kingdom at Kirkby and Brinsford Lodge. For Singapore in the same year the figures were 157 aided and 500 private students.

482. From the territories in Borneo, forty-five Brunei teachers were undergoing training overseas in 1955, and North Borneo had thirty-seven scholarship holders abroad. Data for Sarawak are not available.

483. The number of Hong Kong students abroad has grown rapidly since 1954/55, when detailed statistics were first issued: in the three succeeding years the total of these students in higher education has been 684, 907, 1,366.

484. Other territories. Among the Indian Ocean territories, Aden had seventeen students in Near Eastern universities in 1946; in 1954 there were twelve scholarship holders in the United Kingdom plus an unknown number in the Near East. Mauritius had in 1949 a total of 180 students in higher universities in the United Kingdom, sixty-two of them with scholarships. By 1956 the total was 338. No information is available for Seychelles.

485. Among the Pacific Ocean territories, Fiji recorded little change during the period - 120 non-European students abroad in 1947, and 112 in 1955, the majority in New Zealand. No information is available on the British Solomon Islands or the Gilbert and Ellice group.

486. Of the Mediterranean territories, Cyprus appears to have a large number of students abroad but no figures are given for earlier years. In 1956, some 500 students were estimated to be in the United Kingdom, 700 in Greece, 210 in Turkey and 100 elsewhere, a total of about 1,500. From Gibraltar three annual scholarships for higher education in the United Kingdom were reported in 1946/47, three students were in British training colleges and a small number of students received grants from the Government to study in the United Kingdom. By 1954/55,

there were approximately forty-six students in higher education in the United Kingdom, twelve of them in training colleges.

487. No information is available for the Falklands and St. Helena.

488. Summary. Study abroad has expanded steadily in the territories possessing no higher education establishments. Some of the traffic has been to adjacent territories, but the greater part to nearly all countries and to the United Kingdom. In territories where university colleges have grown the amount of travel abroad shows no signs of lessening; on the contrary, Jamaica, the Gold Coast, Kenya, Uganda and Malaya were among those with the highest totals for the recent years. It is likely that by 1956 the development of territorial institutions had not caught up with the demand for undergraduate training; and it is also likely that a good part of the 1956 study abroad is taking place at a more specialized or post-graduate level, supplied in fact by the expanding facilities for higher education within the territories.

D. Finances

489. A detailed study on the financing of university education was laid before the Committee on Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories in 1956,^{71/} and it is not proposed here to do more than summarize the findings of the study.

490. Capital costs for territorial institutions have been high, amounting to between six and eight million dollars for the initial outlay on buildings and equipment. Most of the new universities have been built outside urban areas, and require accommodation for students and staff; and in general the conditions in under-developed areas tend to make costs higher. The figure just given does not include the cost of a hospital for medical teaching; where such hospitals have been built, they have involved as much capital outlay as the rest of the university, and several territories have attempted instead to develop an existing public hospital for teaching purposes. In either case, medical training imposes a severe strain on finances.

491. Recurrent costs, when analysed by objects of expenditure appear to resemble the pattern found in metropolitan universities. Although salaries are likely to be high because of the need for recruiting staff abroad and paying passages,

^{71/} United Nations, Special Study on Educational Conditions in Non-Self-Governing Territories, New York, 1956, Chapter VI.

it appears that this item in budgets does not differ proportionately from what is customary in older universities. When recurrent costs per student are calculated, some of the newer territorial universities are three to four times higher than the average for such countries as Canada and the United Kingdom. This is due in part to small initial enrolments; and in view of the trend toward increased study abroad revealed above, the question arises whether it might not be possible to ease the situation by reversing the trend as far as undergraduate studies are concerned.

492. Among sources of funds, contributions from the metropolitan countries have been very large, and have served to defray most of the initial costs of new institutions. Territorial governments have nevertheless been involved in heavy expenditure also, and for the territories under British administration it is estimated that by 1956 they had contributed twice the sum provided from Colonial Development and Welfare funds. Such provision has taken four forms: the gift of sites, endowment grants, capital grants, and annual grants for recurrent expenditure. Support by public and private bodies and by foundations has also been of assistance. Finally, income from tuition, boarding and examination fees makes up a significant part of the budget in most institutions. Territorial financing has been organized on a regional basis in many cases, and the pooling of resources has been one of the main reasons for the successful expansion of higher education in the past decade.

E. Concluding note

493. This survey has brought out the fact that the years 1946 to 1956 saw the foundation of a system of higher education which now serves most of the Non-Self-Governing Territories either individually or regionally. Progress has to be measured not only by enrolments at the end of the period but also by the efforts made to create the **material** and institutional means of higher education; the results will not be apparent or striking for some years to come, because higher education is essentially a long term investment.

The difficulties encountered have been:

- (a) financial costs, high for capital outlay and relatively high for current expenditure as long as the enrolment is low;
- (b) the particularly high cost of establishing medical schools;

- (c) the need for ensuring standards which would be internationally acceptable; here the association with older universities has proved invaluable;
- (d) the competitive pull of older universities for students, and the fact that study abroad has continued to grow;
- (e) recruitment of staff at a period when higher education everywhere has been in a stage of expansion;
- (f) the quality and quantity of secondary school leavers; in several cases special arrangements had to be made to provide pre-university courses.

The main trends, and pointers to future growth, may also be summed up:

- (a) at the higher education level barriers of race and religion have been broken down and systems of separate education have fused;
- (b) the range of institutions and of studies provided has gone far beyond the traditional faculties; growing importance is attached to technology, agriculture and the social sciences, and it may be presumed that the new institutions are responding to the real needs of the territories;
- (c) the value of extension work has been recognized from the outset in many cases, and it has already reached considerable proportions; the provision of part-time classes, summer courses and adult education services generally ensures that the institution remains in touch with the people.

TABLE 28

ENROLMENT IN HIGHER EDUCATION IN BELGIAN CONGO
 (excluding pre-university courses)

	<u>1947/48</u>	<u>1955/56</u>	<u>1956/57</u>
PUBLIC,			
State University of Leopoldville (founded in 1956). TOTAL	-	-	79
Science			29
Philosophy and Arts			18
Education			32
PRIVATE,			
Higher education for clergymen		358	365
Higher School of Agriculture	286		
Lovanium University Centre (founded in 1948). TOTAL	-	42	105
Natural science and medicine	-	...	21
Science	-	...	22
Philosophy and arts	-	...	39
Education	-	...	23

TABLE 29 (continued)

Territories	Year	Institutions	Enrolment	
			Male and female	Female
KENYA	1956	Royal Technical College of East Africa, Nairobi (founded in 1956)		
		TOTAL	210	...
		Architecture	30	...
		Arts	20	...
		Commerce	61	...
		Engineering	48	...
Science	43	...		
Domestic Science	8	...		
MAURITIUS	1949	College of Agriculture	25 ^{3/4}	-
	1955	" " " "	50 ^{3/4}	-
NIGERIA	1948/49	University College, Ibadan (founded in 1948)		
		TOTAL	210	...
		Arts	40	...
		Science	121	...
		Medicine	29	...
		Teacher-training	20	...
1955	University College, Ibadan (founded in 1948) Nigerian College of Arts, Science and Technology (founded in 1952)	937	51	
SIERRA LEONE	1946 ^{2/3}	Fourah Bay College ^{2/3} (founded in 1827)		
		TOTAL	56	...
		Arts	40	...
		Economics	9	...
		Ministerial	7	...
		1956 ^{2/3}	TOTAL	234 ^{2/3}
Arts	107	...		
Economics	79	...		
Science	35	...		
Ministerial	9	...		
Diploma in Education	4	...		
TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO	1948/49	Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture (founded in 1921)	66	-
	1956	" " " " " " " "	92	-
UGANDA	1947	Makereee College (founded in 1922)		
		TOTAL	197 ^{1/2}	...
		Medicine	34	...
		Agriculture	11	...
		Education	13	...
		Science	33	...
		Arts	53	...
		Veterinary Medicine	5	...
		Preliminary Courses	34	...
		Other Courses	14	...
		1954	TOTAL	487 ^{1/2}
1956	TOTAL	625 ^{1/2}	...	

(Footnotes on next page)

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TABLE 29 (continued)

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- 1/ Enrolment figures concern the total number of students at the respective institution regardless of their geographical origin. Wherever separate enrolment figures for Higher Teacher-Training Institutions or Departments were available they were excluded; enrolment in Degree Courses of Education, on the other hand, is included.
- a/ University of Malaya was founded in 1949 out of the merger of Raffles College and King Edward VII College of Medicine.
- b/ Figures are of December 1955 for academic year 1955/56.
- c/ Excluding students in the teacher-training department.
- d/ There were, in addition, 11 male part-time students.
- e/ Excluding the Department of Teacher-Training whose students are included under higher teacher training.
- f/ Figures are for the end of the year.
- g/ In addition, 10 students were enrolled in courses leading to the General Certificate of Education in science subjects, and 9 other students in non-University course at Fourah Bay.
- h/ Of the total 625, only 211 were from Uganda. There were, in addition, post-secondary professional schools for which no separate data are available for most of the years. They seem to be included in technical and vocational education. In 1954 there were 92 male students in post-secondary professional schools.

TABLE 30

NUMBER OF INSTITUTIONS, ENROLMENT AND EXAMINATION RESULTS IN HIGHER EDUCATION IN TERRITORIES UNDER FRENCH ADMINISTRATION BETWEEN 1946 AND 1956 1/

TERRITORY	Year	Enrolment												Examination Results									
		TOTAL		Law		Medicine and Pharmacy		Science		Humanities		Others		Law		Medicine and Pharmacy		Science		Humanities			
		MF	F	MF	F	MF	F	MF	F	MF	F	MF	F	Candi- dates	Passes	C	P	Candi- dates	Passes	Candidates	Passes		
FRENCH WEST AFRICA	1946/47	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
	1950/51	4	135	72	...	14	...	35	...	14	...	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
	1955/56	4	489	64	...	183	11	80	12	146	...	21	80	20	...	115 ^{a/}	69 ^{a/}	70 ^{a/}	60 ^{a/}	97 ^{a/}	48 ^{a/}	42 ^{a/}	33 ^{a/}
MADAGASCAR	1947/48	2	59	6	-	-	-	-	...	20	4	-	-	
	1950/51	3	197	38	-	-	...	28	28	-	-	
	1955/56	3	446	58	-	-	...	229 ^{a/}	99 ^{a/}	83 ^{a/}	30 ^{a/}	18 ^{a/}	10 ^{a/}	
MOROCCO	1947/48	4	744 ^{e/}	630	...	-	-	114	...	a/	a/	c/	...	626 ^{e/}	250 ^{e/}	-	-	143 ^{e/}	87 ^{e/}	410 ^{e/}	115 ^{e/}
	1953/54	4	1,302 ^{e/}	328 ^{e/}	...	1,027	241	-	-	275	87	a/	a/	c/	...	415 ^{e/}	177 ^{e/}	-	-	215 ^{e/}	137 ^{e/}	262 ^{e/}	123 ^{e/}
TUNISIA	1946/47	5	1,585 ^{e/}	247 ^{e/}	-	-	357 ^{h/}	135 ^{e/}	-	-	127	85	
	1954/55	5	1,750 ^{e/}	689 ^{e/}	...	455	114	-	-	438	112	342	119	515 ^{i/}	344 ^{i/}	353 ^{i/}	120 ^{k/}	-	-	405	141	354	116
	1955/56	5	443	79	-	-	568	151	331	128	353	144	-	-	547	228	424	98

1/ Excluding students taking higher courses at upper classes of secondary schools.

a/ Examinations held in 1955.

b/ Including 2 free candidates; though there is no Faculty of Arts in the Territory, there were candidates for the Certificat de lettres supérieures. It seems that the preparation for the latter was given in the upper classes of secondary schools.

c/ Not including students of the Institut des Hautes Etudes Marocaines which should be classified under "Others". No comparison is possible for the number of students of the Institut des Hautes Etudes Marocaines between 1947/48 and 1953/54. The Annuaire Statistique de la Zone Française du Maroc, 1947/48 gives a total of 721 students for this Institute against a total of 228 students given by the Statistical Abstract of 1953/54. The first figure seems to include the students at the Institute itself and at its regional centres, whereas the latter figure seems to refer only to those at the Institute. The Répertoire des Services et des Etablissements Publics d'Enseignement au Maroc, Direction de l'Instruction Publique, Rabat, 1954, gives for 1953/54 a total of 2,399 students at the Institute, its regional centres and correspondence courses. The comparison of examination results for the various certificates of the Institut des Hautes Etudes Marocaines shows a considerable increase:

1948, Candidates 973 - Passes, 487.

1953, Candidates 2,129 - Passes, 793.

d/ No Faculty of Arts exists in Morocco. Higher studies in arts are undertaken in the upper classes of secondary schools. In 1953/54 there were 258 students in those classes. They were not included in the table as no comparable figures were available for 1947/48 and even those for 1953/54 seem not to be complete.

e/ Examinations held in 1948, including special sessions held for students delayed in their studies because of the war.

f/ Examinations held in 1953.

g/ Includes students at the various faculties at the Institut des Hautes Etudes, the Ecole des Beaux-Arts and the Conservatoire de Musique. No figures available for students at the Cours de Droit Tunisien and the traditional Muslim University Ez-Zitouna.

h/ There were, in addition, 214 candidates and 118 passes for the Certificat d'études of the Cours de Droit Tunisien.

i/ Total includes some higher teaching institutions as in 1946/47. There were in addition 372 male students at the Cours de Droit Tunisien and an estimated number of 500 male students at the University Ez-Zitouna.

j/ Ecole des Beaux-Arts and Conservatoire de Musique.

k/ There were, in addition, 268 candidates and 124 passes for the Certificat d'études of the Cours de Droit Tunisien.

l/ Enrolment figures at the Conservatoire de Musique not available. In addition to the figures given above there were 106 (39 F) students at the Ecole des Beaux-Arts, 426 male students at the Cours de Droit Tunisien and an estimated number of 500 male students at the University Ez-Zitouna.

TABLE 31
ENROLMENT IN HIGHER EDUCATION IN TERRITORIES UNDER UNITED STATES ADMINISTRATION,
BETWEEN 1946 AND 1956 ^{1/}

	1946/47		1954/55		1955/56	
	(regular session)		(fall 1954)		(November 1955)	
	MF	F	MF	F	MF	F
<u>ALASKA</u>						
University of Alaska (founded in 1935)	379 ^{a/}	96 ^{a/}	409 ^{b/}	283 ^{b/}	979 ^{c/}	...
<u>PUERTO RICO</u>						
TOTAL	13,964			
Polytechnic Institute, San German (founded in 1912)	419 ^{a/}	161 ^{d/}	613 ^{e/}			
University of Puerto Rico (founded in 1903)	9,041 ^{f/}	5,073 ^{f/}	11,372 ^{g/}			
General studies	1,377	...	2,087			
Humanities and social sciences	399	...	1,000			
Natural sciences	685	...	675			
Commerce	623	...	2,071			
Education	1,341	...	2,906			
Law	108	...	109			
Pharmacy	386	...	190			
Agriculture	264	...	326			
Engineering	534	...	1,091			
Science	384	...	645			
Medical sciences	46	...	272			
College of the Sacred Heart (founded in 1935)	102 ^{h/}			
Catholic University of Puerto Rico (founded in 1948)	-	-	1,877 ^{i/}			
<u>GUAM</u>						
Territorial College of Guam (founded in 1952)	-	-	236 ^{j/}	...
<u>HAWAII</u>						
University of Hawaii (founded in 1919) TOTAL	2,381 ^{k/}	...	4,816 ^{l/}	2,239 ^{l/}	5,340 ^{m/}	...
Graduate division	136
Arts and science	1,243
Applied science	694
Teacher training	308

- ^{1/} Enrolment figures concern the residential college grade students at the respective institutions, regardless of their geographical origin.
- ^{a/} In addition, there was an enrolment of 239 veterans, and 1,377 students in extension classes.
- ^{b/} In addition, there were 62 veterans, 172 students in the 1954 summer session and 850 students in extension classes during the 1954/55 session.
- ^{c/} In addition, there were 335 students in residential non-college grade enrolment and 526 students in extension classes.
- ^{d/} In addition, there was an enrolment of 88 veterans, of 603 students in a ten-week summer session, and 72 students in extension classes.
- ^{e/} In addition, there were 170 veterans and 492 students in the 1954 summer session.
- ^{f/} In addition, there was an enrolment of 5,531 students in a seven-week summer session, 2,752 students in extension and extra-mural classes, and 742 students in evening classes.
- ^{g/} In addition, there were 2,646 veterans, 1,860 college grades extra-mural students and 7,446 students in the 1954 summer session.
- ^{h/} In addition, there were 53 students in the 1954 summer session, and 44 students in extension classes.
- ^{i/} In addition, there were 596 veterans and 1,154 students in the 1954 summer session.
- ^{j/} In addition, there were 203 students in residential adult education classes.
- ^{k/} In addition, there were 581 unclassified students, 1,590 students in a six-week summer session, 3,087 students in extension classes and 1,186 students in correspondence courses.
- ^{l/} In addition, there were 749 veterans, 3,470 students in the 1954 summer session, 251 students in the 1954 post-session, 6,100 students in extension classes and 312 students in correspondence classes.
- ^{m/} There were, in addition, 1,536 students in extension classes.

VII. EDUCATION AND STATUS OF TEACHERS

494. This domain is more than another branch or level of the education system, for it constitutes the process by which the schools are staffed and determines the quality of the entire system. The Committee on Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories at its 1950 session recorded its views in the following terms, which sum up the main criteria for the training of teachers:

(a) The development of the technically and socially conscious teacher is essential to the educational advancement of the Non-Self-Governing Territories.

(b) Teacher-training institutions should be of high quality and directed by those having deep sympathy with and knowledge of indigenous life.

(c) Such training institutions should have a wider aim than the mere inculcation of routines of instructional methods; they should endeavour to produce teachers with a basic knowledge of the purpose of their teaching.

(d) Teacher-training institutions should therefore be in close and fruitful contact with the general life of the communities, with other institutions of higher education and with practising teachers.

(e) Even so, the teaching profession cannot attract candidates of the type required unless more attention is given to the needs of the profession, in terms of condition of service and of the place given to its members in public life.^{72/}

495. Special studies of the training of teachers and the status of teachers were prepared in 1956 and placed before the Committee on Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories.^{73/}

496. The present survey is designed to describe, as far as possible, how far progress has been achieved towards applying the principles set out by the Committee on Information. It begins with an examination of problems which have a bearing

^{72/} Official Records of the General Assembly, Fifth Session, Supplement No. 17, p. 24, para. 78.

^{73/} United Nations, Special Study on Educational Conditions in Non-Self-Governing Territories, New York, 1956, Chapters IV and V.

on policy, then describes systems for training teachers and traces territorial developments since 1946. The relevant statistical data are given in three tables at the end of the section. The survey finally takes up the question of the status of teachers.

A. Problems

497. From the available reports it is apparent that one of the most pressing problems in territories has been the provision and training of teachers for primary schools; the most difficult immediate problem has been to find teachers for secondary schools.

498. The need for a rapidly increased supply of primary teachers is an aspect of the expansion in enrolment traced earlier, an expansion caused by growing public consciousness of the value of education, by official policy to provide schooling for more of the child population, and by the growth of the child population itself. The fact that primary enrolments have risen in some Territories is an indication that the necessary teachers have been found, for it is impossible to expand classes beyond a certain size. However, the problem before education administrators has been that of providing trained teachers to take charge of the new classes, to replace teachers who leave the service for various reasons, and to replace unqualified teachers already in service. The degree of success in meeting this demand may be measured through the pupil-teacher ratio, showing average class size, and the ratio of trained teachers in the total teaching body.

499. The process of training presents various difficulties. A pattern of organization needs to be settled, and the institutions for preparing teachers are very often boarding establishments which are no less expensive to provide than the corresponding secondary schools. The goal in teacher training is to produce teachers who are at least more than two or three years ahead of their pupils in respect of general education and culture. Hence the organizational framework requires flexibility, and there is a certain reluctance to invest funds in a type of institution which may become out-dated fairly soon.

500. Curricular problems are related to the question of finding a balance between general and professional subject-matter. As long as recruits to training centres do not have a solid general education behind them - say complete secondary

schooling - they need to be given something of the background at the same time as learning the elements of teaching skills. The language of instruction presents difficulties in many territories, as it does in all post-primary forms of education.

501. Some specific problems have arisen as a result of the way the school system is organized. Where voluntary agencies or denominational bodies are active in the conduct of primary schools, the need for schools is usually great enough to reduce the risk of competition or duplicated effort. However, these agencies tend also to develop teacher training as part of their school network, and at this point the interests of economy and efficiency demand some form of official co-ordination. In several territories the paradox has occurred of insufficient trained teachers and too many small training centres.

502. The preparation of women teachers is a major need in all areas where the schooling of girls lags behind that of boys. Expansion in this direction meets two obstacles: an inadequate supply of recruits from schools and a high rate of wastage among teachers when they marry and leave the profession.

503. In a general form, wastage in teacher training has been found a problem in territories where secondary education is insufficiently developed. Civil service and other forms of employment compete with the education departments for qualified staff and tend to attract a proportion of young people who have completed their training as teachers.

504. At the level of secondary school teachers, the territorial sources of supply are small, and recruitment abroad or training abroad of students from the territory still remain the principal ways of securing such teachers.

B. Systems of training primary teachers

505. The goal of educational policy in all territories is to reach a system by which primary teachers will have the equivalent of full secondary general education followed by one or more years of professional training. As intermediate steps to this goal, institutions have been created which take students of varying levels of achievement, from completed primary education to lower secondary schooling, and give them courses of various lengths. The resulting pattern is, in some cases, fairly complex. A representative sample of systems for fourteen territories was shown in a table in the Special Study for 1956,^{74/} and may in a slightly revised form be usefully cited here.

^{74/} United Nations, Special Study on Educational Conditions in Non-Self-Governing Territories, New York, 1956, p. 54.

TYPES AND LEVELS OF PRIMARY TEACHER TRAINING IN 14 TERRITORIES

(Full-time institutions only)

Territory	Institution and courses	Length of studies	Standard of admission
AFRICA			
Belgian Congo	1. Ecoles d'apprentissage pédagogique	2 years	4 to 5 years of primary education
	2. Ecoles de moniteurs	3 years plus 1 optional	6 years primary
	3. Sections normales	3 years	3 years secondary (9 grades)
French West Africa	1. Cours normaux	4 years (to become 5)	6 years primary
	2. Ecoles normales	4 years	4 years secondary
Gold Coast	1. Certificate "B" Colleges	2 years	Middle school (10 grades)
	2. Certificate "A" Colleges	2 years	Post-secondary
	Certificate "A" Colleges	4 years (women only)	4 years Middle school (10 grades)
Morocco	1. Ecoles normales régionales	2 years	4 to 6 years of secondary
	2. Ecoles normales	4 years	4 years secondary
Northern Rhodesia	1. T.4 Teacher courses	2 years	Post-upper primary
	2. H.T.C. Teacher courses	2 years	T.4 Certificate plus some years' teaching experience
	3. T.3 Teacher courses	2 years	2 years secondary (9 grades)
	4. T.2 Teacher courses	2 years	Completion of Form IV or School Certificate
Swaziland	1. Lower Primary Certificate courses	2 years	9 years of schooling
	2. Elementary vernacular Certificate courses	2 years	8 years of schooling

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TYPES AND LEVELS OF PRIMARY TEACHER TRAINING IN 14 TERRITORIES (continued)

(Full-time institutions only)

Territory	Institution and courses	Length of studies	Standard of admission
Uganda	1. Teacher-training centres (Primary Grade I)	4 years	6 years of primary (minimum)
Zanzibar	1. Training college	4 years (men)	8 years of primary
	2. Training college	2 years (women)	8 years of primary
SOUTH-EAST ASIA - PACIFIC			
Federation of Malaya	1. Teacher-training college (for Malay schools)	3 years	6 years of primary plus experience
	2. Teacher-training school (for Chinese schools)	3 years	Junior Middle (9 grades)
	3. Senior Normal classes (for Chinese schools)	2 years	Junior Middle (9 grades)
	4. Teacher-training colleges (for English schools)	2 years	Post School Certificate
Hawaii	1. Teachers' College of the University of Hawaii	5 years	High School graduation
Singapore	1. Certificate in Education course (for English schools)	2 years	Post School Certificate
	2. Certificate course (for Chinese schools)	2 years	Post secondary
CARIBBEAN			
British Honduras	1. Teachers' training college	2 years	Post secondary
Jamaica	1. Training colleges	3 years	Third-Year Jamaica Local Examination or higher qualification
Trinidad	1. Training college	2 years	School Certificate Grade II, plus teaching experience, of Teachers' Provisional Certificate

506. In addition, other forms of training are provided in many territories, through the pupil-teacher system, part-time courses, study abroad and so on. A review of different solutions may be given at this point, with reference wherever possible to changing patterns in the past ten years.

507. Courses at different levels. All African territories and many in Asia have evolved a system of full-time institutions at various levels. The three levels distinguished in the Belgian Congo give an education which is roughly of upper primary, lower secondary and upper secondary standard, the intermediate form of the "école de moniteurs" being regarded as the standard type and the "école d'apprentissage pédagogique" a temporary expedient.

508. Territories under French administration have considerably modified the organization of teacher training during the period. In 1946 most establishments were grouped as "higher primary education", and the evolution of secondary schooling since then has led to the adoption of a pattern of training at two levels - approximately upper secondary for the "cours normaux" and secondary merging into higher for the "écoles normales". However, traces of the previous system of training "moniteurs" still remain.

509. In African territories under United Kingdom administration the trend has also been to a simplification in the types of course and an improvement in the quality of training. The original five levels in Northern Rhodesia have been reduced to four. In Kenya and Uganda still more standardization has been achieved, partly by upgrading and improving the older types of vernacular training centres and partly by a policy favouring the establishment of larger colleges in place of separate small centres.

510. The Asian territories under United Kingdom administration have retained systems for training primary teachers at lower secondary and upper secondary level as well as at training colleges which are at higher level. The territories in Borneo have established institutions for the first time since 1946, the Batu Lintang centre (Sarawak, founded 1948) with courses at two levels, lower and upper secondary, and the others at a lower level only. In Fiji, as in the British Caribbean region, teacher training colleges recruit secondary school leavers.

511. In Papua under Australian administration, courses of three types are provided: the lowest, based on primary education, is used only in the mission school systems;

the next, a one-year course after nine years of schooling, was originally introduced as an emergency measure but has become the standard form for administration schools; and third, a one-year course following secondary schooling. In New Guinea under Netherlands administration the course of training, either short or long, is based on the continuation school or lower secondary education.

512. Pupil teacher systems. In varying forms, many territories in Africa and Asia have continued during the period to make use of a type of supervised teaching by young students who are in this way orientated or selected before going to a full-time training centre. The original pupil teacher system may be seen most clearly in United Kingdom Caribbean territories, where it was adopted many years ago as the only form of training possible for small island populations. Recruitment took place directly from elementary school, and the pupil teachers spent a period of years teaching part-time and receiving part-time instruction from the school staff, special classes and through correspondence courses. A series of five or six annual examinations, conducted by local departments of education, led finally to certification and matriculation. Some territories in the Region, such as Barbados, have not adopted the system, and in the rest there is evidence that full-time post-secondary training is replacing the pupil teacher. Thus, in Trinidad, the number of pupil teachers has decreased from 972 in 1949 to 324 in 1951 and 140 in 1955.

513. In-service training. Where training facilities are limited and there is a backlog of untrained teachers, this system has considerable value in raising standards. A variety of programmes are possible. In Malaya and Singapore a fairly complex system of in-service training has been used to provide teachers for the separate schools, English, Malay, Chinese and Indian, which have different languages of instruction. In addition to the full-time institutions which have been developed to prepare teachers for English, Malay and Chinese schools, and in addition to a pupil teacher system in Malay schools, it has been found necessary to recruit unqualified teachers with a primary or lower secondary background. They work during the week and attend weekend classes over a period of two to three years. A similar provision of classes and correspondence courses is reported from territories under Belgian, French and United Kingdom administration which face the same problem.

514. The more general form of in-service training, designed for qualified as well as untrained teachers, consists of refresher courses during vacation periods and the provision of professional reading material and consultant services by the education authorities. Measures of this type have been reported on an increasing scale. An interesting further step, described in the Australian report on Papua for 1956/57, is the organization of educational tours to Australia for senior Papuan teachers as part of an in-service training programme.^{75/}

515. Metropolitan training. Almost all territories send students for teacher training at colleges in the metropolitan countries. Thus, for example, there in the United Kingdom in 1953/54 about 429 students with scholarships from the territories following such courses. Systematic courses for students from territories under French administration have been developed in France. The territory of Malaya has gone further by setting up in the United Kingdom two training colleges of the British type where 600 Malayan teachers, some at supervisory level, are trained for service in the national schools of the Territory.

516. More advanced system. The training colleges and "écoles normales" of a number of British and French territories have progressively developed to the point of giving a post-secondary education. A recently created teacher training centre in the Cook Island under New Zealand administration is at the same level.

517. All territories under United States administration require completion of secondary schooling before students start to train as teachers. The universities are responsible for training in Alaska, Hawaii and Puerto Rico, and Hawaii recruits only teachers who have completed a university degree followed by one year of professional training - the most advanced system, academically, in the Non-Self-Governing Territories.

C. Territorial developments in the supply of primary teachers

518. The available statistics are shown in Tables 32-34. The first two cover British territories, and reflect the size of teaching staffs, by qualification and by sex, the pupil-teacher ratio, enrolments in teacher training courses and, for

^{75/} Commonwealth of Australia, Territory of Papua, Annual Report 1956/57, Canberra, 1957, p. 80.

indicative purposes, the percentage of total population enrolled in primary schools. Since the data from other territories are not reported in the same detail, those territories are grouped in Table 34; as compared with the preceding tables, this lacks information on teachers' qualifications and on enrolments in teacher training establishments. The analysis of developments between 1946 and 1956 will therefore be incomplete.

519. In the summary that follows, two proportions are frequently referred to. The class size, or average number of pupils per teacher, should normally be between thirty and forty; too large a class places a strain on the teacher, and too small a class shows that existing resources are not sufficiently used. The second proportion is that of teachers in training to those in service. In developed school systems it is sometimes said that a ratio of 10 per cent is needed to take care of wastage. For expanding systems, there is probably need for teacher training facilities to take students above the level of 15 per cent of the number of teachers already in service.

520. African Territories (United Kingdom). In general, the expansion of primary schooling has not led to over-large classes. Teachers have been found, and in almost all cases the proportion of trained teachers in the total staff has risen. This is the result of expanding teacher training facilities. The territories vary in respect of women teachers - some record proportionate increases, others decreases. The over-all percentage is not high.

521. In Gambia, the average class size fell from thirty-six to twenty-seven. Teachers in training were about 15 per cent of those serving in 1956, and the percentage of women teachers was 61 per cent.

522. The Gold Coast kept a constant class size around thirty-one. The training of teachers trebled in ten years, until the number of those in training courses was almost a quarter of the teachers in schools. The proportion of trained teachers has risen from 33 per cent to 40 per cent; and similarly, women teachers have increased proportionately from 11 per cent to 18 per cent.

523. Nigeria's pupil-teacher ratio was twenty-five in 1950. Teacher training in the decade increased five-fold. The effects by 1956 are not known, but in 1950 about one-quarter of all teachers were qualified.

524. The Sierra Leone class size stands at about thirty-two; teacher training has expanded so that the number of students amounts to 39 per cent of the total of teachers in service. Qualified teacher now represent 61.5 per cent of the total; women teachers have receded proportionately from 37 per cent to 32 per cent.
525. In Kenya the class size moved from forty to forty-four. The four-fold expansion of teacher training produced an enrolment of students which was about 28 per cent of the number of serving teachers. The over-all proportion of trained teachers improved from 44 per cent to 68 per cent; the percentage of women in 1956 was twenty-one.
526. In Uganda the pupil-teacher ratio increased from twenty-seven to thirty-four. Teacher training grew some two-and-a-half times in the period, and by 1956 about 72 per cent of all primary teachers were qualified. The percentage of women in 1956 was twenty-two.
527. The Somaliland figures for class size seem low: nineteen in 1949 and seventeen in 1956. Teacher training began for the first time during the period. The percentage of women teachers rose from 3.9 per cent to 6.1 per cent. In Zanzibar, the class size remained just under thirty. Teacher training expanded until enrolments in 1956 were 23 per cent of the number of serving teachers. However, the proportion of trained teachers fell during the period, from 81 per cent to 77 per cent, as did the proportion of women teachers from 35 per cent to 32 per cent.
528. In Northern Rhodesia the class size was reduced from forty-eight to forty-two, while the proportion of trained teachers in the schools rose from 65 per cent to 91 per cent. Teacher training enrolments in 1956 stood at 23 per cent of teachers in service. The percentage of women teachers, however, fell from 29 per cent to 13 per cent. The Nyasaland figures show that the class size has moved from thirty to forty-two; trained teachers made up 78 per cent of the teaching body in 1955/56 and the enrolment of training centres amounted to 11 per cent of serving teachers. The proportion of women teachers fell from 10 per cent to 8 per cent.
529. Basutoland has maintained a large class size around fifty. The over-all percentage of trained teachers was 49 per cent in 1946; the amount of teacher training has stayed at 19 per cent of the total teacher strength throughout the

period; and women teachers have become more numerous, moving from 29 per cent to 42 per cent of the total. In Bechuanaland classes have become more manageable, the size having been reduced from 50 to 38. Qualified teachers made up just over half (52 per cent) of the teaching strength in 1956, and women teachers just under half (48 per cent). Teachers in training amounted to only 8 per cent of the teachers in service in that year. In Swaziland class size has changed from 31 to 37, the proportion of qualified teachers was 62 per cent in 1955 and of women teachers, 63 per cent. Teacher training has grown slowly, to enrol 12 per cent as many students as there are serving teachers.

530. Caribbean Territories (United Kingdom). This region has had rapidly growing primary school enrolments, with little formal teacher-training of an institutional type to permit expansion of the school system. The territories have made efforts to replace the pupil-teacher system, with its high rate of wastage, by training colleges; the effect of these measures was not yet clear by 1956.

531. Both the Bahamas and Bermuda record small class sizes around 23 pupils. The Bahamas had 15 per cent of its teachers qualified in 1955/56; teacher training enrolled students who amounted to 5 per cent of the teachers in service, and women made up 53 per cent of the total. Bermuda has not recorded the proportion of qualified teachers; no training institutions existed in 1956; women made up **87 per cent** of the teaching strength.

532. British Guiana has maintained an average class size of around 40. A quarter of the teachers were qualified in 1954/55, when enrolments for teacher training represented 2 per cent of those in service. Women were 53 per cent of the total of teachers. In British Honduras, class size has been reduced from 52 to 44. Some 14 per cent of teachers were qualified in 1948, and training facilities set up then enrolled students in 1956 who amounted to 7 per cent of the teaching service. About 64 per cent of teachers were women.

533. Jamaica has kept a large class size of about 50. The proportion of trained teachers was 44 per cent in 1954, when 80 per cent of all teachers were women. Teacher training enrolments stood at 10 per cent of serving teachers in 1956, an improvement on earlier years.

534. The Trinidad class size has been reduced from 39 to 36. In Government schools in 1955, 40 per cent of teachers were qualified and women made up 48 per cent of the total. Teacher training enrolments represented 6 per cent of the teaching strength.

535. In the Leeward Islands group, class size has remained around 33. The proportion of trained teachers varies between 44 per cent in Antigua and 19 per cent in the Virgins. Women make up about three-quarters of the total, and few teacher training facilities have been established beyond the pupil teacher system.

536. The Windward Islands record a class size around 40. Trained teachers are few, varying from 12 per cent in Dominica to 6 per cent in St. Vincent. One teacher training scheme in Dominica proved short-lived and was abandoned in 1952. A high number of teachers in training reported for St. Vincent in Table 33 is probably composed of pupil teachers. Women make up between 50 per cent and 70 per cent of the total teachers in these four territories.

537. Asian Territories (United Kingdom). This group of territories was characterized by a very rapid growth in primary school enrolments between 1946 and 1956. It seems as if measures to expand teacher training have produced the needed teachers and are likely to improve the proportion of qualified teachers in the future.

538. Malaya has reduced average class size from 36 to 32, and in the period 1949 to 1954, the percentage of trained teachers rose from 33 to 46. Students being trained for the profession represented 13 per cent of the teachers in service in 1947; by 1954, this had been raised to 42 per cent through the combination of measures already referred to. The percentage of women teachers during the same period rose from 25 per cent to 29 per cent.

539. In Singapore the class size has been reduced from 37 to 28. In 1955, 44 per cent of teachers were qualified, and those training to be teachers represented 27 per cent of teachers in service. The proportion of women teachers rose from 43 per cent to 46 per cent.

540. Brunei has reduced class sizes from 32 to 26 during the period; 27 per cent of teachers in 1956 were qualified; women teachers became more numerous, the proportion being from 22 per cent to 33 per cent; and teacher training enrolments amounted to 6 per cent of the teaching strength. For North Borneo, the class

size stands at around 29; 19 per cent of teachers in 1954 were qualified and 31 per cent of teachers were women; enrolments for teacher training were 13 per cent of teachers in service. And in Sarawak, with a class size around 30, some 24 per cent of teachers in 1956 were qualified and 30 per cent of all teachers were women. Teacher training enrolments stood at 8 per cent of teachers in service.

541. Hong Kong has a class size around 25. The proportion of trained teachers fell slightly during the period, from 44 per cent to 43 per cent, although it was 100 per cent in Government schools in 1955/56. The proportion of women teachers has risen from 56 per cent to 59 per cent. The reported teacher training enrolment is low, amounting to 3 per cent of teachers in service in all types of school.

542. Other Territories (United Kingdom). Of the three territories in the Indian Ocean, Aden has a class size around 25. In 1953/54, 45 per cent of all teachers were qualified. The proportion of women teachers has fallen in the period from 39 per cent to 28 per cent. Territorial teacher training facilities are recent. In Mauritius, with a class size around 34, some 77 per cent of teachers were qualified in 1954. Women made up 61 per cent of the total. Teacher training is not expanding as rapidly as teachers in service, and stood at 8 per cent of the latter total in 1956. In Seychelles the class size has stayed around 25; the proportion of trained teachers rose from 24 per cent to 32 per cent, although no training establishment exists in the territory. Women make up the large majority - 90 per cent - of teachers in service.

543. Of the Mediterranean territories, Cyprus has a class size around 43. All teachers in 1955/56 were qualified. The ratio of those in training to classroom teachers stood at 14 per cent in the same year. The percentage of women teachers has risen from 29 per cent to 36 per cent during the period. Gibraltar has a small class size, 22; not all teachers are qualified (30 per cent were in 1956) and the territory has no teacher training establishment. Teachers are mainly women; 85 per cent.

544. Fiji has a class size around 35. In 1956, some 72 per cent of teachers were qualified, but the extent of teacher training has decreased during the decade,

relatively to the size of the teaching body: the proportion in 1956 stood at 10 per cent. The percentage of women teachers has risen from 24 to 34. Few data are available for other territories in the Pacific Ocean. The Gilbert and Ellice Islands appear to have a small class size between 21 and 26; the proportion of trained teachers was low in 1946, when it was 8 per cent; and teacher training has only recently begun within the territory.

545. Both the Falklands and St. Helena have a small pupil-teacher ratio, and the majority of the teachers are women. No territorial facilities exist for training teachers.

546. Australian Administration (Papua). From Table 34, it may be seen that the average class size has fallen during the period from 28 to 27. The percentage of women teachers has risen progressively from 16 per cent to 21 per cent. No figures are available on the number of students training to be teachers.

547. Belgian Administration (Belgian Congo). Here the class size has increased slightly from 26 to 29. In 1946 the proportion of women teachers was low - 3.6 per cent. While no figures for teacher training are shown in Table 34, it is known that a total of 10,659 students were enrolled in establishments of the three different levels in the territory, amounting thus to about 25 per cent of the number of teachers in service.

548. Danish Administration (Greenland). The average class size was small, being around 17.

549. French Administration. Available data are summed up in Table 34. Statistics on teacher training are usually not separated from other secondary and vocational enrolments, and only limited analysis is therefore possible. The average class size has shown a tendency to rise during the period reviewed: in the Comoro Archipelago, from 45 to 50; in French Equatorial Africa, from 42 to 46; in Madagascar, from 52 to 55. Elsewhere it has remained steady within normal proportions. For the latest year, it was 42 in French West Africa; 33 in Morocco; 38 in Somaliland, and 38 in Tunisia.

550. Netherlands Administration (Netherlands New Guinea). Data are not included in Table 34 because none was available for earlier years. The following information may be derived from the report on 1955 presented to the United Nations.^{76/}

^{76/} Netherlands, Ministerie van Overzeese Rijksdelen, Report on Netherlands New Guinea for the year 1955, p. 94.

In primary schools the percentage of unqualified teachers had diminished steadily, from 26.2 per cent in 1952 to 17.2 per cent in 1955. In the latter year, 973 teachers were in service in primary schools of all types, and the enrolment in teacher training courses amounted to 284, or about 29 per cent of the total of teachers.

551. New Zealand Administration. The pupil-teacher ratio is low. As noted earlier, a centre for training teachers has recently been established in the Cook Islands.

552. United States Administration. It will be recalled that certification requirements in these territories are high, and unqualified teachers are not usually recruited in the public school system. During a period of expanding primary school enrolments, the pupil-teacher ratio has been kept fairly constant at 30 in all territories except Puerto Rico, where it has risen from 49 in 1948/49 to 53 in 1952. The proportion of women teachers is also high in most cases; American Samoa being the exception with 30 per cent in 1955/56. No separate figures are available on teachers in training.

D. Training of secondary teachers

553. As a previous section showed, the expansion of secondary education over the past decade was more rapid than that of primary. This was accompanied by a demand for secondary school teachers which most territories have found difficult to meet.

554. The original main method of supply, both for government and for mission schools, was to import university trained teachers from the metropolitan countries. While no specific information on the point is available, territorial reports have referred to difficulties in such recruitment. Two factors are responsible. The expansion of educational services in territories has created a need for supervisory and administrative staff who have also to be sought abroad. Further competition has ensued from the rapid growth of secondary schooling in the metropolitan countries themselves. Among the programmes which have been developed to meet the territorial shortage, mention may be made of the co-operative scheme between Fiji and New Zealand, by which the New Zealand Government seconded 50 teachers for two-year renewable periods.

555. In any case, territories have increasingly sent students abroad to complete their university education and to qualify as secondary school teachers. In the figures on study abroad quoted earlier, it was impossible to separate students of education from others; and even the break-down by fields of study available from some territories is not conclusive, since many future secondary school teachers are listed at the undergraduate level in faculties of arts, science, etc. However, this source of supply has certainly been important, and has contributed to the staffing of the new secondary schools.

556. The only long-term solution to the problem of shortages is to train secondary teachers in territorial universities. Such training has been available in the well-established universities in Alaska, Hawaii, Hong Kong and Puerto Rico, and the need for it has been one of the forces leading to the creation of the new universities. Apart from the provision of the usual university faculties, the new institutions all appear to have accepted responsibility for the professional training of teachers. The results will not be evident for some years to come.

557. In some territories, such as Northern Rhodesia and Uganda, steps have been taken to organize territorial training courses for junior secondary teachers, below university level but above that provided for primary teachers.

E. Status of teachers

558. The question of status reflects strongly upon recruitment. The status of the secondary teacher is not considered here - he has a professional standing through his occupation, but is frequently handicapped by having no professional organization, or one which is numerically and therefore politically weak. Nevertheless, he does not face problems as serious as those before the primary school teacher.

559. The teacher's status is affected by a complex set of factors. Perhaps the most important are material conditions - salaries, pensions, security of tenure. But there are also moral and social factors; for the individual, the dignity of working in so constructive a profession, and socially, the standing of teachers in the community. For either purpose the backing of the teacher by a professional association dealing with technical matters and conditions of service is of significance.

560. In the territories, difficulties have been more apparent in those cases where private schools make up a significant part of the school system. Generally, the status of private school teachers has been lower than that of their colleagues in public schools. During the past decade, however, there has been a steady trend towards the provision of more public funds to the aided schools, and a correspondingly greater degree of government control over the appointment and qualifications of teachers. As a rule grants are based on a formula which takes account of the qualifications of teachers in private schools and assumes a certain salary level. In this respect, the status of private teachers has improved.

561. Official reports from most territories have referred periodically to revisions in the scales of salaries and there have been several cases where machinery has been set up for consultation between the authorities and the teachers on questions of security and service conditions. Some of the main elements may be examined more fully.

562. Recruitment and appointment. Teachers are generally recruited on the basis of a certificate or diploma received during training. With improvement and expansion of teacher training systems, the trend has been to simplify the certification system and reduce the large numbers of different categories of teacher which existed in many territories in 1946. However, few territories even in 1956 had reached the stage of having all their teachers qualified; the remaining posts were filled by a variety of methods, and with a corresponding variety of "temporary" teachers, "recognized" or "licensed" teachers. Such men and women usually had specific grades on official salary scales, but their tenure was not stable. The provision of in-service training courses, with the opportunity to acquire certification, has done much to relieve the situation. In view of the large proportion of unqualified teachers recorded earlier, it may be felt that still greater efforts are needed in this direction.

563. Administrative and professional status. There has been a general tendency to recruit teachers on the basis of increasingly established professional standards. With the fixing of standards employment has been identified with civil service status for grades of similar qualification or with a closely similar set of conditions. While the gulf in status between "government" and "aided" teachers has been closing, the relationship between the teacher and the employing body has been preserved.

564. The following set of elements may illustrate favourable conditions of service for teachers: (a) Salaries comparable with those of civil servants of similar qualifications; (b) Standard contracts; (c) Increments should be available for additional qualifications obtained; (d) Pension schemes or provident funds; (e) Travel allowances for posting; (f) Sick and maternity leave provision; (g) Housing provision in remote areas; (h) Some form of study leave. These conditions, or most of them except (e) and (g), may now be found in most territories.

565. Teachers associations. There has been a considerable development of professional associations during the period. Two forms of grouping occur. In one, all teachers form a single general union, such as the Nigerian Union of Teachers with 24,000 members. In the second, a variety of existing associations are federated; as an example, the Jamaica Union of Teachers was composed in 1952 of 52 associations and 10 federations in affiliation, and was itself affiliated with the Caribbean Union of Teachers and the National Union of Teachers of Great Britain.

566. Most territorial authorities have been aware of the need for and the value of professional associations and have taken steps to set up machinery for consultation with teachers' representatives as soon as properly established unions emerge. The consultation bears both on service conditions and on educational questions. The inclusion of teachers' representatives on local, regional and territorial advisory bodies has also encouraged the organization of associations. Finally, teachers' unions in the metropolitan countries have given direct assistance by training officials for the territorial unions and, when necessary, by pressing their claims for recognition.

F. Concluding note

567. The survey has pointed to a steady expansion of teacher training facilities in most territories which has enabled new schools and classes to be set up to accommodate increasing numbers of young people. On the whole the quality of teacher training has been improved: entrants to courses have a better standard of educational attainment now than in 1946, and the courses are frequently longer in duration. For most territories, there has been an increase in the proportion of qualified teachers in the teaching body.

568. Accompanying this expansion there are also signs that the status of the teacher has improved.

The main points for future policy may perhaps be summed up:

- (a) the value of planning for educational extension is most clearly seen in territories which have focused attention on the increase and improvement of teacher training facilities;
- (b) continued efforts are needed to raise still further the level of training course for primary teachers, until entrants have the equivalent of full secondary education;
- (c) there is still an evident shortage of women teachers in the majority of territories;
- (d) in-service training and the provision of correspondence courses should increasingly be linked to the acquiring of certification and other means of enabling the individual teacher to improve his status;
- (e) the importance of teachers' unions is now generally recognized; as long as the promotion of such associations is not sufficiently wide-spread the practice of consulting teachers' representatives on matters of policy as well as of service conditions is necessary for the development of professional status.

TABLE 32

TEACHING STAFF IN PRIMARY EDUCATION, BY SEX AND QUALIFICATION, IN BRITISH TERRITORIES, BETWEEN 1946 AND 1956^{1/}

Territory	Year	Teaching staff		% trained teachers			
		Total	% Female Teachers	Total	Government Schools	Aided Schools	Unaided Schools
ADEN (Colony)	1946/47	120 ^{a/}	38.9 ^{a/}	...	26.8	21.0	...
	1953/54	278	35.6	44.8	51.0	50.0	12.6
	1956	396 ^{b/}	27.5 ^{b/}
ADEN (Protectorate)	1946/47	107 ^{c/}	6.6 ^{c/}	...	60.3
	1953/54	114 ^{d/}	7.0	38.1	91.2	13.0	...
BAHAMAS	1946/47	471 ^{e/}
	1955/56	670 ^{e/}	53.0 ^{e/}	...	15.5
BAREADOS	1946/47	794
	1948/49	1,009 ^{b/}	55.2 ^{b/}	24.3	26.0 ^{b/}	16.0 ^{b/}	22.1
	1953/54	1,059 ^{b/}	53.4 ^{b/}	...	36.2 ^{b/}	39.6 ^{b/}	...
BASUTOLAND	1946	1,667	29.1	49.1	100.0	48.1	...
	1956	2,191	41.9
BECHUANALAND	1946	431
	1956	655	47.9	52.1	52.1	42.7	...
BERMUDA	1946
	1956	353	87.1
BRITISH GUIANA	1946/47
	1954/55	2,365 ^{b/}	52.0 ^{b/}	...	25.0	16.1	...
	1956	2,548 ^{b/}	53.6 ^{b/}
BRITISH HONDURAS	1948	245 ^{f/}	64.5	14.4	...	15.9	...
	1956	390 ^{f/}	62.6
SOLOMON ISLANDS	1946
	1955	252
BRUNEI	1948	138	22.5
	1956	360	32.8	27.1	39.3	8.9	...
CYPRUS	1946/47	1,375	29.1
	1955/56	1,904	35.5	100.0	100.0	75.0	51.2
FALKLAND ISLANDS	1947	12
	1954	24	62.5
FEDERATION OF MALAYA	1947	13,785	25.2
	1949	16,232	26.3	33.3	45.1	26.6	12.1
	1954	23,416 ^{d/}	29.5 ^{d/}	45.7	48.2	44.9	12.7
FIJI	1948	1,340	23.8
	1956	1,728	33.8	72.0	89.7	72.5	13.9
GAMBIA	1947	110
	1956	204	60.8
GIBRALTAR	1946/47	71 ^{e/}	80.3 ^{e/}
	1956/57	96 ^{e/}	85.4 ^{e/}	...	29.6
GILBERT AND ELLICE	1946	395	33.4	8.4	85.7	...	6.5
	1956	295 ^{k/}	10.2 ^{k/}
GOLD COAST	1949 ^{l/}	8,992	11.3	33.0	68.4	22.5	0.6
	1956 ^{l/}	14,561	18.4	40.3	...	41.3	2.9
HONG KONG	1950/51	4,599	56.1	43.7	95.4	53.4	34.6
	1955/56	8,152	58.8	42.6	100.0	67.4	27.5
JAMAICA	1950	4,242	79.2	45.3	47.0	43.8	...
	1954	4,339	78.9	43.6	44.2	43.9	...
	1956	4,500	81.1
KENYA	1946	5,784	...	44.0	45.7	43.2	...
	1956	11,053	21.0	68.8	61.7	73.3	19.9

/...

TABLE 32 (continued)

Territory	Year	Teaching staff		% trained teachers			
		Total	% Female Teachers	Total	Government Schools	Aided Schools	Unaided Schools
<u>LEeward ISLANDS</u>							
- Antigua	1947	233
	1956	320	70.6	44.0	42.9	...	61.4
- Montserrat	1947	82 ^{b/}
	1956	98	72.4	29.8	28.1	44.0	32.9
- St. Kitts-Nevis-Anguilla	1946	227 ^{e/}
	1956	320 ^{e/}	65.0 ^{e/}
- Virgin Islands	1950	60	76.7	8.2	...	8.2	...
	1955	64	84.4	18.8	...	19.3	...
MAURITIUS	1946/47	1,488
	1954	2,261	61.3	76.6	88.1	85.7	10.2
	1956	2,733	60.3
NIGERIA	1950/51	38,407	15.4	22.7	53.2	24.8	6.3
NORTH BORNEO	1947	532	24.2 ^{m/}
	1954	856 ^{m/}	31.1	19.1	46.5	11.9	...
	1955	969 ^{m/}
<u>NORTHERN RHODESIA</u>							
- African Education	1946, 47	3,548	18.9	64.9	82.1	63.5	...
	1955, 56	4,642	13.4	91.3	93.5	95.5	10.4
- European Education	1946/47	153 ^{b/}	84.3 ^{b/}	73.3 ^{b/}
NYASALAND	1946/47	2,557 ^{e/}	10.2 ^{e/}	81.1	...
	1955/56	5,777	8.3	77.8	81.3	95.2	63.8
ST. HELENA	1947	40	75.0
	1955	42	81.0
SARAWAK	1946	975	29.0
	1956	1,980	29.8	23.8	49.2	18.7	...
SEYCHELLES	1950	199	90.5	23.7	60.7	18.3	34.6 ^{d/}
	1955	208	89.4	31.6	71.9	30.4	...
SIERRA LEONE	1949	819 ^{e/}	37.4 ^{e/}	...	54.7	33.3	...
	1956	1,756	32.3	61.5	93.9	59.6	...
SINGAPORE	1946	1,854 ^{b/r/}	43.0 ^{b/p/}
	1955	7,439 ^{e/}	45.9 ^{e/}	43.8	50.0	41.3	16.8
SOMALILAND	1949	102	3.9 ^{e/}
	1956	98 ^{e/}	6.1 ^{e/}	...	48.6
SWAZILAND	1947	374 ^{b/}	64.7 ^{b/}
	1955	649 ^{b/}	62.9 ^{b/}	61.8	85.3 ^{c/}	65.4 ^{o/}	15.7
TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO	1946	2,418	48.3
	1955	4,273 ^{e/}	48.8 ^{e/}	...	39.0
UGANDA	1947	10,163 ^{b/}
	1956	12,676 ^{e/}	22.3 ^{b/}	72.3	83.3	93.9	2.5
<u>WINDWARD ISLANDS</u>							
- Dominica	1947	114	...	12.0
	1956	304	70.1
- Grenada	1947	441
	1956	490	52.7
- St. Lucia	1946	366
	1953	379	70.2

/...

TABLE 32 (continued)

Territory	Year	Teaching staff		% trained teachers			
		Total	% Female Teachers	Total	Government Schools	Aided Schools	Unaided Schools
<u>WINDWARD ISLANDS</u> (continued)							
- St. Vincent	1946	371	
	1956	424	56.6	5.9 ^{f/}	7.2 ^{f/}	4.5 ^{f/}	
<u>ZANZIBAR AND PEMBA</u>							
	1949	319	35.1	80.6	100.0	45.3	
	1956	550	31.6	77.1 ^{g/}	81.8	65.9	42.9 ^{g/}

l/ Excluding part-time teaching staff, but including pupil teachers unless otherwise stated.

a/ Government and aided schools only; % of female teachers in those schools was 39.1 in 1953 and 29.5 in 1956 (primary and secondary schools).

b/ Primary and secondary schools.

c/ Government schools only in 1946/47. In 1953/54 no female teachers in aided and unaided schools.

d/ No trained teachers.

e/ Government schools only.

f/ Included under aided schools.

g/ Government and aided schools.

h/ Excluding pupil-teachers.

i/ Including teachers of 6,242 pupils in primary vocational and in primary teacher training courses.

j/ Included under unaided schools.

k/ Excluding teaching staff of mission village schools.

l/ Including teachers of middle schools.

m/ Teachers for all levels of education.

n/ Including secondary teachers in schools for European and "Coloured" children.

o/ Figures are slightly underestimated as some secondary teachers without corresponding students are included.

p/ Not including teaching staff for 5,669 pupils in unaided English schools.

q/ Included under government schools.

r/ Pupil teachers seem to be included but it is not known whether part-time pupil teachers are included or not.

s/ Not including teachers and pupils of 4 private schools with 258 pupils.

/...

TABLE 33

PUPIL:TEACHER RATIO IN PRIMARY EDUCATION AND ENROLMENT IN TEACHER TRAINING COURSES; AS COMPARED TO PRIMARY ENROLMENT RATIO IN BRITISH TERRITORIES BETWEEN 1946 AND 1956 1/

Territory	Year	Average number of pupils per teacher in primary education	Enrolment in teacher training courses, TOTAL	Enrolment in primary education as % of total population
ADEN (Colony)	1946/47	26 ^{a/}	-	6.4
	1953/54	26	12	4.9
	1956	25 ^{b/}	31	6.4
ADEN (Protectorate)	1946/47	41 ^{c/}	-	0.7 ^{a/}
	1953/54	24	35	1.2
BAHARAS	1946/47	24 ^{a/}	-	21.6
	1955/56	22 ^{c/}	35	21.0
BARBADOS	1946/47	36 ^{b/}	-	14.0 ^{e/}
	1948/49	35 ^{b/}	32	11.4 ^{e/}
	1953/54	37 ^{b/}	34	11.6 ^{e/}
BASUTOLAND	1946	52	312	15.3 ^{f/}
	1955	51	319	16.4
	1956	50	422	16.0 ^{f/}
BECHUANALAND	1946	50	37	7.2
	1955	33	53	6.5
	1956	38	53	7.6
BERMUDA	1946	22 ^{b/g/}	-	18.4
	1956	24	-	18.8
BRITISH GUANA	1946/47	...	40	17.5 ^{h/}
	1954/55	40 ^{a/}	57	20.5 ^{h/}
	1956 <u>1/</u>	40	57	20.5 ^{h/}
BRITISH HONDURAS	1948	52 ^{j/}	-	20.1
	1955	46 ^{j/}	33	19.7
	1956	44 ^{j/}	29	21.1
SOLOMON ISLANDS	1946	...	-	5.9
	1955	30	-	7.6
BRUNEI	1948	32	- ^{k/}	10.6
	1956	26	21	14.2
CYPRUS	1946/47	44 ^{l/}	136	13.4
	1955/56	42	265	15.2
FAKLAND ISLANDS	1947	25	-	14.9
	1955	16	-	17.3

TABLE 33 (continued)

Territory	Year	Average number of pupils per teacher in primary education	Enrolment in teacher training courses, TOTAL	Enrolment in primary education as % of total population
FEDERATION OF MALAYA	1947	... ^{m/}	1,626	9.2
	1949	36	7,200	11.4
	1954	32	9,907	12.6
FIJI	1948	34	288	17.1
	1956	36	174	17.7
GAMBIA	1954	36	41	1.8
	1955	53	34	1.6
	1956	27	31	2.0
GUERNSEY	1946/47	23	-	8.0
	1956/57	21 ^{c/}	-	9.7
HULLBERT AND HELICE	1946	21	-	23.6
	1956	26	6	18.8
OLD COAST	1946	... ^{n/}	1,165	4.1 ^{n/}
	1949	32 ^{o/}	1,693	...
	1956	31 ^{o/}	3,551	9.5 ^{n/}
HONG KONG	1946/47	... ^{p/}	101	5.2
	1950/51	24 ^{p/}	174	5.8
	1955/56	26	272 ^{q/}	9.1
JAMAICA	1950	50	296	14.9
	1954	51	340	14.6
	1956	52	455	14.8
KENYA	1946	40 ^{r/}	757	4.4
	1956	44	3,121	7.9
<u>NEWWARD ISLANDS</u>				
Antigua	1947	34	-	18.3
	1956	37	20	22.5
Montserrat	1947	41 ^{b/}	-	23.1
	1956	34	-	23.7
St. Kitts-Nevis-Anguilla	1946	34	-	20.6
	1954	30	-	20.5
Virgin Islands	1950	25	-	25.4
	1955	31	-	24.7

TABLE 33 (continued)

Territory	Year	Average number of pupils per teacher in primary education	Enrolment in teacher training courses, TOTAL	Enrolment in primary education as % of total population
MAURITIUS	1946/47	34	157	11.1
	1954	36	184	14.8
	1956	33	224	15.3
NIGERIA	1947	...	2,600	2.6
	1950/51	25	6,318	4.0
	1954/55	...	13,030	5.1
NORTH BORNEO	1947	29	-	4.2
	1954	30	116	6.4
	1955	28	129	6.7
<u>NORTHERN RHODESIA</u>				
- African Education	1946/47	48	663	10.3
	1955/56	42	1,068	9.2
- European Education	1946/47	22 ^{b/}	-	13.8 ^{s/}
	1955/56	25 ^{b/c/}	-	21.0 ^{s/}
NYASALAND	1946/47	30 ^{a/}	464	10.2
	1955/56	42	660	9.6
ST. HELENA	1947	28	-	23.0 ^{s/}
	1955	22	-	25.1 ^{s/}
SARAWAK	1946	30	-	5.8
	1956	31	153	9.9
SEYCHELLES	1947	...	-	11.7
	1948	24 ^{b/}	-	...
	1955	25	-	13.2
SIERRA LEONE	1946	...	198	1.3
	1949	28 ^{a/}	...	1.3
	1956	32	676	2.7
SINGAPORE	1946	37	- ^{t/}	7.4 ^{u/}
	1955	28	1,968	14.5
SOMALILAND	1949	19	-	0.4
	1956	17 ^{c/}	25 ^{v/}	...
SWAZILAND	1947	31 ^{b/}	27	6.1
	1956	37	67	10.5

TABLE 33 (continued)

Territory	Year	Average number of pupils per teacher in primary education	Enrolment in teacher training courses, TOTAL	Enrolment in primary education as % of total population
TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO	1946	39 ^{a/}	157	16.2 ^{w/}
	1955	36 ^{a/b/}	240	20.0
UGANDA	1947	27	1,690	5.4
	1956	34 ^{x/}	3,957	7.1
<u>WINDWARD ISLANDS</u>				
- Dominica	1947	35	-	18.6
	1956	41	-	20.1
- Grenada	1947	43	-	25.8
	1956	38	-	21.3
- St. Lucia	1946	29 ^{c/}	-	15.4 ^{h/}
	1954	41 ^{a/}	-	18.3
- St. Vincent	1946	72 ^{y/}	...	20.4
	1956	42	211	22.8
<u>ANZIBAR AND PEMBA</u>				
ANZIBAR AND PEMBA	1946	...	53	...
	1949	29 ^{z/}	41	3.4
	1956	27	126	5.3

l/ Excluding part-time teaching staff, but including pupil-teachers unless otherwise stated. Enrolment in teacher training courses includes secondary and higher levels.

a/ Pupils and teachers in government and aided schools only.

b/ Including pupils and teachers of secondary education.

c/ Pupils and teachers in government schools only.

d/ Pupils in government or local authority schools only. For the same pupils the ratio in 1953/54 is 0.6 per cent.

e/ In 1946/47 including pupils of the senior schools. In 1948/49 and 1953/54 pupils of the senior schools are included in secondary education.

f/ Including intermediate schools.

g/ Pupils and teachers in aided schools only.

h/ Pupils in government and aided schools only.

i/ Probably 1956/57.

j/ Excluding pupil-teachers.

TABLE 33 (continued)

(Footnotes continued from previous page)

- k/ The Teacher Training College at Brunei was opened in 1956.
l/ Not including teachers of 226 (113 F) pupils in Marnite Schools.
m/ A comparison of pupil:teacher ratio between 1947 and 1956 is possible only by taking all levels of education together. Number of pupils per teacher in:

Year	English Schools	Vocational Schools	Vernacular Schools			Total
			Malayan	Chinese	Indian	
1947	31	19	32	36	31	33
1956	29	41	28	35	27	30

- n/ Excluding enrolment in middle schools. If those are included the enrolment ratio would be 4.4 per cent in 1946 and 12.6 per cent in 1956.
o/ Including pupils and teachers of middle schools.
p/ Not including teachers and pupils in night schools.
q/ In addition there were 2 in-service training courses for higher teachers with 421 (233 F) students.
r/ Including pupils and teachers of secondary education and secondary teacher training.
s/ Primary and secondary education.
t/ There were no full time teachers training College in the Colony in 1946. 145 students took different kinds of refresher classes.
u/ 1947 Population census. Not including pupils in a large number of small schools which had not qualified for registration, with an enrolment probably not less than 10,000 pupils.
v/ The teacher training class at vocational training centre started in 1952.
w/ Pupils in government and aided schools. For the same schools, percentage for 1956 was 18.9.
x/ Including pupils and teachers in junior secondary schools.
y/ Including full-time pupil-teachers, but excluding part-time pupil-teachers.
z/ Not including pupils and teachers of 4 private schools with 258 pupils.

TABLE 34

TEACHING STAFF BY SEX, PUPIL:TEACHER RATIO AND PRIMARY ENROLMENT RATIO IN TERRITORIES UNDER THE ADMINISTRATION OF AUSTRALIA, BELGIUM, DENMARK, FRANCE, NEW ZEALAND AND THE UNITED STATES, BETWEEN 1946 AND 1956 1/

Territory	Year	Teaching staff in primary education	% female teachers	Average number of pupils per teacher in primary education	Enrolment in primary education as % of total population
<u>AUSTRALIA</u>					
- Papua	1949	1,047 ^{b/}	15.6 ^{a/}	38 ^{a/}	12.6
	1955	1,729 ^{a/}	22.2 ^{a/}	28 ^{a/}	10.7
	1956	2,866 ^{a/}	21.4 ^{a/}	27 ^{a/}	...
<u>BELGIUM</u>					
- Belgian Congo ^{b/}	1946/47	33,281	3.6	26	8.2
	1955/56	41,790	...	29	9.8
<u>DENMARK</u>					
- Greenland	1946/47	229 ^{c/}	...	17	17.6
<u>FRANCE</u>					
- Comoro Islands	1948/49	46 ^{d/}	...	45 ^{a/}	13.7
	1955/56	56 ^{d/}	...	50 ^{a/}	16.1
- French Equatorial Africa	1946/47	452 ^{a/e/}	...	42 ^{a/e/}	0.8
	1955/56	3,173	...	46	3.1
- French West Africa	1947/48	2,127 ^{e/}	...	43 ^{e/}	0.8
	1955/56	7,203	...	42	1.6
- Madagascar	1947/48	3,502 ^{a/}	...	52 ^{a/}	4.8
	1955/56	5,587 ^{a/}	...	55 ^{a/}	6.1
- Morocco	1946/47	3,507 ^{e/}	45.6 ^{e/}	30 ^{e/}	1.5
	1953/54	8,221 ^{e/}	39.5 ^{e/}	35 ^{e/}	3.5
- Somaliland	1947/48	37	...	39	2.6
	1955/56	52	...	38	2.9
- Tunisia	1946/47	2,938	...	40	3.6
	1954/55	6,026	...	38	6.3
<u>NEW ZEALAND</u>					
- Cook Islands	1946	135	...	26	23.4
- Niue Island	1956	73	...	15	21.2
- Tokelau Islands	1956	25.0
<u>U.S.A.</u>					
- Alaska	1946/47	277	...	27	7.4
	1955/56	984	79.7	32	14.9
- American Samoa	1946/47	130 ^{e/}	...	31 ^{a/}	23.2
	1955/56	204	29.9	29	29.6
- Guam	1946/47	212 ^{a/e/}	...	36 ^{a/e/}	26.4
	1955/56	322 ^{a/e/}	...	28 ^{a/e/}	21.2
- Hawaii	1946/47	4,243 ^{a/}	80.8 ^{a/}	23 ^{a/}	9.6
	1955/56	4,554 ^{a/f/}	...	27 ^{a/f/}	13.9
- Puerto Rico	1948/49	6,119 ^{e/}	86.1 ^{e/}	49 ^{e/}	14.3
	1951/52	6,929	86.1	53	16.3
- Virgin Islands	1946/47	193	...	29	17.2

1/ Teaching staff includes generally only the personnel engaged directly in teaching activities, exclusive of administrative staff, inspectors, etc.

a/ Pupils and teachers of primary and secondary education.

b/ All the figures include pre-primary, special and adult education.

c/ Including some teachers of different kinds of secondary and adult classes.

d/ Including Koranic teachers, giving a reduced number of courses per week. If we deduct the latter the pupil:teacher ratio would be 79:1 in 1948/49 and 67:1 in 1955/56.

e/ Public schools only.

f/ 1954/55 for public schools and 1955/56 for private schools.

/...

VIII. GROWTH OF FUNDAMENTAL AND ADULT EDUCATION, WITH REFERENCE
PARTICULARLY TO THE ELIMINATION OF ILLITERACY

569. Educational provisions for adults are considered below under two headings: further education and social education. Further education is taken to refer to the provisions made by the regular education system for adults to pursue part-time study for the purpose of either extending studies or completing schooling which has been missed. The second heading, social education, refers to the use of education among adults as part of a general effort to raise social and material standards of living in a community. It has been noted in the Introduction to this Chapter that illiteracy remained one of the major educational problems during the period under review. For this reason special attention is given below to efforts made to reduce illiteracy among the adult population.

570. In its 1956 report the Committee on Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories emphasized that the eradication of illiteracy "must be part of a comprehensive plan co-ordinated with other essential plans for economic and social development, ... should include different treatment according to the particular requirements and interests of the community, and comprise measures designed to prevent those who have been taught from falling back into illiteracy"^{77/} In view of the trend, already noted, towards planning of both a long-range and short-range character and of a comprehensive nature it may be concluded that the majority of territories have attempted to apply this principle during the past ten years.

571. In respect to the specific organization of literacy campaigns, the Committee on Information has also stated that: "Literacy programmes should be widely conceived. They should provide for the progress of students beyond the minimum levels often accepted in the past and should seek the development of functional literacy... As regards mass media, the use of radio, films and television should be developed, although here again carefully controlled research is needed to ascertain where and how these media can best be used."^{78/} While the present

^{77/} United Nations, Official Records of the General Assembly, Eleventh Session, Supplement No. 15 (A/3127), Part II, para. 27.

^{78/} Ibid., para. 29.

section of this survey touches on literacy programmes in general, the question of mass media is reserved for fuller treatment in the next section.

A. Further education

572. At the University level. The development of extra-mural classes and other educational facilities for adults has been a notable feature in the growth of the new territorial universities as well as of the older institutions. These programmes have taken various forms with differing objectives: preparation for public examinations; tutorial classes lasting for at least one term; single lectures; short intensive courses outside the university; short courses in the university during vacations; and credit courses which count towards degree requirements.

573. Some examples of recent programmes may be mentioned.

574. The Institute of Extra-Mural Studies in the University College of the Gold Coast has since its inception directed its main efforts towards the provision of systematic tutorial type classes on the United Kingdom model. The development of the Institute had been materially aided by the secondment of a director from the Delegacy of Extra-Mural Studies, University of Oxford. The extra-mural classes are provided in short courses of 5-9 lectures or longer courses of 10-25 lectures. In 1955-56 a total of 157 such courses were provided in the Territory. The Institute's full-time staff consists of a director, an assistant director and resident tutors in the regions of the Territory. The work of the Institute and the resident tutors is assisted by the People's Educational Association which acts as the main organizing body for the extra-mural classes throughout the Territory besides providing its own varied programme of more informed educational activities. For the tutorial course part-time tutors are employed by the Institute, many of these being either teaching staff or graduates of the University College. In addition to these tutorial classes, the Institute organizes residential short courses within the University College, an Annual Residential School, weekend conferences, one-day schools and public lectures. Syllabuses are issued to regular students of the tutorial classes, designed for study and reference throughout the course. Book-boxes for further study are also supplied to each class from the special extra-mural library of the College. In 1955-56 some 7,074 volumes were thus loaned. A feature of the work of the Institute has been the provision of

special opportunities of study to Members of the Legislative Assembly. One such intensive seminar provided in 1956, for example, had as its theme "Public Affairs" and provided lectures on public finance, economic affairs, constitutional development, public administration and international affairs. The traditional subjects of the extra-mural classes were in the fields of economics, political theory, language, technical development, social institutions, history and local government.

575. During the period work similar to the above was also carried out by the departments of Extra-Mural Studies of University College, Ibadan, Nigeria, by Fourah Bay College, Makerere, and the University College of the West Indies.

576. There were also strong university extension movements in the older established universities of Alaska and Hawaii. In 1955 enrolments in extension and adult education courses were 861 and 1,536 students respectively for the first two territories.^{79/}

577. In relation to these developments the following quotation would seem appropriate: "The fostering of extra-mural studies would in particular do much to guard against a danger, of which we are fully conscious, that the university graduates might become a separate community within a Colony, divorced from the concerns and aspirations of their fellow-citizens ... We should therefore urge that from the earliest stage in their evolution, the university colleges should maintain direct contact with those members of the population whose studies must necessarily be restricted to the leisure left from their other work. We consider that a strong and fully-staffed department of extra-mural studies should be regarded as one of the normal features of a Colonial university."^{80/}

B. Vocational and continuation courses for adults

578. Information on these aspects of adult education is both scanty and patchy and it is not possible to give statistics. Increasing attention to the

^{79/} U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare. Resident, Extension and Adult Education Enrolment in Institutions of Higher Education, Washington, D.C., November, 1955.

^{80/} United Kingdom. Report of the Commission on Higher Education in the Colonies, H.M.S.O., London, 1945. p. 19.

provision of vocational courses and facilities for the completion of schooling by young people and adults was being given by the authorities towards the end of the period. Though increased efforts were possible rapid expansion appears to have been mainly handicapped by shortage of trained teachers.

579. In Hong Kong vocational classes are provided in the Evening Institute. In 1955-56 these included 49 classes in English; 19 classes for a general background course consisting of Chinese, English, civics, arithmetic and general knowledge; and 24 classes of a general practical nature which include instruction in woodwork, housecraft, dress-making, sewing and knitting.

580. In Singapore evening classes are organized by the Education Department at Raffles Institution and at the junior technical school. Courses in commercial subjects, English engineering, mechanics, mathematics, building, plumbing, etc. are offered. All courses train students for the examinations of the City and Guilds of London Institute. In addition the Singapore Council for Adult Education, an independent body organized in association with the University of Malaya, runs evening courses in school buildings lent by the Government. In 1954, 370 such classes with 11,148 students were run mostly for instruction in English.

581. The pattern was similar in Malaya, the two agencies chiefly responsible for adult education classes being the Department of Education and the government-aided adult education associations. Responsibility for Departmental evening classes rests with the Chief Education Officer in each State of the Federation; costs are met from the local education vote, and income from students' fees is paid into general revenue. The Adult Education Association classes are under the immediate control of the eleven state and settlement associations which receive annual grants-in-aid of teaching costs from the Federal Government. The bulk of the classes were in English Language, the rest being in civics, domestic science, trade, technical and commercial subjects. Classes were taught up to School Certificate level.

582. In Sarawak an Adult Education Council was formed in 1954. Its aim is to provide young people who have left school with an opportunity to raise their standard of education to a junior secondary level and be more able to benefit from commercial and technical instruction. The Council receives a grant-in-aid from the Government and runs classes in the evening. Classes in agriculture,

health and domestic subjects are also held at community centres among the Dyak population.

583. Mauritius provides continuation classes at the post-primary and post-secondary levels. The post-primary courses last over 72 weeks, the subjects covered being English, French, mathematics, geography, woodwork or needlework. Post-secondary courses are in commercial subjects, wood-work, art and book-binding. Science extension classes are also run for students reading for the General Certificate of Education (at both the Ordinary and Advanced levels), for pharmacy, medical and science examinations.

584. Besides the non-technical and non-vocational education work of the Department of Extra-Mural Studies of Makerere College, evening classes in a number of centres have been developed in Uganda, particularly from 1954 onwards. These classes are in English language, and in vocational, technical and commercial subjects and are attended by African, Asian and European students. In addition the Kampala Technical Institute offers classes in School Certificate subjects such as history, geography and physics and more senior courses in building, auto-mechanics, other mechanical trades, electrical installation and radio servicing are organized.

585. Correspondence courses in subjects up to the level of matriculation are widely used among young Africans in Nyasaland, students using them to prepare for the South African national examinations. Members of the African Civil Service are encouraged to take such courses to improve their qualifications. An increasing number of Europeans and Indians take correspondence courses in technical subjects in preparation for such examinations as those of the City and Guild of London Institute and the Institute of Costs and Works Accountants, as well as the external examinations of London University.

586. The Adult Education Scheme in Northern Rhodesia comprises academic classes at three levels: up to standard IV; standards V and VI; and standards VII and VIII; external examinations being taken at the end of the last two. A tuition fee is charged but textbooks and materials are provided free by the Department of Education. There are as well technical evening classes in urban trade schools, and women's homecraft classes at all levels which includes the organization of classes in rural areas and the provision of syllabuses for the use of missions, municipalities and mining companies.

587. An intensified vocational training centre for adults and young people was opened at Leopoldville, Belgian Congo, in 1954. The centre provides a nine-month training course for adults between 18 and 35 years of age as masons, roofers, carpenters and joiners. In the Congo the rural school has become a centre for considerable adult education activities of a practical nature relating to crafts, agriculture and home economics.

588. In French Somaliland courses are arranged in primary school premises for adults who wish to acquire an education up to intermediate and primary certificate levels. The subjects taught are French, arithmetic, typing and book-keeping. No fees are charged.

589. Evening classes for adults are held in all the provinces of Madagascar, the subjects taught being mainly of a general, industrial, agricultural and commercial nature. Special mention can be made of the Ecole La Myre de Vilers which gives training to civil servants in the administration of public lands, mines and works and of the Studios of Madagascar Applied Art which through teaching keep alive the traditional arts of weaving, leather, textile and furniture making.

590. Adult education courses are also given in the schools, school libraries and various cultural associations in French West Africa and French Equatorial Africa.

591. In Alaska adult education of a vocational nature is carried on by the Extension Service of the Department of Agriculture through the University, and through the Department of Mines. No formal adult education is carried on with territorial funds. Local school districts and private agencies also carry out limited adult education programmes. In Puerto Rico the Department of Education has run two programmes for the education of adults, extension services (including schools, and summer and evening high schools) mostly in urban and semi-urban areas and a community education programme in rural areas. In Guam adult education is provided in the Guam Vocational School at Gana with courses in accounting, book-keeping, clerk-stenography, drafting, office management, etc. On-the-job training has also been organized to train skilled workers and an agriculture extension service is provided to help farmers, by demonstration, solve problems of plant disease and pest control, livestock medication, animal husbandry and marketing.

592. In Hawaii the Department of Education provides numerous opportunities for adult education; and still further programmes are maintained by the Department of Agriculture and the Extension Division, University of Hawaii. A survey^{81/} of adult evening classes at public schools during the year 1955/60 showed 9,644 students enrolled in 676 classes. The Adult Education Division was strengthened by a law in 1953 to provide education programmes for nearly all adults of the Territory who desired to pursue their education. An added section on naturalization training gave direct authorization for instruction to aliens applying for citizenship. During 1953-54 naturalization classes numbered 110 with an enrolment of 1,868. Fifty-nine adults were also enrolled at the Veterans' School and 21 grammar school diplomas were presented to adult students and 378 high school certificates.

C. Social education and literacy campaigns

593. The outstanding feature of adult education programmes in Non-Self-Governing Territories in this period is the emergence and the application of the concept of comprehensive social education. This concept found its expression in the "mass education" and later "community development" programmes in the United Kingdom Territories, in the "community schools" movement in the United States Territories and the launching of "fundamental education" experiments and later territory-wide programmes in French territories. These programmes are characterized by their approach to a problem where illiteracy, low standards of health, economic and social welfare, and primitive agricultural and manufacturing processes are inseparably linked. The education programmes devised have attempted to attack these conditions on a broad front and simultaneously and have generally been guided by the principle that community participation, self-help and democratic control should match official help in the matter of government funds and technical skills.

594. In the present survey, however, programmes to reduce adult illiteracy are considered as separate and single-purpose activities in view of the importance of this education problem in most of the territories.

81/ Hawaii, Department of Public Instruction, Annual Report, Honolulu, 1956.

595. Previous reports^{82/} submitted to the Committee on Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories have dealt in detail with some of the inherent problems in this field, in particular the language of instruction, methods of teaching to be employed with adults, literacy statistics and the provision of reading materials for new-literates.

596. Measurement of progress. At the outset it should be remarked that no quantitative measure can be given of progress in reducing illiteracy during the 1946-1956 period. Hitherto countries and territories have differed widely in the definitions given to "literacy", both in terms of the skills involved (these range from recognition of words, or signing a name, to the ability to read a passage with understanding or write a letter) and in terms of the age-range in the population for which a literacy rate is reported. With such differing bases of measurement, the comparability between statistics so far reported is very low.

597. The principal means of discovering the literacy status of a population are the complete enumeration by census and the sampling survey. In a census, a question may be asked directly on literacy, or indirectly on the amount of the schooling of an individual. The sampling survey may bear on the same points or may include a standardized test of literacy skills. These various techniques have been little used in the territories, for most of which the available data are derived from a direct literacy question during the census. Despite lack of comparability between territories, such figures would be useful within a single territory if they were known over a period of time. However, census taking is usually a decennial programme, and at best only a single figure is known for most territories during the period 1946-1956.

598. Considerable efforts have been made by the United Nations and UNESCO to secure more uniformity in educational and literacy statistics; these will bear fruit, one hopes when the 1960 cycle of censuses comes round, but are of little help for the present survey.

^{82/} United Nations, Special Study on Educational Conditions in Non-Self-Governing Territories, New York, 1953, Chapter II "Eradication of illiteracy";

United Nations, Special Study on Education Conditions in Non-Self-Governing Territories, New York, 1956, Chapter VII "Eradication of illiteracy, and reading materials for new-literates".

599. At best, therefore, one may examine the status of literacy at some point during the period. Such a list was given in the final column of Table 1 earlier in this survey. The figures have been derived from official sources, either census enumerations or estimates, bearing on a year close to 1950, and applying to the population 15 years old and over. A full survey was published by UNESCO in 1957 under the title World Illiteracy at Mid-Century, and the following extracts may set the situation of Non-Self-Governing Territories in context.

600. In the first place, the adult illiteracy rates, around 1950 for the world as a whole was 43-45 per cent.

601. Of the African territories, the following for 1950 may be quoted: Basutoland (45-50); Belgian Congo (60-65); Madagascar (65-70); Uganda (70-75); Bechuanaland, Gold Coast, Kenya, N. Rhodesia, Swaziland (80-85). The remaining territories had in 1950 a higher rate for illiteracy: Nigeria (85-90); Gambia, Nyasaland, Sierra Leone, Zanzibar, all between 90-95; and French Equatorial Africa, French West Africa, British and French Somaliland (over 95 per cent).

602. All of the Caribbean territories appear to have lower rates of illiteracy, ranging from 3-4 per cent in Bermuda and 5-10 per cent in Barbados to 25-30 per cent for Jamaica and Puerto Rico and 30-35 per cent for the Windward Islands.

603. In the Northern American region, the percentage of illiteracy for Greenland was between 1 and 2 per cent; that for Alaska, 10-15 per cent.

604. Of the territories in Asia, Hong Kong (40-45) and Singapore had the lowest illiteracy rate of the territories in the region; Malaya has 60-65 per cent and the others had higher illiteracy rates: Burma (70-75), Aden Colony (75-80), North Borneo and Sarawak (80-85), Netherlands New Guinea (90-95), and Aden Protectorate (95-99).

605. Many of the island territories in the Pacific have low illiteracy rates: American Samoa (2-5), Cook Islands, Gilbert and Ellice Islands, Hawaii, Niue, between 5 and 10 per cent. In Guam the range is 10-15 per cent, in Fiji 30-35 per cent, but Papua has 80-85 per cent, and in the British Solomon Islands, 90-95 per cent.

606. For the remaining territories illiteracy rates may be recapitulated separately. In the Mediterranean area, the extent of illiteracy was: in Gibraltar, 30-35; Cyprus, 35-40; Tunisia, 80-85; and Morocco, 85-90. In the Indian Ocean, the illiteracy rate was: Mauritius (45-50), Seychelles (60-65), and the Comoro Islands (75-80).

607. In the last place, it is necessary to relate literacy status to the expansion of school education. A simple, if not very precise, measure may be obtained from Table 1, by classifying the 55 territories in four groups according to their illiteracy rates around 1950. If the corresponding rates for school enrolment increases are similarly classified, the following table results:

Illiteracy rates and the expansion of
 schooling in 55 territories

Illiteracy rate around 1950	Expansion of school enrolments between 1946 and 1956			
	Under 149%	150% to 199%	200% to 300%	over 300%
Under 25%	12	4	1	-
25%-49%	6	2	1	-
50%-79%	4	3	4	2
Over 80%	3	3	9	1

This table illustrates roughly that the principal extension of school facilities has occurred in the territories with high rates of illiteracy. However, the scatter is considerable, and some territories with high illiteracy rates have not recorded much advance in school enrolments (the bottom left column); and the reverse situation occurs in a few cases.

608. The problem of reducing and finally liquidating illiteracy resolves itself into the provision of universal primary schooling and as an aid to a more immediate solution in literacy work among the population which is not being, or has not been reached by the school system. On the quantitative side, it appears that the backlog of illiteracy in Non-Self-Governing Territories is still considerable. It remains to consider the immediate measures taken to reduce illiteracy in the adult population.

/...

609. The organization of literacy campaigns: training of teachers. Education authorities in the territories have frequently pointed to the fact that literacy work with adults depends to a great extent on the quality of the teacher. Two possible developments have been explored. The first is to give primary school teachers, during their training period, a thorough insight into the methodology of teaching reading and writing, with additional instruction on how methods need to be adapted when one is dealing with adults. Where school teachers have played a major role in territorial literacy campaigns, special literacy courses have been set up for them, as for example in the Puerto Rican Polytechnic Institute and the Jeanes School in Kenya. In Nyasaland a special teacher-training centre has been set up for literacy work. The second possibility is to use special instructors, including but not limited to, primary school teachers. Thus, in French West Africa an annual training course lasting three months has been established for fundamental education workers. A literacy course lasting several weeks is regularly organized in the Northern Region of Nigeria as part of the literacy campaign.

610. Current information on suitable methods for teaching adults to read and write is summed up in a recent UNESCO survey.^{83/} There is no need here to repeat the findings of the survey, but it may be remarked that adult educators in a number of Non-Self-Governing Territories contributed to the study while it was in progress. The published volume has also been widely distributed in English and French editions to the territories.

611. In the training of teachers and instructors for literacy work with adults, it has been usual to emphasize informal methods. The various audio-visual aids have special value in this context: the blackboard, flannelgraph, posters and charts, projected material and broadcasting. In French West Africa and French Equatorial Africa considerable research and experimentation have been undertaken on a combination of flash-cards, epidiascope and filmstrips as part of the teaching technique.

612. The campaign itself. The appointment of special officers in territorial departments of education to promote literacy work has been a noticeable feature of the years since 1946, and provides an official foundation for continuous

^{83/} William S. Gray, The teaching of reading and writing, UNESCO, 1956.

programmes and campaigns. In general conception, some campaigns have had an inspirational character, and are based on individual teaching methods, with no barrier between pupil and teacher. Here the important element is community feeling strengthened by mutual aid. During the period a number of campaigns of this type have been launched in territories in Africa and Oceania; the total effect cannot be assessed, because the programmes do not attempt or pretend to give rise to any follow-up activities. The second type of conception and organization, which has found greater support in official circles, is the systematic planned programme. This is based on group instruction methods, with an instructor who has more resources than the barely literate pupil who teaches what he has just learnt.

613. Campaigns of the systematic type have been conducted in many territories of Africa, the Caribbean and the South Pacific, and have given rise to a considerable literature. As a rule, the several phases are involved. A supply of necessary materials is a pre-requisite - such as the "literacy kit" developed in the Gold Coast, consisting of a primer, exercise book, pencil and badge. Available teachers have to be organized also, and if necessary preliminary training courses arranged for them. The next stage covers administrative and public relations work, the setting up of local committees to take charge of times and places, lighting and many other details of practical importance; and regional or territorial co-ordination is needed if a campaign spirit is to be developed. The running of courses is then reached. And finally, a programme is required for keeping people reading. In essence, these have been the stages followed by the literacy campaigns of the Gold Coast, and more or less by other territories.

614. Follow-up material. Experience has shown the need for an adequate supply of suitable reading material if the work done during a literacy programme is to have any permanence. Activities in this direction in territories such as Jamaica, Puerto Rico, the Gold Coast, Nigeria, the Belgian Congo and, Northern Rhodesia and, on a regional basis, territories in East Africa and the South Pacific, have been most interesting and have had an influence beyond the immediate borders.

615. The major difficulties may be listed briefly. The reading material has to be of a nature to interest and stimulate adults, and must be written at a variety of levels. Quantity is a vital factor. Publishing firms are generally lacking in the areas concerned, and the economic status of the new reading public does not justify commercial experiments. Questions of language at times impose small editions which are still more uneconomic. And finally, specialized writers are needed.

616. In the face of such problems, a number of possibilities are open. The government may undertake publishing itself; it may give the financial support required for a semi-autonomous producing agency; it may give initial support to an agency which will later become self-supporting; and co-operation between several territories may produce a regional literature bureau. Examples of each solution have occurred during the period.

617. The resulting agencies, in publishing terms, take two forms. One is an official non-publishing body, which selects, edits, subsidizes publication and distribution, and organizes the market with a view to its own final liquidation. The Joint Publications Bureau of Nyasaland and Northern Rhodesia is a case in point. The second form is for a publishing agency to develop with its own imprint and editing services (such as the Vernacular Literature Bureau of the Gold Coast) or even more extensively, to possess its own printing plant and become self-supporting (the Gaskiya Corporation in the Northern Region of Nigeria).

618. In all cases, the problem of distribution appears to have caused concern. With few or no channels for the regular sale or loan of books, new methods have been sought by the educational authorities and the agencies producing reading material. Most often, distribution points have been set up at mission stations and schools, and local traders have been encouraged to carry stocks of books. The Gold Coast and Nigeria have developed a mobile book van service. The East African Literature Bureau in its turn has created a wide-spread library service through book-box libraries.

619. Some conclusions. From the experience acquired in the territories, a need has been felt for controlled experimental work and research on adult literacy work. The programmes themselves should be interpreted widely, as part of a general attack on conditions which are detrimental to welfare and community

progress. The literacy teaching, if it is to be at all effective, must enable the students to acquire skill beyond the bare minimum, so that they can and will continue reading on their own. In the training of literacy teachers, something more than methodology is needed, and their knowledge should be extended to an understanding of the sociological implications of literacy in the community. Finally, experience has pointed to the necessity for planning literacy programmes at all stages.

D. Fundamental education and community development

620. Perhaps the most significant feature of the ten-year period has been the emergence of a wider concept of fundamental education from the over-simplified original idea that the eradication of illiteracy would in itself pave the way for economic, social and political development. While there is nothing new in the ends sought - they are part of the educational and social goals pursued by all competent administrations - there has been a new approach to the techniques and a fresh attempt to establish an organization to plan and direct hitherto unco-ordinated activities.

621. In the African territories under United Kingdom administration, a steady line of progress may be traced since the publication in 1944 of the study Mass Education in African Society. Practices have varied considerably, from the individual development scheme in a restricted area, such as Udi in Eastern Nigeria, to an elaborate territorial programme depending on a government department of community development (as in the Gold Coast) or of social development and welfare (as in some East African territories). Periodical conferences held in the United Kingdom have led to the establishment at London University of a course for experienced workers in the community development field.

622. In African territories under French administration there has been a vigorous extension of, and experimentation in, fundamental education. The programmes which have been set up in French Equatorial Africa, French West Africa and Madagascar have been concerned directly with an educational approach to the problem of development, emphasizing techniques and educational psychology rather than administrative machinery. However, the experimental project method has usually

proved to be of more than local significance, and examples have occurred where single projects have exercised an influence throughout a territory.

623. The territories in other regions, the Caribbean, Asian and Pacific, have also contributed to this movement, although the degree of co-ordination given to separate aspects of the programmes has perhaps been less than in the African territories.

624. It would prolong this survey unduly to give a descriptive summary of the projects which have been set up during the period reviewed. In essence, they have borne on the following points:

- the training of fundamental education workers at centres or by courses;
- the organization of a field service by such workers;
- production of supporting materials for field workers;
- research into techniques and problems;
- evaluation of field work.

These elements may together be considered as the preparation of a community by an analysis of problems, the stimulation of initiative, the development of incentives and the teaching of basic skills, for co-ordinating its own contribution to its social, political and economic progress with the contributions that can be made by the specialized agencies of government, both local and territorial.

625. The results of such programmes, are, as yet, by no means clear. Within the immediate context of this survey of educational conditions, one problem has become obvious - how to reconcile the polarity between educational functions and over-all functions of government. Various serious attempts have been made (within the United Nations as well as in the territories) to establish what is fundamental and adult education, or mass or social education, and what is community development. It may be said that educational services represent a distinct contribution - often the initial one - to long-term programmes for development; and in such programmes, educational techniques are needed by specialists in a wide range of fields.

626. The general situation in the territories over the past ten years may perhaps be described as one of wide experiment and enthusiasm. Techniques of evaluation are only slowly emerging, and the time is ripe for administrative order to be applied to a development which has burst through the structure of traditional administration.

E. Concluding note

627. General and vocational education opportunities for adults have been created by the education authorities and institutions of higher education. Such further education has been found insufficient in areas where there is still a large backlog of adult illiteracy. No quantitative measure can be given of progress in reducing illiteracy rates, but it seems that territories with high rates of illiteracy have been those which have expanded their school systems most rapidly. This is of course, the long-term solution. For a more immediate solution, many territories have organized literacy campaigns and have attempted to provide adults with adequate reading material. The increasing circulation of booklets and periodicals is some evidence that the combined efforts of schools and adult literacy classes are producing an effect. Because of the close relation between education and general social and economic development, and because of the indispensable contributions which education services have made to general development, there has been a considerable advance in fundamental education. Techniques and organizational patterns have been the subject of much experimentation.

IX. AUDIO-VISUAL MEDIA IN EDUCATION

628. The importance of press, film and radio is generally recognized by educational authorities, and under conditions of rapidly expanding school systems with a back-log of adult illiteracy, these media have still greater potentialities. However, they involve also certain problems. The provision of funds for the various purposes of education has been discussed earlier, and the initial costs of some of the mass media have undoubtedly impeded their wider use. Moreover, the effective use of all materials requires the presence of qualified teachers; just as the preparation of materials within the territory depends on the existence of qualified technicians.

629. In education reports from the territories a certain amount of information has been given about programmes for extending the educational use of press, radio and film. This information may be summed up by region, with an emphasis on developments which appear to have been significant. The broader question - of teaching materials and supplies, including the teachers' principal tool, the textbook - will not be dealt with.

A. African region

630. Press for new literates. Illiteracy is high in practically the whole region, and several efforts have been made to follow up the formal teaching of reading and writing through the use of the press as a vehicle for maintaining and improving the newly acquired abilities.

631. In Nigeria immediately after the war, pilot literacy schemes in selected areas were accompanied by projects for reducing adequate reading material. The largest bureau of the type was set up in Northern Nigeria as the Gaskiya Corporation, with its own printing plant and a programme of newspapers and booklets in the main vernacular languages. Parallel with this development, the adult education offices of the Education Department expanded. In 1949 a North Regional Adult Education Office was set up to organize the literacy campaign, and this led in 1954 to the creation of a North Regional Literature Agency. This bureau took over, co-ordinated and expanded the publication of newspapers and periodicals in English and vernaculars, mainly intended for new literates, in close co-operation

with the Gaskiya Corporation.^{84/} In the Gold Coast, a vernacular Literature Bureau was formed in 1950 and published in 1956 two bi-monthly newspapers of eight pages and four more bi-monthlies of smaller format, in the various vernaculars of the Territory. The East African Literature Bureau, established in 1948, is operating, along similar lines, but apparently on a more limited scale. In the Belgian Congo, in 1956, there were some eighty publications specially designed for the native population.

632. Press for children. It seems that Nigeria and Uganda are the only African territories where a special monthly is published by the Government for children. Nigeria's "Children's Own Paper" contains simple, illustrated articles on subjects of interest to children and especially on the ways of life in other countries and of other people. The Nigerian Government succeeded in maintaining the monthly circulation of around 60,000 copies of this paper during the whole period under review. Started in 1954 with a monthly circulation of 5,000, Uganda's "Schools Newsletter" was so popular that in 1955 its circulation was doubled and its format enlarged, while for 1957 a raise to 15,000 copies a month and an increase in size to six printed pages was envisaged.

633. Radio: School broadcasts. While radio in most African territories has made a not inconsiderable progress, school broadcasting has developed but little. In the Gold Coast, Uganda and Zanzibar, there were no school broadcasts and no school receiving sets in 1950 and none in the two latter territories in 1957; in Kenya, there were no broadcasts and receivers in 1950 and no broadcasts in 1957, but the majority of the schools were equipped with sets. In Nigeria, no activity is reported until 1957, when 1/2 hour of school broadcasts per week was being transmitted by one of the four stations (North). Northern Rhodesia reported, in 1950, that B.B.C. transcribed school programmes were broadcast (without indication of time per week) and all the bigger schools were equipped with sets. In 1957, the number of schools with sets was unknown, but some schools listened to B.B.C. transcriptions for 1/2 hour a week. In British Somaliland 5 schools were equipped in 1957. In Sierra Leone, in 1950, 7 secondary schools in Freetown were equipped

^{84/} For details, see UNESCO, Periodicals for New Literates, Reports and Papers on Mass Communication, No. 24, Paris, November 1957.

and experimental broadcasts projected for 1951, which, however, only started in October 1956. In Mauritius, in 1950, 12 secondary schools possessed receiving sets and broadcasts were planned for January 1951; by 1957, 70 primary and 11 secondary schools were equipped with receiving sets and in addition, most of the 57 village council receivers were at the disposal of the other schools; broadcasts took place regularly.

634. No information is available on school broadcasts and on schools equipped with receiving sets in the French and the Belgian territories.

635. Radio: Adult education. During the period under review, qualitatively and quantitatively, programmes with an educational slant have been increasing in most territories, with a particular use of the vernacular. Talks, discussion panels, even plays on agriculture, education, welfare, and similar subjects, women's programmes on hygiene and child care, series of broadcasts on house building, on development projects in the Territory, and on the African continent and on other subjects of interest to Africans have gradually occupied more broadcast time.

636. A still somewhat humble, but certainly not negligible role is played by radio in fighting illiteracy. Several experiments are being carried out, some of them concerned with teaching reading and writing in the vernacular, others in French or English. Of the latter, special mention may be made of the radio literacy campaigns in Tchad (French Equatorial Africa) and Dahomey (French West Africa) where, after having been used successfully in the Cameroons, the "Chicot Meyer" method is applied, and over Radio Dakar (French West Africa), where the "Terisse" method is used. It is not possible within the scope of this report to analyse these methods, but for those who are actively engaged in spreading literacy not only in Africa but all over the world, it seems highly important to follow closely their application and its results.

637. Northern Rhodesia has set an example for improving broadcasts. In 1955 the Central African Broadcasting Station Advisory Committee was set up to advise the Government on the form and the content of programmes broadcast from the station. Members of the Committee are drawn from a cross-section of the public, including both Europeans and Africans, plus representatives of the Federal, Southern Rhodesia and Nyasaland Governments. In some other territories similar steps have been taken or are under consideration.

638. Northern Rhodesia's Central African Broadcasting Station seems also to be leading in publishing "The African Listener", containing the station's programmes, the text of talks and other features used in the programmes and correspondence columns for criticism and explanation. Five thousand, five hundred copies of the paper are sold each month.

639. Cinema: Educational Film Shows. The vastness of the African territories combined with great distances between communities, have largely contributed to the early use of mobile cinemas. In several countries commercial mobile cinemas are in operation, but mobile units for predominantly educational purposes and generally belonging to the Government or government services, tour all territories of the African Region with the exception of British and French Somaliland. In some territories mobile cinema operations are not very active, partly because they only started at the end of the period under review, partly because their use has not been developed, but in others the activities are progressing rapidly. Thus in the Belgian Congo, between 1946 and 1951, the number of shows given by mobile cinemas went up from 238 to 3,880 and the estimated audience from some 4,000 Europeans and some 345,000 Africans to some 25,000 Europeans and some 2,500,000 Africans. By the end of 1949 the Government had in use fifteen specially designed vans. For 1955 and 1956 it is stated that respectively 171 and 180 mobile projectors were in operation. In the Gold Coast, in 1948, 6 cinema vans were in operation, one spare was used for general propaganda and one other in Accra for specialized audiences. In 1949, 7 mobile cinema vans and 3 city cinema units gave together some 1,200 performances. In 1951, 15 vans, of which 5 were city units, gave regular performances, 20 more projectors were on the way as replacements and extras for vans, and the intention was reported of increasing the number of vans to 21. In 1952, 14 mobile cinemas were being used and reached an estimated number of about 1 million people.

640. In Northern Rhodesia, the Government's Information Department brought its mobile cinema units up to 6, (4 vans and 2 boats) in 1947. In 1950, the vans gave 1,152 shows and the barges 1,650. After having been handicapped by shortage of spare parts and staff, the position of the vans eased in 1952 and at the end of that year 6 out of 7 units were working. In 1955, 7 mobile cinema units were

in operation. In 1956 the vans gave some 1,100 shows to a total of some 150,000 Africans and Europeans, these figures being respectively 870 and some 100,000 for 1957.

641. The programmes these vans have been giving consist mainly of news-reels, documentary and educational films and/or feature films and almost always have a partly educational, partly entertainment character. They generally depend on the film libraries which most Governments have installed in their territories and which appear to have continued to add new films to their stocks. As an average example of the growth of a film library, Northern Rhodesia may be cited: 1946, 150 more films acquired; 1947, increase from 540 to 650; 1948, increase from 650 to nearly 1,000; 1949, increase to 1,100; 1950, stock 1,073; 1951, increase to over 1,200; 1953, increase to 1,400; 1955, increase to 1,500 titles. In Northern Rhodesia as well as in the other territories also the number of filmstrips was on the rise all the time.

642. The problem of finding feature films satisfactorily suited to African audiences existed everywhere in the region and, time and again, those feature films which were available had to be left on the shelf. More and more, therefore, the need was felt to produce films locally, and although for various reasons the making of feature films could not be taken into consideration, the production of short films was inaugurated in several territories and forcefully, often successfully, pursued (see below). In this way, Governments succeeded both in establishing the programmes of their mobile units, which made them increasingly attractive and useful, and in feeding commercial cinema circuits, organizations, private projection owners, schools, etc., in the territory and abroad, with cinematographic products of good quality.

643. Mobile cinema vans are generally equipped with public address systems. In addition to being used for introducing the film programme and for giving commentaries in the vernacular and for similar activities, these can be used to provide news bulletins to people who are largely living beyond the reach of the press and radio.

644. Cinema: Film production. African film production in British territories was largely originated by the Colonial Film Unit (CFU), formed in 1940 as part of the Central Office of Information of the United Kingdom Government. Its purpose

was to produce films for, on and in the Colonies and to set up local units for producing and distributing the audio-visual aids required by territorial governments. In its first capacity, the CFU limiting its activities almost entirely to Africa, produced between 65 and 100 reels a year and made, for instance in the year 1948-49, 14 films for educational use in territories, 13 information films about the territories, 15 silent versions of Colonial subjects for use in British schools, 18 films shot on 16 mm. film in Sierra Leone and Gambia, and a number of items for news-reels circulating in the territories. In the same year the CFU supplied 1,620 prints (2,317 reels) of the Unit's films to 38 territories and cameras and filmstocks for 16 mm. production to local cameramen in 9 different territories who made 32 films of local interest. In execution of the second part of its mandate, the CFU has organized a 16 mm. film training scheme for people to be attached to the staffs of Public Relations Departments - for instance, in Kenya and Uganda - and, in 1949, it set up for East Africa a 35 mm. production unit. In 1949, the CFU contributed largely to the reorganization, in the Gold Coast, of the existing 16 mm. production unit into a 35 mm. one, and its work in Nigeria was, when the CFU ceased to operate, continued by the Nigerian Film Unit. A very important initiative of the CFU was the organization of comprehensive training in all aspects of cinema work. The first course was started in Accra (Gold Coast) in 1948 with three students from the Gold Coast and three from Nigeria. In several cases students who had followed the Accra courses successfully were awarded scholarships for further study in the United Kingdom.

645. These and many more activities of the CFU have given excellent results. For instance, in the Gold Coast, some forty films of quality have been produced since 1949. They dealt with a variety of important questions, like child care, education, cocoa, voting, community development, etc. In addition, news-reel type of Gold Coast reviews were regularly produced. The development of film production in several of the other United Kingdom territories followed more or less the same pattern and pictured more or less the same subjects.

646. During the period under review, film production also made headway in the Belgian Congo and in this territory; not only the Government, but also the Catholic Missions were active in making films for Africans. Similarly, Government film production units were created in most of the French territories and they made

a number of interesting films. In several instances the Centre Audio-Visuel de l'Ecole Normale Supérieure de St. Cloud (France) undertook the training of film technicians.

647. Cinema: Audio-visual aids in schools. That local film production in the African region has been taken up so vigorously was caused mainly by the necessity of providing African adults with films which entertain them educationally and educate them entertainingly, but in all stages of planning and execution the use of these films for the African youth has been kept in mind and taken into account. However, this task can only be satisfactorily accomplished if schools are provided with projection equipment and if the films and filmstrips fit into the school curriculum and showings are organized on a regular basis. Several Governments are seriously concerned with the use of audio-visual aids in schools, but still much is to be done before these aids are universally accepted as necessary teaching tools.

648. It seems that in the Belgian Congo the use of audio-visual aids in schools, although only quite recently inaugurated, is rapidly expanding. For 1951, it was reported that all the official schools were provided with 16 mm. sound projectors and that such equipment was also installed in some thirty subsidized schools. Some schools had one show a week, others one a month, and projections lasted usually for forty-five minutes with three or four films given at a time. In 1955 approximately 1,000 films were loaned to 40 schools, and in 1956, 900 shows were given in some 80 schools for about 80,000 children.

649. In other territories progress is slower. The general impression is, however, that some schools are equipped with sound or silent 16 mm. film projectors or filmstrip projectors; that, occasionally, film showings are arranged in schools and that such showings are often given by mobile cinema vans. Locally-produced films are playing an increasingly important role in school programmes and the educational value of filmstrips is being more and more recognized.

650. Cinema: Audio-visual aids in adult education. In addition to the use of the cinema for educational purposes, mentioned above, audio-visual aids have to a limited extent been put at the service of literacy campaigns. It seems that in Nigeria the cinema was used chiefly as an instrument of propaganda for the campaign; in Nyasaland, however, special filmstrips were made with pictures and letters from

a Laubach chart in Chinyanja, drawn and written in concentrated ink on the celluloid. Although the first showings of these filmstrips proved to be quite a success, apparently this experiment has not been pursued, as later reports are silent on the subject.

B. Asia-Pacific region

651. Press. The over-all picture of the Asia-Pacific region is that, educationally, the role of the press is modest. In Territories where the press is little developed, the newspapers and periodicals, often published by the Governments, wholly or partly in the vernacular, have an appreciably educational slant, but they reach only a very small proportion of the population. Thus, the Office of Popular Enlightenment of the Government of the Netherlands-New Guinea, publishes a weekly in Dutch and Malay for the "somewhat more highly educated" Papuans (circulation 1952: 5,000; 1955: 5,500; 1956: 6,500) and, since 1955, a monthly in the same two languages (circulation 2,000) offering to the indigenous public news stories from home and abroad and sections for women and young people, with emphasis on child care, hygiene and better balanced diets.

652. In the more populous and developed territories, when a commercial press of some size exists, the authorities have reported at times on programmes designed specifically for adult education or teachers. Thus in 1949, the Government of Hong Kong issued a daily broadsheet in 1,000 copies, written in the simplest Chinese and appearing in large print and posted on boards erected in public places. No information, however, is available on what happened to this broadsheet in later years. In Hawaii, in 1946, the Department of Public Instruction began to publish the "Hawaii Educational Review", a thirty-six-page magazine, with ten issues a year and a circulation of 6,000, containing educational materials for in-service training programmes for the Department's personnel and information concerning the educational services, the organization and the policies of the Department. The state of emergency which existed in Malaya during part of the period under review led the Government to issue and to distribute widely weeklies in Malay (1953: 50,000 copies); in Tamil (1949: 35,000; 1950: 30,000; 1953: 25,000 copies) and monthlies in Chinese (1950: a paper for squatters and resettlement areas in 30,000 copies; 1953: "Farmers' News" in 47,000 copies and "Struggle News" in

28,000 copies), all containing a considerable quantity of adult educational material.

653. Press for schools. The only information available concerns the New Hebrides, where some school magazines appeared in French, and the Cook Islands, where a school journal, published quarterly in New Zealand in the vernacular and containing valuable literature for students and articles on a wide range of subjects was distributed throughout the Group.

654. Radio: School broadcasts. Singapore and Malaya, whose radio activities are co-ordinated in the Pan-Malayan Department of Broadcasting, have been increasingly engaged in school broadcasting during the period under review. Singapore started with school broadcasts in English, Chinese and Malay in 1946 and Tamil in 1952. In 1948 schools were provided with 4 1/3 hours a week of programmes in English, 2 hours in Malay and 3 1/2 hours in Chinese, while in 1956, 28 programmes for 11 hours 40 minutes a week were given in English, 14 programmes for 4 hours 20 minutes in Malay, 20 programmes for 8 hours 5 minutes in Chinese and 9 programmes for 3 hours 9 minutes in Tamil. While in 1949 40 English, 53 Chinese and 10 Malay schools were equipped with receiving sets, in 1956 such sets were installed in 217 English, 92 Chinese, 32 Malay and 13 Tamil schools. All school programmes, originated in Singapore, were relayed by the stations (Kuala Lumpur, Penang and Malacca) in Malaya. Strangely enough, the third British territory in the region prominent in broadcasting, Hong Kong, had no school broadcasts in 1948 and none in 1956. Fiji had in 1956 two hours of school broadcasts a week. In the same year all secondary schools and many primary schools had receiving sets and it was expected that at the end of 1957 all schools in the territory would be equipped. In the Tokelau schools receiving sets were installed in order to catch the daily educational programmes of the Department of Education of Western Samoa. There is no information which would indicate that school broadcasts existed in American Samoa, Borneo, British Solomon Islands (1 school equipped), Brunei, Cook and Niue Islands, Gilbert and Ellice Islands (5 schools equipped), Guam, Hawaii, Netherlands New Guinea, New Hebrides, Sarawak (to be started in 1958) and Seychelles.

655. Radio: Adult Education. Several territories had regular programmes for the young, for women (dealing with subjects ranging from household hints to care of infants), for rural audiences (on the improvement of village economy, the use of

manure, tilling of the soil, how to rear chickens and grow vegetables and similar subjects) for workers' organizations, etc. Radio also played a considerable role in teaching languages: English to Chinese, Malay and Indian people; Malay to Chinese and Chinese to Malays; Mandarin Chinese to Cantonese, Amoy and other Chinese, etc. Finally in those territories where group-listening around community sets is stimulated, special programmes have often been broadcast.

656. An interesting experiment in literacy teaching by radio was carried out in Malaya. About half the adult Malays being illiterate, a series of seventy-five lessons, each half an hour long, for teaching romanized Malay by the Laubach method and based on an already existing, excellently produced manual, was carefully prepared. The scheme started in September 1954 with three lessons a week, each lesson being repeated the following day for the benefit of anyone who had missed the first transmission. Unfortunately the experiment did not meet with success. Of the 109 groups established on the eve of the experiment, only 65 made reports at the end of the first week, and at the end of the thirteenth week only 14 groups were still functioning. The main reason for this failure seems to be the hour of broadcasting: 4.30 p.m., an inappropriate time during the planting and harvesting seasons. Plans for revising the manual so that the ground could be covered in 45 lessons instead of 75 were taken into consideration. In view of the apparent readiness of many listeners to attend six days a week, the whole course could be given in eight weeks which would enable the broadcasts to be squeezed in between seasons. No information is available on whether these plans have been put into practice and, if so, with what results.

657. Cinema: Educational Film Shows. It seems that during the period under review in all territories of the region films, filmstrips and other audio-visual aids have been used for educational purposes, although for some of the territories (such as the New Hebrides) no pertinent information is available. In a few others, audio-visual services are still scarce and are limited to more or less regular film shows, often in the open air, with generally a mixed programme of entertainment and information, considered as a means of providing general knowledge. In Borneo, for example, the Information Service cinema unit had a regular circuit in and around the capital and gave, in 1953, 194 shows attended by some 65,000 people, while the Education Department organized shows with its

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two 16 mm. film projectors and twenty-two filmstrip projectors. The Information Service film unit in Brunei reached in 1955 approximately 90,000 people during 540 showings. During 1954 four mobile cinema units operated by the Government of Sarawak gave 533 shows to an audience of about 260,000 people.

658. The number of mobile projection units of the Office for Popular Enlightenment of the Government of Netherlands New Guinea increased from four in 1952 to twenty in 1955. On Fiji during the first post-war years, with three 16 mm. projectors and a fully equipped cinema van, a great number of showings were given even on remote islands to people who had never previously seen moving pictures. It was discovered, however, that it was impossible to cover the whole of the archipelago adequately by carrying projectors and generators from a central base and it was realized that the number of 16 mm. projectors had to be increased and that as far as possible they had to be stationed at fixed points, drawing their films from a central library. During 1947 and 1948 a number of projectors were imported; in 1949 twenty-four of such projectors were in use for non-commercial screenings.

659. No audio-visual adult education took place on American Samoa during the first part of the period under review but a quite ambitious programme of group viewing and training of discussion leaders was launched in 1954.

660. Hawaii possessed a vocational film library which in 1947/48 distributed its films to twenty-seven schools and organizations for 585 shows attended by 34,890 people.

661. In Malaya, during the period under review a large informational programme was developed by the Government and carried out by the Government's mobile cinema and public address units. The number of these units increased from 16 to 63 in 1951, to 90 in 1953 and 92 in 1955. In 1949, the units reached each month some 200,000 people, which figure increased to more than 1,000,000 each month in 1953. Keeping abreast of the execution of this programme, the services of the Federal Film Library were expanded. The number of film prints in stock rose from 400 in 1947 to some 3,000 in 1951 and to 7,000 in 1955. A contribution to this increase was made by the Malayan Film Unit. In 1955, 31,823 16 mm. prints, an increase of 30 per cent over the previous year's figure, were loaned by the Federal Film Library to mobile units, schools, estates and mines, police and military establishments, clubs and associations.

662. Cinema: Audio-visual aids in schools. In Malaya, for 1948 it was reported that 369 films from the Federal Film Library had been shown to some 28,000 children. Also in 1949, 18 English and 2 Chinese schools had sound film projectors, 6 other English schools had silent film projectors and 47 schools were equipped with filmstrip projectors. Notwithstanding the lack of precise data for later years, it can be assumed that the increasingly important local production of films and filmstrips by the Malayan Film Unit has substantially contributed to an expansion of the use of audio-visual aids in schools.

663. Information for Singapore is scarce. In 1948 in two schools sound film projectors were installed and a number of schools were equipped with filmstrip projectors. In 1951 five film projectors and one filmstrip projector were issued to schools. The Department of Education had a filmstrip library and some schools had such libraries of their own.

664. In Hawaii a vocational film library existed, serving schools as well as organizations. Films on health education subjects were shown to some 140,000 school children in 1946 and 1947.

665. In all other territories, judging from the information available, school use of audio-visual aids is non-existent or little developed.

666. Cinema: Film production. The Malayan Film Unit, established towards the end of the war, made films and filmstrips designed to be of educational value in agriculture, in industry, in homes and schools, in the university and colleges, in the co-operatives, the trade unions, women's groups and youth organizations. Its production went up from 19 films during the period 1947-49, to 52 in 1950, 111 in 1951, 93 (145 reels) in 1953, 59 (214 reels) in 1954 and 74 (254 reels) in 1955, while nearly all films were made in several language versions. The 35 mm. prints of these films were extensively shown in Malayan cinemas (in 1955 more than 6,000 prints), while the Department of Information's 92 mobile units were the principal users of the 16 mm. prints. The personnel of the Malayan Unit (some 135 in 1953) is almost exclusively Malayan. Training was mostly done on the job which, due to the fact that technicians were generally over-burdened with work and could not find sufficient time for special instruction courses, was not entirely satisfactory. In 1953 some experienced film-makers from abroad were brought in for short periods as "guests". They produced a number of outstanding

films and substantially improved the professional standard of the Unit's technicians. However, this training provision could not be continued as no funds could be made available for bringing more guest directors to the unit.

C. Caribbean region

667. Press. Only in a few cases is information available on the use of the press for education. Naturally, the dozens of newspapers and periodicals published in the Caribbean territories contain articles with a straightforward educational character, but few publications are exclusively educational and intended specifically for schools or for either the adult population as a whole or certain groups of that population.

668. Of publications for schools, mention can be made of the school broadcast leaflet, "Learning by Radio", which the Government of British Guiana distributes to all primary and secondary schools in the territory. Its circulation went up from 110,000 copies in 1954 to more than 225,000 copies in 1956. "The British Guiana Bulletin" can be largely considered as an adult education publication. It emphasizes better presentation of information and more efficient distribution, particularly in rural areas. The paper remains sensitive to the main trends of economic development and to the gathering momentum of the development programme in rural communities, where residents responded to the stimulant of opportunities for obtaining credit facilities for housing and increased agricultural production.

669. On Trinidad, a paper, "Community Education", is published every two months, each issue having 5,000 copies. This paper is extensively used in education extension work with more than 1,300 groups with a total membership of more than 45,000 members (1956/57).

670. Radio: School Broadcasts. Not many territories in the Caribbean are transmitting school broadcasts. During 1957 there were no school broadcasts and no receivers in schools in the Bahamas, Barbados, Bermuda, and Trinidad. There were no regular school broadcasts in British Honduras, but 20 schools equipped with receivers (1957), none and 2 for Antigua, 45 minutes and 8 for Montserrat, twice weekly and none in Grenada (1957). On Jamaica two twenty-minute programmes are given every day during term, while 58 schools have rediffusion sets installed in them by the Jamaica Broadcasting Company Limited under the terms of its licence.

The most developed territory in this respect is British Guiana, where, in 1957, 1 1/2 hours of school broadcasts per week took place and 220 primary and five secondary and private schools were equipped with receiving sets.

671. School broadcasts, generally, cover a wide educational field; for instance, music, geography and travel, nature, general science, history, English. On Jamaica, seven-tenths and in British Guiana four-fifths of these school programmes are produced locally, the remaining time consisting of transcriptions from the British Broadcasting Corporation (Colonial School Transcriptions) and the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation. On Puerto Rico the Department of Education's station in 1951 devoted one-quarter of its total weekly broadcasts to educational programmes, some of which were meant for elementary, junior and senior high schools. In addition several private stations provided broadcasts fitting into the curricula of the Puerto Rican schools.

672. In general, school broadcasts are planned well ahead and schools are supplied with schedules as well as with teachers' guides and manuals.

673. Cinema: Educational Film shows. Although in some territories there is evidence of commercial 16 mm showings, most 16 mm film operations are done by the Governments of the Territories, by their information or public relations services or by their Departments of Agriculture, Health, or others. These shows are given with projection equipment, permanently installed in schools, in community halls or elsewhere or by mobile installations. Efforts are made to arrange such shows regularly, but lack of funds, of suitable films and of other prerequisites sometimes prevent this.

674. Cinema: Audio-visual aids in schools. All the Caribbean territories organize, in one way or another, audio-visual aids for their schools. The main handicaps are the lack of suitable films and filmstrips and the lack of knowledge on how to adapt foreign-made audio-visual aids to local conditions.

Notwithstanding the help the British territories received from the Central Office of Information, London, and from the British Council, audio-visual operations in schools can be considered as being still in their infancy. In a territory like British Guiana, which took such a lead in school broadcasts, audio-visual aids were (in 1950) on an appreciable scale in schools; there were only 8 film projectors in the whole of the territory, of which 2 were permanently installed in schools. In the same year, there were 6 filmstrip projectors in the territory,

which meant that most schools were deprived of them. On Jamaica school shows have been organized on a regular basis during most of the period under review, but the figures available on attendance seem to indicate that there has been little expansion in the use of audio-visual materials.

675. In Puerto Rico school shows of films made the biggest headway. In 1951 the proportion of schools of each type making use of films was: rural elementary schools 20 per cent, urban elementary schools 55 per cent, rural secondary schools 40 per cent, urban junior high schools 70 per cent, urban senior high schools 100 per cent, vocational schools 100 per cent.

676. Cinema: Audio-visual aids in adult education. In the Caribbean region more was done in bringing films and filmstrips to the general public than to schools. During the whole period in most territories both the number of projectors and the audiences have increased.

677. The most consistent and extensive effort in audio-visual adult education was made in Puerto Rico. According to the 1950 figures, the Division of Community Development of the Ministry of Education had a vast exhibition organization, consisting of some 40 mobile units with the necessary staff and equipment as well as a further 12 portable generators, which, with the required projection apparatus, is carried on horseback to those places which the vans cannot reach. The Division gave between 5,000 and 6,000 free shows annually in rural communities (estimated attendance 2,000,000 people) and presented its films also to urban audiences in some of the small towns, film shows in the cities being given by the audio-visual section of the same Ministry.

678. Cinema: Film libraries. During the period the creation and expansion of 35 mm and 16 mm film libraries was continuous. It has already been mentioned that the United Kingdom territories had a substantial help from the Central Office of Information and from the British Council. The film library of the Jamaican Education Department was expanding systematically: 1950: 800 films and 200 filmstrips; 1951: 900 films and 419 filmstrips; 1952: 895 films and 1,250 filmstrips. In 1956 the library added another 90 films and 30 filmstrips to its stock. In Puerto Rico the film library of the Audio-Visual Section of the Education Department in 1951 had at the territory's disposal 3,560 film titles of which 3,158 were with a sound track in English and 380 with a sound track in Spanish.

679. Cinema: Film production. As everywhere else, educators in the Caribbean region were faced with the fact that foreign produced films do not always satisfactorily attune to prevailing local conditions. They lacked, moreover, the ability to adapt these audio-visual aids in such a way that, notwithstanding differences in setting and treatment, they were palatable to the inhabitants of the Caribbean territories. Mainly for these reasons, it seems, local production of films and filmstrips were called for and promoted.

680. In the years both during and after the war the Colonial Film Unit, London, has done excellent work in producing educational films in British territories and, especially, in training local talent to make their own audio-visual aids. Under its impetus a film training course was organized in Jamaica in 1950, with the purpose of teaching the people from the region not only how to produce these aids but also how to use them to the maximum of their potentialities. This course trained a number of students from several territories who embarked on a programme of film, filmstrip, slide and still photograph production. These productions received a favourable response as they proved to be of educational value both for children and for adults.

681. Cinema: Professional training. In 1955 with the collaboration of UNESCO the Visual Education Centre at Gosham was launched with the aim of investigating the practical possibilities of establishing branch units in rural areas, which proved to work out well and were later extended.

682. Audio-visual training was provided also outside the region. In some cases the British Council awarded scholarships in visual education, as for instance, to a teacher in British Honduras who, in 1948, went to University College, Exeter, England, for one year. Other inhabitants of the region studied at American universities or with the Canadian Film Board.

D. Mediterranean region

683. Press. No information on the use of the press for educational purposes is available.

684. Radio: School Broadcasts. During the period under review no system of school broadcasting seems to have existed in Morocco, Tunisia or Gibraltar. In Cyprus, in 1956, three days a week, for one half hour, special educational

broadcasts were given during non-school hours, probably because most schools are not equipped with receiving sets.

685. Radio: Adult Education. In the Arabic programme of Radio Morocco lessons in French were given to enable Moroccans to follow the French broadcasts and efforts were made to acquaint listeners with classical Arabic. On the French network courses in Arabic were transmitted. In Tunisia the radio undertook broadcasts of commentated news in dialect Arabic, and transmitted broadcasts on literary Arabic, elementary hygiene and medical subjects.

686. Cinema: Educational film shows. The Governments of all Mediterranean territories, except that of Gibraltar, had mobile projection units which were used for film shows with a predominantly educational character, mainly in rural areas. In Cyprus, for instance, the Public Information Office had one cinema van in 1947, 2 in 1948, and 3 in 1956. These vans gave shows in schools during the daytime, and for adults, in the evenings. They reached over 100,000 people in 1948, 45,000 in 1949 and 70,000 in 1955. Normally, the programmes consisted of British news-reels - which the Public Information Office also distributed to all the big cinemas - and documentary films. In Morocco, the Directorate for Information had in 1953 three vans on the road and a fourth under construction, while in the same year the Directorate for Public Health covered the whole of Morocco with its van. The Information Mobile Cinema showed educational films, many of which were locally produced, in schools and to the general public, in 1953 totalling some 1.5 million people. The health van gave an average of 200 shows a year for some 250,000 people. In Tunisia the use of films for educational purposes was less developed. In 1952 a mobile projection unit was ready to take part in the fundamental education campaign. No information is available on the results of this participation.

687. Cinema: Film production. In Morocco the Moroccan Cinematographic Centre of the Government sponsored the production of some sixty documentary and informational films partly alone and partly in co-operation with other government departments, or with Moroccan and French companies. Most of these films had a general educational character and depicted various aspects of Moroccan life, its cities and scenery, its arts and crafts, its dances and the latest accomplishments in technical and other fields. Elementary films on hygiene, agriculture,

reafforestation, diseases, etc. were also made. These films were shown in the country itself, especially by the mobile cinema vans of the Directorates for Information and Public Health, as well as abroad.

688. In Tunisia film production started apparently in the early fifties. Originally the films - sponsored by the Directorate for Education in collaboration with the Directorates for Agriculture and for Public Health - were made for use in fundamental education but gradually films of a far more general and informational character were also produced.

689. Production in Cyprus was limited to a few short films and documentaries for the Public Information Service.

690. Cinema: Audio-visual aids in schools. No information is available of any serious attempt to make use of audio-visual aids purposefully in schools. As mentioned before in Morocco and in Cyprus films and filmstrips were shown in schools but often on the basis of the itinerary of the mobile cinema vans and not of the schools' curriculum. However, more and more schools acquired their own projection equipment. In Morocco, in 1952, there were 82 film projectors and 270 filmstrip projectors used in education, and the film library of the Directorate for Education which supplied schools with audio-visual aids possessed some 400 film titles and an unknown number of filmstrips in 1954. In Tunisia the number of film projectors in the service of education increased from 64 in 1950 to 84 in 1951. In 1952 the five secondary schools in Gibraltar shared 4 film projectors and 10 filmstrip projectors, obtaining their audio-visual aids from the well-stocked film library of the Gibraltar Institute which, moreover, placed its hall and projector at the disposal of schools for organized weekly film shows.

691. Apart from being used in schools, the films of the film library of the Moroccan Directorate for Education were also made available to the Association Cinema and Youth created jointly by the Sections for Youth and for Cinema of the Directorate for Education: in 1953/54 more than 115,000 children were reached in this way.

692. Cinema: Professional training. The Colonial Film Unit established a film training school in Cyprus. Courses were given in film and filmstrip making, attended by several people in Cyprus in charge of audio-visual activities, as well as by their colleagues from other British Territories in Africa and Asia.

E. Other Territories

693. Press. No information is available on the publication of educational newspapers and periodicals in any of the territories.

694. Radio. Experiments in school broadcasting on the Falkland Islands during 1947 and 1948 had to be discontinued as too small a proportion of the children were reached and because of technical difficulties both of transmission and reception. Although experiments were resumed in 1951-52 and again in 1954, no evidence is available as to whether the experiments were continued and with what success.

695. The Standard Oil Company of California made available to Alaska schools the "Standard School Broadcast" programmes which were released during school hours whenever possible.

696. During the long winter in Greenland the radio station broadcast lessons in Danish for adults and children. The Danish National Broadcasting Service experimentally made direct cultural short-wave broadcasts to Greenland in 1952 and 1953. During the summer reception was good and an estimated 80 per cent of set owners tuned in on these broadcasts, but during the winter season results were poor due to atmospherics and interference on the part of neighbouring stations.

697. Cinema. In Aden, the Information and Press Service gave some 150 film shows yearly in schools, while the Education Department as well as the USA consulate were also active in organizing school screenings. In Alaska all city school systems in 1951 used films and were generally equipped with a silent film projector, a filmstrip projector and their own library of standard educational films. It can be assumed that later on silent film projectors were replaced by sound projectors and also that the use of films in rural areas - in 1951 reported as being hampered by lack of electricity - has developed appreciably in recent years. For the other territories in the region no information is available.

698. In all territories efforts were made to organize film shows with an educational slant for the general public. In Aden, the Information and Press Service was engaged in this work and put up some 150 screenings of British news-reels and documentaries yearly. In St. Helena the Information Office owned a mobile projection unit with which it gave regular programmes of news-reels, documentaries

and general interest films all over the island, reaching some 1,000 people each month out of a total population of 5,000. In Greenland, in each of the seasons of 1950/1951 and 1951/1952 fifty Danish short films were in circulation and in 1952/1953 more than eighty. In addition a certain number of educational American and Canadian films were shown.
