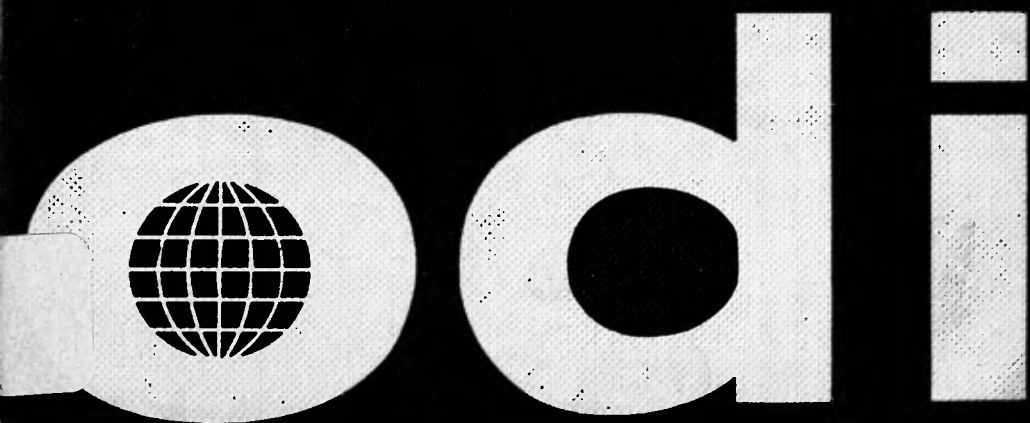


Lib.

British Aid-4 Technical Assistance

by Peter Williams

7s 6d *Overseas Development Institute*



Technical Assistance

In recent years technical assistance expenditure has accounted for about a sixth of all British Government aid to developing countries, and the annual budget of the responsible Government Department – the Department of Technical Co-operation – is now £36m a year. The British Government programme finances, in whole or in part, over 14,000 British technical assistance personnel serving in developing countries and nearly 3,000 overseas students and trainees in Britain each year.

Who are the main beneficiaries of this aid, and on what terms and conditions is it given? What are Britain's priorities in this field? Where do schemes like the overseas voluntary service programmes or the Colombo Plan fit into the overall pattern? What contributions does Britain make to United Nations technical assistance?

All these matters receive comprehensive treatment in this study. After analysing the historical evolution of the British technical assistance programme, it describes present-day organisation and policy.

The **Second Edition** includes a note on the Overseas Development Ministry.

In a final chapter, the author makes suggestions about the ways in which he thinks the programme could be improved. He proposes a complete overhaul of the system of British liaison arrangements with developing countries to discover their technical assistance requirements. To offset the rapid decline in numbers of British technical assistance personnel – the number fell by as much as one-sixth in 1963 – he closely argues the case for re-examining the possibility of an overseas career service in selected fields. He would like to see a more imaginative policy on research help to developing countries and a unified administration of technical assistance and capital aid.

This study, which includes much previously unpublished material, is part of the ODI's factual survey of British aid (for full details see back inside cover) financed by the Nuffield Foundation. The author is Peter Williams, a member of the Institute's research staff.

00020905



Overseas Development Institute

British Aid – 4

Technical Assistance

a factual survey of Britain's aid to overseas
development through technical assistance

Second Edition

published by

The Overseas Development Institute Ltd
160 Piccadilly London W1
England

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1964

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Foreword

In the years since the war there has been a growing awareness of the problems of Overseas Development. This means the economic growth and greater use of the resources of the poorer countries of the world. Many of these countries have recently gained political independence and are determined to improve the economic lot of their people. Most of the richer countries in the world (including parts of the Soviet bloc) have recognised their obligation to help, and their interest in the success of plans for developing these countries. The unanimous decision of the United Nations General Assembly to proclaim the 1960s as 'the Decade of Development' was a public recognition of the mutual world interest.

For Britain with its old imperial and new Commonwealth ties, the problem was largely one of how to adapt existing methods to the new needs. For America too, with its successful experience in 're-developing' Europe through the Marshall Plan, the question was how to adapt those techniques to the much larger task of developing nations with little or no background of industrialisation or agricultural investment.

When Dean Rusk became Secretary of State in 1961, he suggested that the British and American governments should ask two non-governmental groups to study the changing needs of the newly independent countries, and the differing methods of the richer countries in trying to meet those needs. In America the Brookings Institution was assigned the task, and in Britain the Government asked the Overseas Development Institute – which had just been founded to provide a centre for work on development problems – to make its own surveys. Full collaboration by Government departments was promised, and we gratefully record that it is forthcoming; British firms, which help to finance the ODI, are also giving full co-operation.

The ODI studies – which started in the summer of 1962 and are financed by a three-year grant from the Nuffield Foundation – begin with a preliminary survey of British Aid for development. A series of papers was produced and discussed at a conference attended by British and American experts in this field.

These papers, revised in the light of discussion and the latest developments in the aid programme, are being published as a factual survey of British aid to developing countries – including contributions from non-government bodies such as commercial firms, universities and voluntary organisations.

The published papers are prefaced by a comment paper designed to underline some of the implications of the factual survey and to point to some of the questions that need answering. The factual analysis itself covers six somewhat arbitrarily defined areas: Government financial aid; educational assistance; technical assistance; colonial background history; agricultural aid; and the private sector.

This survey, **Technical Assistance**, describes the role of the British Government and other British public bodies in providing technical assistance for developing countries. It was prepared in the Institute by Peter Williams.

Preface to Second Edition

The first edition of this pamphlet was published in September 1964, just one month before the General Election at which a Labour Government was returned to power. The new administration immediately announced plans to set up a **Ministry of Overseas Development** to assume various of the functions in the overseas aid field previously performed by the Department of Technical Co-operation, Foreign Office, Commonwealth Relations Office, Colonial Office, Department of Education and Science, and Ministry of Agriculture. Barbara Castle, M.P., was appointed Minister of Overseas Development with a seat in the Cabinet. A. E. Oram, M.P., was appointed Parliamentary Secretary. Sir Andrew Cohen, formerly Director-General of the Department of Technical Co-operation, was appointed Permanent Secretary.

The Department of Technical Co-operation thus ceased to exist in October 1964 and its functions and staff have been incorporated in the new Ministry. The system of technical assistance has, however, been very little changed as yet and, **wherever the text of this pamphlet refers to DTC's programmes, the reader is safe in assuming that for 'DTC' he can substitute 'ODM' (Ministry of Overseas Development).**

The functions and scope of the new Ministry were described in a statement by Barbara Castle in the House of Commons on 10th November. She said 'The Ministry will be responsible for carrying out the Government's policies for development overseas. It will take responsibility for:

- (a) The Aid Programme as a whole, and its make-up as between bilateral and multilateral aid and between capital aid and technical assistance.
- (b) Terms and conditions of capital aid and the principles on which technical assistance is granted.
- (c) The size and the nature of the aid programme for each country.
- (d) The management of capital aid and technical assistance.
- (e) Relations with international aid organisations.
- (f) The United Kingdom interest in United Nations programmes of technical assistance.
- (g) Liaison with voluntary bodies operating in the same fields.

In dealing with these matters the Ministry of Overseas Development will work in harmony with the policies of the Overseas Departments and other Departments concerned. The purpose of the new Ministry, in close co-operation with Overseas Departments, will be to help promote the progress of the developing countries, bearing in mind our special ties with Commonwealth countries, including the dependent territories.

These functions have hitherto been discharged by the Treasury and the Overseas Departments; the Department of Technical Co-operation has been absorbed into the Ministry of Overseas Development. The functions originating in the other Departments mentioned are in process of transfer. The Ministry will be responsible for the Commonwealth Development Corporation.

The Ministry will have general responsibility for co-ordinating British

policy in respect of the aid and development work of the United Nations and its Specialised Agencies and for aid questions arising from the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development. In addition, because of the importance of aid and technical assistance in the activities of UNESCO and FAO, the Ministry will assume the prime responsibility for relations with these bodies from the Department of Education and Science and the Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food, respectively.

The Treasury will continue to deal with the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, in close consultation with the Ministry of Overseas Development.'

The estimates of aid on the Ministry's vote for its first full year of operation – the financial year 1965/6 – show that it expects to undertake expenditure of £103.8m (which corresponds to a final estimate of £112.9m for 1964/5). The proportion of this being devoted to technical assistance activities is not yet known. However, the Ministry will have on its vote all technical assistance and all financial aid except

- (i) Grants-in-Aid and certain loans to the colonies made from the Colonial Office Vote and estimated at £14.1m in 1965/6;
- (ii) Loans and Advances made from 'below the line', including (a) loans under Section 3 of the Export Credit Guarantees Act (Commonwealth Assistance Loans, etc.); (b) Exchequer Loans to the colonies under the CD & W Act; (c) Advances to the Commonwealth Development Corporation; (d) Subscriptions to the World Bank and its affiliates.

The Ministry of Overseas Development has a Permanent Secretary, a Deputy Secretary, eight Under-Secretaries, each in charge of an administrative Division, and twenty-seven Assistant Secretaries heading Departments. There is also a Director-General of Economic Planning in charge of a separate unit staffed mainly by professional economists. The eight administrative Divisions are Financial and Western Hemisphere Division, International Division, Africa Division, Asia Division, Overseas Appointments Division, Education Division, Natural Resources and Personnel Services Division, Social Development and Training Division. The first four of these will deal with financial aid as well as technical assistance and are being partly staffed by officers introduced from the Treasury and the overseas departments. The last four divisions listed, however, will be responsible for functions and subjects formerly the responsibility of the Department of Technical Co-operation, plus UNESCO work brought over from the Department of Education and Science and FAO business transferred from the Ministry of Agriculture.

From the foregoing, it can be seen that the new arrangements put an end to many of the anomalies in the previous system. In particular, the administration of financial aid and technical assistance is brought almost entirely within one Ministry where the basic policy decisions on the aid programme will be taken. Moreover, the Directorate of Economic Planning will provide the economic expertise which was conspicuous for its absence under DTC. This effect has already been given to the proposals made, amongst other places, in the Conclusions and Suggestions chapter of this pamphlet on page 142 and pages 153–155. Other changes in Government aid policy will probably only become apparent on the com-

pletion of a thorough review of aid policy. Barbara Castle announced on 15th December, 1964, that this review was being undertaken 'as a matter of urgency'. A White Paper on aid has been promised when the review is complete.

Apart from the establishment of ODM, a number of other developments in Britain's technical assistance programme have taken place since the first edition of this pamphlet was published. These are as follows:

1 British contributions to the UN Expanded Programme of Technical Assistance and the UN Special Fund are to be increased in 1965 (see page 123). The overall increase is of $17\frac{1}{2}\%$, making the new annual contributions £1.7m (\$4.75m) to EPTA and £2.5m (\$7m) to the Special Fund.

2 It has been announced that the volunteer programme for the autumn of 1965 is to be still further expanded (see pages 63-4) with new totals of 1,200 graduates and 400 school-leavers and apprentices.

3 A new scheme has been inaugurated to assist recruitment of teachers for Nigeria. Under the scheme, Britain will provide up to £1m over five years for financial inducements to teachers to serve in Nigeria. These inducements will go to assist 75 new graduate or technical teacher recruits a year for Nigeria and also to the British graduate and qualified technical teachers already serving in Nigeria who are prepared to remain there for another three years or more – there are thought to be rather over 300 of these. The financial inducements will amount to a few hundred pounds per year per teacher. As part of the arrangement, the London County Council has agreed to second teachers to Northern Nigeria under a specially agreed scheme. The money for the scheme will probably be found from Commonwealth Educational Co-operation funds. The scheme became necessary because terms of service for expatriates in Nigeria – which rejected the Overseas Service Aid Scheme in 1961 – have declined to the point where it was difficult to retain teachers already in service or to attract new ones. The arrangements with Nigeria do, in effect, constitute a sort of special miniature OSAS scheme for Nigeria in the educational field.

4 After a review of allowances payable under the Overseas Service Aid Scheme, the British Government has decided to increase these benefits. This involved an extra £1½m a year in 1964/5. The Government has also announced its intention of amending arrangements for the Overseas Service Aid Scheme in two major respects by the Overseas Development and Service Bill published in February 1965. This legislation widens the range of public service posts eligible for OSAS so as to include local authorities, marketing boards, universities, etc. Formerly, only direct employees of central governments were covered by OSAS. Secondly, the British Government has now taken powers to make payment direct to OSAS personnel instead of automatically passing such payments through the overseas employer. This change has been made to spare embarrassment to those overseas governments who find it politically awkward to pass the overseas allowances through their budgets and to ease the administrative burden on developing countries' administrations.

April 1965

Acknowledgements

In producing this survey of British technical assistance, the author received valuable help from the Department of Technical Co-operation, British Council and other public bodies. He would especially like to express his thanks to all those at DTC and the British Council who assisted through detailed personal discussion and by making available data in the form in which they were required. He is also obliged to these organisations for permission to use previously unpublished material.

Responsibility for statements of fact and for all expressions of opinion contained in this study rests entirely with the author.

1—Introduction

1 Meaning and Scope of Technical Assistance

The subject of this pamphlet is British Government technical assistance to developing countries. 'Technical assistance' refers to the organised transfer, without charge, of knowledge and skills, either through services or through 'embodied knowledge' in the form of books and training equipment from developed to developing countries. British practice is to regard 'developing countries' as all Latin America and the Caribbean; all Africa except the Republic of South Africa; all Asia except Japan and the Asian parts of the Soviet Union; Oceania; Yugoslavia, Greece, Turkey, Cyprus, Malta, Gibraltar and Spain.

Technical Assistance is itself a post-war concept although Britain and some other wealthy countries had small technical assistance programmes, without calling them this, even before the war. Sometimes definitions of technical assistance are given which embrace **every** transfer of knowledge and skill between one country and another, and indeed the first British Government White Paper dealing exclusively with technical assistance – 'Technical Assistance from the United Kingdom for Overseas Development' (Cmnd. 1308, March 1961) – adopted this rather broad definition and referred to the technical assistance being given by British firms training nationals of the developing countries for employment in the firms' own enterprises. This is probably stretching the concept of 'assistance' too far and it seems preferable to confine use of the phrase 'technical assistance' to transfers of knowledge and skill which have a deliberate element of gift in them. Even on this interpretation of course some activities in the private sector can be legitimately described as technical assistance. Many industrial companies, as well as voluntary organisations, give scholarships 'without strings' to people from overseas and provide free training aids and advice to developing countries. The present pamphlet, however, deals only with British official technical assistance, and not with private technical assistance. ODI has already published a separate study* of assistance from Britain to developing countries through private non-commercial bodies and also has in hand studies of the role of private industry and commerce in overseas development.

The British Government itself gave definitions of technical assistance or technical aid in White Papers issued in 1961 and 1962. The 1961 White Paper† defined technical assistance as covering 'training in the United Kingdom and overseas; the provision of experts, administrators and other professional men and women; the provision of advisory technical and consultant services and expert missions; and the supply of equipment for training, demonstration, pilot schemes or surveys. This definition, which may be summarised as the provision of **training, experts** (including advisory and specialist services) and **equipment**, excludes all forms of capital assistance'.

* See *Not by Governments Alone: non-government organisations in the Development Decade*, ODI, May 1964, 3s. 6d.

† Cmnd. 1308. See Appendix III.

The 1962 White Paper* said ‘“technical aid” is a phrase which is often used, but few people understand clearly what it involves. Indeed, even the international organisations and governments which give such help find it hard to agree on what it means. Fortunately, there is no need for an exact definition. What we are aiming to do is to co-operate with other countries when asked in educating their men and women, developing their natural resources, raising their standards of living and building up their institutions and services. Technical aid includes bringing people from overseas to Britain for education and training, supplying qualified and experienced men and women to teach, help and work overseas, and advice, research and investigation to help overcome the difficulties which block the paths of these countries to better and more prosperous living.’

To see British technical assistance as described in this pamphlet in proper perspective, two considerations must be borne in mind. First, official technical assistance however defined plays only a very modest role in the total transfer of knowledge and skills between countries. A vastly greater flow of new ideas and discoveries, new techniques, skills and knowledge, passes from developed to developing countries through the activities of private business investors and traders, migrants, missionaries, and returning private students, or through books and films, than through Government technical assistance programmes. To take a single, striking example: of the 50,000 full-time students from developing countries in Britain in 1962/3, under one-twentieth were brought over for study and training under technical assistance programmes by the British Government.

Second, Britain herself imports knowledge and skills as well as exporting them. She imports them not only from technologically advanced countries like the United States, but also from developing countries. The great number of doctors and nurses in our hospitals from Commonwealth developing countries testifies to this. Britain’s share in the recent discovery in physics of the omega minus particle was largely the work of a Pakistani physicist, Professor Abdus Salam, at Imperial College, London. Even within official technical assistance operations themselves there may often be important elements of reciprocity and mutual advantage bringing a two-way flow of experience and skill. For this reason the term ‘technical co-operation’ is a phrase sometimes preferred to ‘technical assistance’, and Britain’s Government department responsible for technical assistance to less developed countries is called the Department of Technical Co-operation.

2 Aid Totals and Technical Assistance

Later in this pamphlet technical assistance will be examined from the point of view of the amount of real resources in the form of men and women, training places and equipment that Britain is making available to developing countries through official channels. But for the purpose of relating technical assistance to the total aid programme, it is convenient to discuss it in terms of the monetary expenditures involved. Data are normally available only on the basis of British financial years running from 1 April to 31 March the following year. In a few places in this pamphlet, however, advantage has been taken of the availability of

* Cmnd. 1698. See Appendix III.

Table 1

British Economic Aid* to Developing Countries 1962/3 and 1963/4: by Categories

		1962/3 (£ million)					1963/4				
		Grants		Loans	Other†	Total	Grants		Loans	Other†	Total
		TA	Other					TA	Other		
Colonial Territories	...	11.2	29.9	20.2	—	61.3	11.3	30.4	24.0	—	65.7
Independent Commonwealth	...	9.2	10.6	41.7	—	61.5	12.5	9.1	48.9	—	70.5
Foreign Countries	...	1.4	7.2	6.4	—	15.0	1.4	6.8	13.4	—	21.6
Total Bilateral	...	21.8	47.7	68.3	—	137.8	25.2	46.3	86.3	—	157.8
Total Multilateral	...	3.2	—	—	6.7	9.9	3.9	—	—	13.3	17.2
Total Assistance	...	25.0	47.7	68.3	6.7	147.7	29.1	46.3	86.3	13.3	175.0

TA Technical Assistance

* Gross expenditures: no account taken of loan repayments or interest payments.

† Drawings from UK subscription to International Development Association, and UK grants to Indus Basin Development Fund.

Source: Financial Statistics, June 1964.

Table 2

Technical Assistance in British Aid 1945-1964

Financial Year ending 31 March of Year Shown	(£ million) Technical Assistance					Multi- lateral*	Total	TOTAL AID	TA as proportion of Aid (percentages)
	Bilateral			Colonies	Foreign				
	Independent Commonwealth	Foreign	Total						
1946	0.6	—	—	0.6	0.6	30.4	2.0
1947	0.5	—	—	0.5	0.5	47.7	1.0
1948	0.7	—	—	0.7	0.7	13.9	5.0
1949	0.9	—	—	0.9	1.0	16.9	5.6
1950	1.7	—	—	1.7	2.3	32.4	7.1
1951	2.0	—	—	2.0	2.3	46.3	5.0
1952	2.2	—	—	2.2	2.7	62.6	4.3
1953	2.1	0.2	—	2.3	3.0	52.2	5.7
1954	2.3	0.3	—	2.6	3.6	52.5	6.9
1955	2.3	0.5	0.1	2.9	3.9	76.7	5.1
1956	2.4	0.5	0.2	3.1	4.1	82.3	5.0
1957	2.7	0.6	0.2	3.5	4.4	75.4	5.8
1958	2.8	0.7	0.4	3.9	4.8	81.2	5.9
1959	2.7	0.8	0.6	4.1	5.1	109.5	4.7
1960	3.7	0.9	0.9	5.5	6.9	129.7	5.3
1961	4.0	1.5	1.0	6.5	9.7	151.1	6.4
1962	16.6	2.7	1.3	20.6	23.8	160.1	14.8
1963	11.2	9.2	1.4	21.8	25.0	147.7	16.9
1964	11.3	12.5	1.4	25.2	29.1	175.0	16.6
Total	72.7	30.4	7.5	110.6	133.5	1,543.6	8.6

* UN Expanded Programme of Technical Assistance, UN Special Fund, and UNICEF.
 Sources: Annual Abstract of Statistics, 1961 and 1963.
 Financial Statistics, June 1964.

additional data prepared by the Department of Technical Co-operation on a calendar year basis for the purpose of international comparisons through the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.

The latest figures available show total official British economic aid to developing countries to have been £175m in the British financial year (running 1 April–31 March) 1963/4. In the last two financial years this was divided between bilateral aid and multilateral aid, and between technical assistance grants, other grants and loans as on page 11.

The growth of British technical assistance to developing countries is described more fully in Chapter 2 of this pamphlet. Table 2 opposite presents the development of this programme and of British aid as a whole since the Second World War in tabular form.

Two things stand out from these figures. First, technical assistance expenditures showed a steady increase in absolute terms during the 1950s but then rose spectacularly from 1961 onwards. This rise, which coincided with the introduction of the Overseas Service Aid Scheme, resulted in more technical assistance expenditure in the three-year period 1961–64, than in the whole of the previous 16 years. Second, technical assistance represented a fairly constant proportion of total aid up to 1961, but in that year rose dramatically. It now begins to look, however, as if the proportion is on a new plateau, albeit at a higher level than before.

It is difficult to see any consistent trend in the movement of the totals for sub-groups such as colonies, independent Commonwealth and foreign countries. For a long time technical assistance to the colonies under C D & W was the only technical aid Britain gave, and even then it was not reckoned as such until afterwards (the figures in the opposite table were first compiled in 1961). Deductions from the shift in the relative positions of colonies and independent countries would be misleading in so far as these are due chiefly to the achievement of independence by former colonies. In fact the places which had colonial status in 1956/7 received a higher share of British technical aid in 1963/4 than they had done in 1956/7. The share of foreign countries is roughly the same now as then.

Tables 1 and 2 may give a false impression that it is possible to draw a hard and fast line between expenditures classified as 'financial aid' and those designated as 'technical assistance'; and that the latter is an easily distinguishable entity. In fact, however, the boundary could be drawn at many different points. In order to avoid confusion and to make cross-references to other pamphlets in this series (and to published official material) easier, this pamphlet follows where possible the Treasury's current practice (as in Tables 1 and 2, for instance) in confining British Government Technical Assistance to all items on the Department of Technical Co-operation's vote, except administrative overheads and assessed subscriptions to international bodies. Many tables have had to be drawn up on a different basis, but wherever possible it is made clear what items on the DTC vote (see Appendix II) are included and whether other items have been added.

Although used here, the Treasury classification is by no means satisfactory (and it seems possible that it may be revised before long). First, what the Treasury classifies as 'technical assistance' on the DTC vote

includes some items which represent transfers of money rather than of skills. The capital support given to colonial university institutions and compensation payments to British colonial officials are cases in point, but are not the only examples. Second, the items classified as 'financial aid' may, to a limited extent, involve the provision of services by Britain. A few minor items on the Foreign Office vote are of this type and the activities of the Commonwealth Development Corporation also involve technical assistance. (In addition, DTC claims that expenditure under CD & W (Colonial Office Vote) on local training is a form of technical assistance.) Third, the official classification omits altogether from the aid figures certain expenditures on technical assistance undertaken by public bodies other than DTC. Much the most important of these omissions is the British Council programme which involves provision of teachers, training, books, etc., in forms and on terms which are sometimes almost indistinguishable from technical assistance through DTC. The official distinction between these activities and British Government technical assistance is made on the grounds that the Council is not a Government Department, does not channel its assistance exclusively through other Governments, and was set up for purposes not primarily of a technical assistance nature. Nevertheless DTC submissions to OECD on British provision of technical assistance personnel and training for developing countries include British Council programmes. Where appropriate, therefore, reference is made in this pamphlet to technical assistance through the British Council. Another omission is subscriptions to the budgets of international Specialised Agencies and OECD; these international bodies run technical assistance activities, even though such operations represent only one of their many functions. There are a few other items on the votes of Government Departments such as the Central Office of Information and Board of Trade, which could also be classified as technical assistance, but which are not counted as aid at all. The operations of the Crown Agents are also excluded, but this seems legitimate since they charge fees for their services; the amount of genuine assistance involved in these activities is small. The work of the British Council, Commonwealth Development Corporation and Crown Agents is briefly described in Chapter 13 and a more detailed note on questions of definition is contained in Appendix VI.

3 Administrative Responsibility for British Technical Assistance

Since 24 July, 1961, administrative responsibility for technical assistance within the British Government aid programme has lain with the Department of Technical Co-operation. The Department took over its present work from the Colonial Office, Commonwealth Relations Office, and Foreign Office; it also inherited from the Ministry of Labour the International Recruitment Unit, which finds people for international aid bodies and the Specialised Agencies.

In exercising its present functions, the Department of Technical Co-operation liaises closely with other Departments as follows:

- (a) the Treasury which is ultimately responsible for all financial matters concerning DTC and other Government Departments;

- (b) the Foreign Office, Commonwealth Relations Office, and Colonial Office (and, during its brief spell of existence, the Central African Office) who are consulted by DTC on the amount of assistance passing through DTC channels to recipient countries overseas, since this is closely bound up with overall British policy towards these countries. These Departments dealing with external relations also carry responsibility for capital aid on their vote and, where British-aided projects overseas require both capital and technical assistance, liaison is required between them and DTC. The problem of co-ordinating capital aid and technical assistance is referred to in Chapter 12. DTC uses Foreign Office and Commonwealth Relations Office posts abroad as a channel for communication with developing countries. Some of these posts have special officers responsible for technical assistance, who are drawn from the CRO and FO staffs. Governments of dependent territories correspond with DTC direct;
- (c) Departments, such as Ministry of Agriculture, Department of Education and Science, Ministry of Health, etc., which are responsible for British relations with international Specialised Agencies;
- (d) any other Government Department which is able to assist developing countries by seconding staff, accept trainees, or offering advice.

In addition, the DTC has very close relations with the British Council, both in so far as it uses the Council as executive agent for certain programmes, and also in co-ordinating the programmes of the two bodies.

The structure, finances and functions of DTC are discussed more fully in Chapter 3. Chapter 4 describes request procedures and terms and priorities; and the various forms and programmes of British technical assistance are described in Chapters 5-11. Chapter 12 deals with arrangements for co-ordinating financial and technical aid. The contributions of the British Council, Commonwealth Development Corporation and Crown Agents are described in Chapter 13 and the final chapter consists of conclusions and suggestions based on the factual review in earlier chapters.

2—Historical Background up to 1961

This chapter surveys the development of British technical assistance from the earliest days up to July 1961 when the Department of Technical Co-operation was formed. Much of the framework of present-day technical assistance operations is a continuation of arrangements previously made in the period of the Colonial Empire and the present system can only be fully understood if it is seen against the background of its past development. The establishment of the Department of Technical Co-operation in 1961 brought together two quite separate strands of technical assistance; to the colonies through the Colonial Office and to independent countries through the Foreign Office and Commonwealth Relations Office. Technical assistance to the colonies can, even on a narrow definition, be traced back at least forty years, whereas independent countries have received such help from Britain only since the launching of the Colombo Plan in 1950. Since there was, in fact, virtually nothing in common between the two systems up to the beginning of the present decade, it seems appropriate to discuss their evolution separately.

1 Evolution of Technical Assistance to the Colonies*

The whole concept of Britain giving 'aid' to the colonies often comes as a surprise both to those who imagine the colonial relationship between Britain and her dependencies to have been one of straightforward exploitation, and to those who conceive of it as having involved close institutional integration. In fact, however, a distinguishing feature of British colonial policy is that the colonies have been treated as separate units administratively and financially. They have never paid any form of tribute or taxes to the United Kingdom, nor have they had representation in the UK Parliament. On the contrary, they were expected to be financially independent and to support their government and administration out of their own resources, even though the Governor and officers in charge of administration were invariably Britons appointed from London. In these circumstances, any financial transfers from the UK to the colonies—at first to help the poorer ones to balance their budgets, but later for wider 'development' purposes—tended to be regarded as exceptional and as 'aid' rather than as something which was in any sense the colonies' due.

Control over the colonies in matters of external affairs and defence is in the hands of the Secretary of State for the Colonies, a member of the British Government. He is the political head of the Colonial Office in London. (The Office is now due to disappear in 1965 as a separate entity

* See also 'British Aid 5—Colonial Development' in this series.

and to merge with the Commonwealth Relations Office.) The Colonial Office had its origins in a Committee of the Privy Council for the Plantations established in 1660, but in 1854 it was formally instituted as the Colonial Office. In 1925, the old Office was divided into a Dominions Office handling the affairs of Australia, Canada and Newfoundland, New Zealand, South Africa and the High Commission Territories (Basutoland, Bechuanaland and Swaziland), and Southern Rhodesia; and the Colonial Office handling the bulk of the dependencies. The affairs of India and Burma were separately administered by the India Office, which later merged with the Dominions Office to form the present Commonwealth Relations Office.

The Secretary of State for the Colonies also controls the domestic affairs of the colonies through the Governor who, as the representative of the Crown, is the supreme authority in each colony. Governors are appointed by the Crown on the recommendation of the Secretary of State.

(a) Financing of Technical Assistance to the Colonies

British aid to the colonies effectively started in 1878 when grants-in-aid of administration – in other words, budget subsidies – were first made. But these were for general purposes and not specifically for technical assistance. These grants-in-aid to colonies with inadequate revenues have continued right up to the present day.

The earliest channels for technical assistance were various central institutions established during the half century up to 1930 to serve the whole Empire. These included the Imperial Institute, Bureau of Hygiene and Tropical Diseases, Imperial Institute of Entomology, Imperial Mycological Institute, Imperial Forestry Institute, Imperial Economic Committee, Empire Marketing Board, and Imperial Agricultural Bureaux. Most of these bodies were charged with the task of collecting and disseminating information of value to the Empire as a whole and were financed largely (some of them wholly) from UK funds. Some of them are discussed in more detail later in this chapter.

In 1919 a Colonial Research Committee was established and was given control of a specially created fund for financing and stimulating research for the benefit of the colonies. This fund, totalling £100,000, probably deserves to be recognised as the first British technical assistance programme.

The next major landmark was the establishment in 1929 under the Colonial Development Act of a Colonial Development Fund of up to £1m per year, which is often regarded as the beginning of British aid for economic development overseas. The Fund was established for the purpose of aiding and developing agriculture and industry in the colonies and thereby promoting commerce with or industry in the United Kingdom. Advances could be in the form of a loan or grant and the purposes included encouraging the adoption of improved agricultural machinery, transport, harbours, fisheries, forestry, surveys, land reclamation, irrigation and water supply, electric power, mineral development, 'research, instruction and experiments in the science, methods and practice of agriculture and industry', and public health. The main emphasis was on capital expenditure but the Colonial Development Act specifically mentioned surveys

and research as qualifying for assistance. Technical training could also be financed from the Fund, and as early as the first report of the Colonial Development Advisory Committee in 1930 there was mention of approval of a grant for the establishment of a medical school for the training of native African dispensers in Tanganyika. Over the period of validity of the Colonial Development Act (1929–40), a total of £8.8m was approved for projects, of which £253,000 was for surveys and almost £600,000 for scientific research.

In 1940 the first of a series of Colonial Development and Welfare Acts was introduced. A reconsideration of policy towards colonial development was in any case due, but action by the British Government was hastened by two events – the West Indies' riots in 1938 and the subsequent Moyne Commission Report, and the outbreak of War in 1939. The 1940 Act was based on a 'Statement of Policy on Colonial Development and Welfare' issued in February 1940. This was important in several ways:

'It departed firmly from the principle that territories should rely on their own resources, and accepted that many needed outside help for their development. It recognised the problems of fluctuating incomes and the burden of debt. It stressed the importance of social development, especially of education, and the need for research and planning. It committed the Government to making assistance available annually on a much larger scale than before, for a very wide range of purposes, including recurrent as well as capital expenditures. And it made this commitment for a period of ten years ahead, in order to encourage long-term planning.*

From 1940 until 1961 CD & W funds were the main channel of British financial aid and the sole source of finance for British technical assistance to the colonies. The first Act wound up the Colonial Development Fund and provided new Colonial Development and Welfare funds up to £55m for the ten-year period 1941–51. Of this, up to £½m a year was to be for research, the rest for other development and welfare schemes. In the event, however, because of the war, expenditure was very much less than originally anticipated and over the five-year period up to 1946 only £10.4m was spent. In 1945 a new CD & W Act was passed to run for ten years from 1946–56. This provided for £120m expenditure over that period (another £20m was added by the 1950 Act) of which £85½m was for direct allocation to colonial territories, £23½m was for central allocation (by the Colonial Office) and £11m for a general reserve. It was stipulated that not more than £17½m could be spent each year and not more than £1m on research, though in 1949 these annual maxima were raised to £20m and £2.5m respectively. There was provision for technical assistance in both the territorial allocations and the central allocations under CD & W. In his memorandum addressed to the colonial governments which accompanied the 1945 Act, the Secretary of State said 'the importance of basing schemes on the best technical advice scarcely needs emphasis . . . in cases where it is considered advisable for expert advice to be obtained from outside the colony, the cost of obtaining such advice may reasonably form the subject of an application for a free grant from the Colonial Development and Welfare vote'. In the event, many consultancies, surveys and training programmes came to be paid for from the funds

* See 'British Aid 5 – Colonial Development'.

allocated to each territory, and in addition the sums set aside for central allocation provided considerable extra elements of technical assistance. The £23½m central allocation included £8·6m for research, £1m for 'pre-selection' training schemes and £1·5m for 'post-selection' training schemes, and £2m for geodetic and topographical surveys. There were also central allocations for aid to higher education, aeronautical wireless communications, meteorological services and other miscellaneous schemes which for the most part consisted of capital expenditure but also included provision of technical advice.

The 1955 CD & W Act made available a total of £119m for the five-year period 1955–60, with a £27m central allocation. A further Act was passed in 1959 making provision for £140·5m over the five years 1959–64, of which £27m was again for central allocation. Under the most recent CD & W legislation, the Commonwealth Development Act of 1963, there is a total of £68·5m for the period 1963–66, of which £5m is for central allocation. But the central allocation of CD & W no longer provides technical assistance, which colonies have received under the Regional Programmes since April 1963. Over the whole period 1945–63, the colonies benefited to the extent of about £40m from technical assistance financed from CD & W funds (see Table 2). Of this, £18·8m was spent on research for the colonies and over £4m on training for the Overseas Civil Service.

(b) Supply of Personnel

The traditional supply of personnel from Britain to the colonies did not represent a form of financial aid. Britain made no direct financial contribution in respect of British personnel serving in the colonies until 1957 in the case of Nigeria, and until 1961, when the Overseas Service Aid Scheme (OSAS) was introduced, in the case of other colonies.

The civil service of each colony was not only paid but formally appointed and employed by the government of that colony rather than by the British Government, and this still holds true even today when Britain pays a part of the cost of expatriate officers under OSAS. Thus British members of the Colonial Service formed a corps which was entirely separate from the civil servants at the Colonial Office, who were part of the Home Civil Service in Britain and employed by the UK Government. This distinction between the Colonial Office in London and the Colonial Service has not always been fully understood: it is a very different position from that in the Foreign Service, where a single corps of personnel staffs both the Foreign Office and British diplomatic posts abroad. The responsibility of the Secretary of State for the Colonies with regard to British civil servants in dependent territories was (and is still) limited to a comparatively small number of functions. He (i.e., the Colonial Office) undertook initial selection of new recruits and was responsible for selection for higher posts in the colonies: he could transfer on promotion British members of the Colonial Service from one colony to another. He was responsible for seeing that the conditions offered to recruits during selection were subsequently observed by the employing government. Officers selected by him could not be dismissed or receive disciplinary punishment without his sanction. He was thus 'the ultimate authority for appointments,

discipline, promotion and general conditions of employment' (Colonial 306, 1954).

At the turn of the century during Joseph Chamberlain's ten years in the post of Colonial Secretary, it was found that there were 434 administrative posts in the colonies senior enough to require staff from Britain. However, in the early years of the twentieth century demands from the colonies for staff expanded extremely fast and by 1913 the Colonial Office was already finding 250 people a year. During the 1920s and 1930s, under the direction of Major R. (later Sir Ralph) Furse, recruitment to the various branches of the Colonial Service proceeded at the rate of about 300 a year on average, though there was a considerable temporary fall during the economic depression of the early 1930s when colonial governments could not afford the services of so many British officers (see Table 3). During the Second World War itself recruitment was also at rather a low ebb, but in the years immediately following the war it rose to unprecedentedly high levels. An average of well over a thousand appointments a year was maintained by the Colonial Office throughout the rest of the 1940s and the 1950s. Contract recruitment steadily increased as a proportion of the total over this period, and the strength of the permanent and pensionable Colonial Services probably passed its peak after about 1954, when there were some 17,000 members serving. By 1960, when the Overseas Service Aid Scheme was under discussion, it was calculated that there were still 14,000 permanent and pensionable expatriate colonial officers, as well as over 6,000 on contract, in the colonies to which the Scheme was offered.

At first British officers had been recruited for the service of individual colonies and it was only in 1930, as a result of the Warren Fisher Committee, that the system was rationalised and formal recognition was given to the existence of the Colonial Service as a unified service throughout the colonies with a series of functional branches within it. There were eventually twenty of these unified functional services, known as the 'Colonial Administrative Service', 'Colonial Agricultural Service', etc., covering the fields of administration, agriculture, audit, chemistry, civil aviation, customs, education, engineering, forestry, geological survey, law, medicine, mines, police, postal services, prisons, research, surveys, veterinary medicine, and nursing (Queen Elizabeth's Colonial Nursing Service). The status of the various services was later described (in the 1954 White Paper on the Re-organisation of the Colonial Service) as follows: 'since 1930 these branches have been organised as "unified" services. Although the members of these services are directly employed and paid by the territorial governments, they are under the general direction and patronage of the Secretary of State for the Colonies. They have rightly regarded themselves, and have been regarded, as belonging to a general service under the Crown as well as to the local civil services of the territories in which they are immediately serving.'

During the Second World War it became clear that in order to provide the colonies with sufficient staff to undertake the great programmes of economic and social development which were planned for the post-war period, it would be necessary to strengthen greatly the Colonial Service. Accordingly in 1946 a Government White Paper was produced on the

'Organisation of the Colonial Service' (Colonial No. 197). This dealt at some length with the conditions under which people would in future be recruited from the UK to the Colonial Service, and also announced the decision to allocate from CD & W funds £2½m for the training of civil

Table 3

**Colonial Office Recruitment for Overseas Territories
1913-1960**

(By year and numbers recruited)

1913	248	1929	449	1940	180	1951	1,396
1919	295	1930	378	1941	144	1952	1,378
1920	551	1931	165	1942	95	1953	1,227
1921	387	1932	70	1943	162	1954	1,135
1922	174	1933	121	1944	193	1955	1,377
1923	233	1934	165	1945	632	1956	1,467
1924	352	1935	231	1946	1,715	1957	1,367
1925	406	1936	249	1947	806	1958	1,335
1926	424	1937	306	1948	957	1959	1,083
1927	460	1938	325	1949	1,341	1960	816
1928	507	1939	255	1950	1,510		

Sources: Up to 1950 - 'Aucuparius: Recollections of a Recruiting Officer', by Sir Ralph Furze.
1951-1955: Colonial Territories (Annual Reports by the Colonial Office).
1956-1960: See Table 17.

servants for the dependencies. From this sum were financed the 'Devonshire' courses (so named because a Committee under the Duke of Devonshire at the end of the war had recommended their being set up) at Oxford, Cambridge and London Universities. They were not, however, the very first courses for Colonial Service recruits. Short training courses had in fact been started in 1909, and had been developed in the inter-war period; and as early as 1925 special scholarships were established for those taking tropical agriculture prior to entering the Colonial Service as agriculturalists. This was followed by the introduction of veterinary scholarships in 1930 and forestry scholarships in 1933; later, engineering probationerships were started in 1949, and legal probationerships also in 1949.

The advent of self-government for the Gold Coast (later Ghana) and the prospect of self-government and eventual independence for other colonies led the British Government to issue an important White Paper on 'The Re-organisation of the Colonial Service' (Colonial No. 306) in 1954. This announced the Government's intention to form out of the colonial services the new general service known as Her Majesty's Overseas Civil Service (HMOCS) which, like its predecessors, was to be composed of permanent and pensionable career civil servants only. This involved little more than a change of name. Much more important from the serving officers' point of view was the assurance by the British Government that it would enter into formal agreements with territorial governments that, at self-government or independence, the following conditions would be observed which expatriate officers were entitled to expect:

- (i) their terms of service would not be made less favourable;
- (ii) their pensions and other benefits would be safeguarded;
- (iii) they would continue to be considered eligible for transfer on promotion to other territories;
- (iv) the territorial government would not unreasonably refuse such transfer or promotion;
- (v) they would be given adequate notice of termination of employment due to constitutional changes and HMG would endeavour to find alternative employment;
- (vi) they would receive compensation from the territorial government in the event of premature retirement resulting from constitutional progress.

The proposals regarding compensation were based on the precedent of Ceylon where the principle of compensation had also been accepted in the 1930s. One of the British Government's major concerns, then and now, has been to ensure that as small a financial burden as possible should fall on the British taxpayer as a result of British officers overseas losing their jobs at independence. It was, however, a major problem to fix the terms of compensation in such a way that they on the one hand gave officers adequate protection, yet on the other hand did not provide an excessively generous sum on terms which would encourage officers to retire and would saddle the new governments with too heavy a debt. In retrospect, it seems that the amounts of compensation did exceed the initial expectations of many colonial servants and that for many of them the deciding factor (out of many factors) leading them to retire and take their compensation was that they could hardly afford to do otherwise, in spite of the skilfully drawn public service agreements which tried to ensure that they could retain their full compensation entitlements while continuing to serve. That the compensation payments were heavier than most of the poor countries could reasonably bear has been proved by the fact that many of the countries concerned have only been able to meet this obligation by means of grants and loans from Britain.

Ghana and Malaya were the first colonies to attain self-government and independence in the new phase of colonial development, but they were relatively wealthy compared with the countries which were to follow them. The first case where the position of British civil servants represented a really severe problem was Nigeria and it was to meet the particular difficulties there that the British Government issued, in May 1956, a new White Paper entitled 'HM Overseas Civil Service: Statement of Policy regarding Organisation' (Cmd. 9768). This laid down an entirely new principle (specifically rejected in the 1946 White Paper) which was that in certain circumstances the British Government itself would take British officers serving overseas into its employment in order to give them a greater sense of security and to induce them to stay overseas. 'In order to meet (the) prospective needs (of the colonies), Her Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom intend to recruit people with the necessary qualifications for secondment to overseas governments as required. Lists will be prepared of those who are ready and available to accept service of this kind and, if the demand rises to substantial proportions and regular employment for a number of years can be foreseen, they will

come into the regular employment of the UK Government for service overseas.' The White Paper then outlined the proposal for a special list of officers in Nigeria which constituted a scheme of this sort. This scheme was not intended to be restricted to Nigeria. 'The scheme will be in a form which will make it possible for similar arrangements to be applied to other territories as and when HMG in the UK are satisfied that circumstances make such action desirable.'

The scheme proposed in the White Paper for Nigeria was as follows. The British Government invited officers to join a Special List of officers who would be in the ultimate employment of the **British** Government (a radical innovation, this) and seconded to one of the four Nigerian Governments. This later became known as Special List A. Officers on it were pledged to remain in the service of Nigeria so long as their services were needed. If they were not needed in Nigeria, the British Government would find them employment elsewhere if possible: if this was not possible, those concerned would be granted additional paid leave for a period of five years (or until the age of 55), with such compensation as was due to them at the age they had reached at the end of the five years. The cost of this last arrangement was to be borne by HMG and the Nigerian Governments, but so long as they were in service in Nigeria expatriates would continue to be paid from local funds. The great disadvantage of Special List A from the officers' point of view was that it deprived them of the right to retire with compensation when they felt like it; consequently only 400 out of 2,000 expatriate civil servants in Nigeria enlisted. All but a few of them joined Special List B instead when it was introduced in 1959 (although there were still 53 Special List A officers serving in Nigeria in the early summer of 1964).

Special List B was designed to overcome the disadvantages of List A by safeguarding the ultimate rights of officers to retire with compensation but at the same time providing inducements to them to continue to serve in Nigeria. List B officers were not taken into the service of the British Government but remained in that of Nigerian Governments. The scheme included interest-free advances to officers of 90% of their eventual lump sum compensation entitlements (so that they could invest the capital sum or use it for school fees, to buy houses in England, etc.); provision for older officers to freeze their compensation at its maximum height (compensation normally declines after the age of about 45 because compulsory retirement is less of a hardship the nearer one is to normal retiring age); and financial inducements to younger officers by relieving them in successive stages of their obligation to repay advances of compensation. Under standard British practice, the basic compensation obligation was a Nigerian obligation (though Britain has provided loans to help Nigeria to meet it); but the British Government accepted much of the additional cost involved in the Special List B scheme, namely through interest-free loans to meet half the cost of compensation advances, and by meeting the full cost of freezing compensation to older officers for more than three years and of the inducements to younger officers.

Thus the Special List B scheme, whilst it involved aid on a larger scale than proposed under Special List A, took no further the provisions of the 1956 White Paper making it possible for British officers serving in the

colonies to become employees of the British Government. In fact the cadres of experts in the regular employment of the UK Government, that seemed to be envisaged in 1956, have never been formed.

The Nigerian Special List schemes were *ad hoc* arrangements to meet a sudden emergency. They were in no sense an aid to new recruitment, nor were they intended as a long-term form of help. Nevertheless they did represent for the first time an acceptance by the British Government of some share of the financial cost to the colonies of employing British civil servants. It soon became clear, however, that other territories would need a more substantial and permanent form of help if they were to retain and attract the overseas officers they needed. Many of them were even poorer than Nigeria and were struggling to make ends meet: for their government expenditures on economic and social development were rising at a time when their revenues were badly hit by declining world commodity prices. They simply could not afford to find out of their own resources the increased pay and allowances necessary to attract overseas officers from an increasingly prosperous Britain or the heavy compensation payments to those British officers whom they wished to replace by their own nationals. Yet the maintenance of their basic government services and the implementation of their development plans depended on their retaining and continuing to recruit civil servants from Britain. It was in an attempt to resolve this dilemma that the British Government worked out, in 1959 and 1960, the Overseas Service Aid Scheme, which came into operation in April 1961. This Scheme is further described in Chapter 5 and represents the most recent stage in UK policy towards the Overseas Civil Service. The idea was by no means new and actually represented less aid to the colonies than some far-sighted people had been suggesting for many years – T. R. Batten, for example, in his *Problems of African Development* suggested in 1948 that the expatriate cost element of employing British officers in the colonies be entirely met by Britain from CD & W funds. Nor did the British Government accept any fresh responsibilities in regard to the continued employment of British overseas civil servants. Nevertheless, the Overseas Service Aid Scheme was an important step forward in that for the first time a substantial financial commitment was undertaken in respect of the British civil servants serving colonial governments.

(c) Training

Specific grants from British funds for training colonial citizens were a fairly late innovation. Students had indeed started coming to Britain for study and training in appreciable numbers in the nineteenth century, but until the Second World War they were entirely financed either by their own governments or else privately. As early as 1902, however, the Colonial Office established the post of a Director of Colonial Scholars and, according to the Report of the Colonial Students Committee in December 1938, the numbers under his supervision grew from 30 in 1921 to 139 in 1937. At the latter date there were already about 600 colonial students in Britain in total and many more from India, the Dominions, and from foreign countries.

The Colonial Development Act of 1929 was the first to provide aid for training, but this was almost entirely confined to practical training at a

fairly low level in the colonies themselves. It was under the 1945 Colonial Development and Welfare Act that substantial funds for training of colonial personnel in Britain became available. As already noted, this allocated £2½m for training civil servants from the colonies and, although many of these at first were expatriates, the number of locally domiciled trainees had already reached about 500 a year by the early 1950s. Britain also financed training in the colonies out of CD & W funds.

(d) Research

One of the earliest and most important institutions set up in the field of colonial research was the Imperial Institute founded in 1887. Its purposes included the fostering of the commercial and industrial development, and utilisation of the natural resources, of the overseas empire by means of technical investigations; and the dissemination of information appertaining to their production and potential economic uses. At first the main scientific work undertaken by the Institute was concerned with plant and animal subjects, but in 1925 it took over geological work on minerals from the former Imperial Mineral Resources Bureau. These scientific activities eventually passed in 1949 under the control of departments of the Colonial Office and the present-day successor bodies to the Imperial Institute in these aspects of its work are Overseas Geological Surveys and the Tropical Products Institute. Although it has now lost its scientific functions, the Imperial Institute (since 1958 as the Commonwealth Institute) has retained its exhibition and information functions.

In 1919 the British Government took a new initiative in the research field by establishing a Colonial Research Committee. This was to be responsible for the administration of a grant-in-aid voted by Parliament in 1919 of £100,000 for research in the colonies. £1,000 was allocated for the year 1919–20, and £10,000 for the next two years, and it was proposed that in subsequent years not more than £20,000 a year should be spent. This research help was only to be for the assistance of poor colonies and protectorates and most of Africa was excluded. One of the main purposes of the grants was to promote the discovery and development of sources of raw materials in the colonial empire. But, in the event, the Colonial Research Committee's work was severely cut back because of 'considerations of economy', or, in other words, British economic difficulties. In 1922/3 the annual grant was reduced to about £2,000, despite representations by the Committee. By the time the last annual report of the Colonial Research Committee was issued in 1928, only about £28,000 out of the £100,000 originally proposed had been spent.

However, a fresh supply of UK funds for colonial research became available with the setting up of the Empire Marketing Board and its associated Fund in 1926. The British Government placed at the Chairman's disposal up to £1m a year to be devoted mainly to furthering the marketing of empire products in Britain. This aim was interpreted very widely and the Board's main work fell under the headings of publicity, scientific research and economic investigation. Research was handled by a special Research Grants Committee and up to September 1933, when the Empire Marketing Board was finally disbanded, it had spent about £1½m (or roughly half the total) on economic investigation and scientific research,

most of it on problems of specific concern to the colonies. With the disappearance of the Board, certain of its economic and statistical services were handed over to the Imperial Economic Committee (now the Commonwealth Economic Committee) which it was decided should be financed in future by several Commonwealth governments jointly instead of HMG alone. The Board's research activities were largely handed over to the Imperial Agricultural Bureaux in accordance with the recommendations of the Imperial Committee on Economic Consultation and Co-operation, which met in 1933. The Imperial Agricultural Bureaux (now Commonwealth Agricultural Bureaux) had been instituted in 1929 to act as a clearing house of information on research.

Meanwhile in 1929 a new source of finance for research was opened up with the institution of the Colonial Development Fund. Activities financed under the Fund included scientific research projects, and £600,000 expenditure was approved from the Fund for colonial research in the period 1929-40. This represented 7% of the total of approved projects: but actual expenditure on research was just under £400,000. While the Empire Marketing Fund still existed, there were special arrangements (laid down by the Colonial Development Act of 1929) to prevent overlap between the two Funds in the field of research.

As already noted, the first Colonial Development and Welfare Act in 1940 laid down a total annual maximum of £5.5m a year of aid to the colonies, of which up to £½m could be for research. The 1945 Act raised the research limit to £1m a year, the 1949 Act to £2.5m, and the 1955 Act to £3m. By 1962 £18.8m out of the £253m CD & W expenditure over the period 1946-62 had been on research schemes: research thus accounted for about 7½% of total outlays.

To supervise the use of CD & W funds for research, there was set up in 1942 a new Colonial Research Committee, reorganised as the Colonial Research Council in 1948. The Colonial Research Council's functions were eventually taken over by a new Overseas Research Council in 1959, but Colonial Research reports continued to be published until the establishment of the Department of Technical Co-operation in 1961. A number of more specialised colonial research councils were also set up to deal with social sciences, animal health and forestry, economics, utilisation of colonial products, geology and mineral resources, and medicine.

In the post-war years a number of institutions for research on overseas problems were set up in Britain. In 1945, the Anti-Locust Research Centre was formally established. A Colonial Liaison Section was set up at the Building Research Station in 1948 and in the same year a Colonial Liaison Officer was established at the Road Research Laboratory; these later grew into the Tropical Division and Tropical Section respectively at those institutions. In 1949 the plant and animal products section of the Imperial Institute was taken over under Colonial Office administration and it became the Colonial Products Advisory Bureau (later the Colonial Products Laboratory). In 1953 the work of the Colonial Products Laboratory and work sponsored by the Colonial Products Research Council was merged and there was thus formed the institution now known as the Tropical Products Institute. In the field of pesticides, a Tropical Stored Products Liaison Department was set up at the Pest Infestation Laboratory

in 1951, and the Tropical Pesticides Headquarters Information Unit was founded in 1955. All these institutions were financed from CD & W funds.

(e) Surveys

In 1946 the Directorate of Colonial Surveys was established to undertake cartographic work in the colonies and in 1947 a Directorate of Colonial Geological Surveys was formed (taking over some of the Imperial Institute's work in this field). These organisations were both financed at first from CD & W funds. Later they became known as the Directorate of Overseas Surveys and Overseas Geological Surveys respectively.

(f) Advisers and Advisory Committees

The Colonial Office has had a Legal Adviser since 1867. In 1897, a medical adviser to the Secretary of State for the Colonies was appointed and later appointments included Advisers on Agriculture (1929), Labour (1938), Education (1940), and Animal Health (1940). Eventually the advisory staff grew to 30 or 40. There was always an emphasis on agriculture and natural resources, medicine and education, but amongst the posts which survived only a short time were Advisers on Inland Transport, Finance, Business, Development Planning, and Demography.

The Advisers were backed by a number of professional advisory committees. An Advisory Medical and Sanitary Committee for Tropical Africa was established in 1909, and in 1923 an Advisory Committee on Education in Tropical Africa was formed. The terms of reference of these two committees were extended to all colonies in 1922 and 1928 respectively. As in the case of Advisers, the number of advisory committees grew fast. By the end of the Second World War they already included agriculture, animal health and forestry, fisheries, labour, social welfare, etc., and more were added in the post-war years. Some of the advisory committees lapsed when technical assistance to the colonies was handed over by the Colonial Office on the establishment of the Department of Technical Co-operation in 1961, but many were carried over into the new Department.

2 Development of Technical Assistance to Independent Countries

Technical assistance to independent countries was developed on an altogether different basis from that to the colonies. Until the Department of Technical Co-operation was formed in 1961, it was administered separately from technical assistance to the colonies (i.e. by the Foreign Office and Commonwealth Relations Office instead of the Colonial Office) and did not share any of the central facilities for research and surveys, etc., which were available to the colonies under the Colonial Development and Welfare Acts.

The main programme of technical assistance to independent countries during the decade of the 1950s was the Colombo Plan and, in the case of India, Pakistan and Ceylon, it is interesting to note that British technical assistance through the Colombo Plan preceded British financial aid by several years. The idea of the Colombo Plan was first put forward in January 1950 at a meeting of Commonwealth Foreign Ministers in Col-

ombo. It was the outcome of two independent proposals put forward at the meeting. The first, by Sir Percy Spender, the Australian Minister for External Affairs, suggested that the Commonwealth should take the initiative in launching a programme of technical assistance in South and South East Asia. The second, from Mr. J. R. Jayawardine, of Ceylon, asked for a plan for joint capital assistance to the same region for financing development projects. As a first step, a Consultative Committee was set up to 'survey the needs, to assess the resources available and required, to focus world attention on the development problems of the area, and to provide a framework within which an international co-operative effort could be promoted to assist the countries of the area to raise their living standards'. (Cmnd. 1928.) The members of the Committee were Australia, Canada, Ceylon, India, New Zealand, Pakistan and the UK (with Malaya and British Borneo). At their first meeting in May 1950 at Sydney, it was agreed that all the Commonwealth members would draw up six-year development programmes starting from 1 July 1951 and, in accordance with the initial intention to make the programme a non-Commonwealth venture, the other countries of South and South East Asia were invited to do the same. Also at this meeting the Consultative Committee recognised that the economic development programme of the various countries involved the application of modern technology and skills necessitating a large increase in the number of trained personnel. To help meet this need the Committee approved a Technical Co-operation Scheme to which the seven Commonwealth Governments guaranteed contributions totalling £8m over the three years commencing on 1 July 1950.

In September 1950, at a meeting in London, the programmes prepared by the Commonwealth members were considered and incorporated in a report which constitutes the original 'Colombo Plan for Economic Development in South and South East Asia'. It concluded that the main limitations on the size and speed of development were shortages of capital and of trained men and that the Colombo Plan countries should co-operate to remedy these deficiencies.

At the September 1950 conference, only the seven Commonwealth countries attended as members, but Burma, Cambodia, Laos, Vietnam and Thailand sent observers, and Cambodia, Laos and Vietnam became members shortly afterwards. The US, which was already giving assistance in the region, brought its schemes into the Plan as a full member in February 1951. It was followed by Burma and Nepal in 1952, Indonesia in 1953, Thailand, the Philippines and Japan in 1954, the Federation of Malaya in 1957, Singapore in 1959, and since then the Republic of Korea, Bhutan, the Maldiv Islands and Afghanistan. The detailed operation of the Colombo Plan is described in Chapter 10.

Outside the Colombo Plan there was little technical assistance to independent countries. Certain Middle Eastern and North African countries were given technical help by the Middle East Development Division established first in Cairo and later at Beirut, and there was also some recruitment undertaken on behalf of these countries by the Foreign Office. Yugoslavia was another foreign country which began to receive technical assistance from the UK during the 1950s. From 1956 onwards, Britain started to grant technical assistance to Turkey, Iran and Iraq under

Middle East Treaty Organisation arrangements, and from 1958 onwards to non-Commonwealth African countries under the Foundation for Mutual Assistance in Africa South of the Sahara (FAMA). However, all this technical aid to foreign countries was rather fragmentary until the Department of Technical Co-operation was set up in 1961 and began to make regular commitments for technical assistance to all the major under-developed areas of the world (except China).

The first Commonwealth developing country outside the Colombo Plan area to become independent was Ghana in 1957. Although with independence Ghana's formal eligibility for financial aid under CD & W ceased (she had actually received very little), Britain continued to make technical assistance available, through the Commonwealth Relations Office, at first under a special bilateral Mutual Technical Co-operation Agreement. A special budgetary allocation for technical assistance was also made for Nigeria, when she became independent in 1960, but later, as more African colonies gained independence, it was found more convenient to have a Regional Programme (SCAAP) for the whole of Commonwealth Africa.

3 Establishment of the Department of Technical Co-operation

Until 1961, British technical assistance (and financial aid) to overseas countries was administered by the Department responsible for Britain's diplomatic relations with the country concerned. As a result of Britain's imperial past and the changing constitutional relationships with the countries that formerly constituted the Empire, the division of responsibility within the British Government for external relations has always been complex, and for the past hundred years there have never been less than three, and sometimes four, Government Departments involved. This structure of Government by its nature always gave rise to problems of co-ordination in overseas policy and of maintaining the right priorities, and it was to solve them in the limited field of technical assistance that it was decided to set up the Department of Technical Co-operation in 1961. The Government statement made by Mr. Macmillan, the Prime Minister, on 21 March 1961, explained this decision in the following terms:

'Her Majesty's Government have recently had under review the governmental arrangements for the provision of technical assistance to overseas countries. Up till now requests for technical assistance have been dealt with through different administrative channels, depending on whether they come from one of our dependent territories, or from an independent country of the Commonwealth, or from a foreign country. These arrangements have been adequate in the past, but with the growth in the size and importance of our plans for helping overseas countries with trained men and women, special equipment, and so on, closer co-ordination is needed. The Government therefore propose to set up a new Department to be called the Department of Technical Co-operation.'

Mr. Macmillan himself further justified the decision by suggesting that 'In putting it all under a single Minister we shall, I believe, make it easier to have the priorities right as well as to increase the supply'.

Nevertheless, it became clear during the debate in the House of Commons that many MPs would much have preferred a full-blown Ministry of Aid and felt that the division for administrative purposes between technical assistance and financial aid was an artificial one. Sir Edward Boyle's exposition (25 April 1961) of the difference between the two types of aid can hardly have removed the doubts of those who wanted financial aid, too, put into new hands. He said 'Loans or grants to overseas governments do not usually involve the UK Government in any close technical examination of the project or plan for which the money is to be spent. On the other hand, the mobilisation and application of our resources for technical assistance is a task of very considerable complexity and requires the kind of co-operation which a unified Department can best provide'. Three and a half years later the Department of Technical Co-operation still exists as a separate entity, but there are few who now consider that a solution of any permanence has been found.

3—Structure, Finances and Functions of the Department of Technical Co-operation

1 Structure

(a) Minister. The Department of Technical Co-operation was established on 24 July 1961 under the Department of Technical Co-operation Act. The political head of the Department is a Minister, not at present (September 1964) of cabinet rank, who is designated Secretary for Technical Co-operation. The first holder of this post was Mr. Dennis Vosper, MP (now Lord Runcorn), and he was succeeded in May 1963 by Mr. Robert Carr, MP. The Secretary for Technical Co-operation at present combines this post with that of co-ordinator of Government Overseas Information Services which involves responsibility for the overseas information work of the Central Office of Information, British Council, and others in this field. Among the responsibilities of the Minister in his capacity of Secretary for Technical Co-operation are to appoint the Crown Agents and to answer questions about their work in the House of Commons.

(b) Staff. The staff of the Department proper numbers about 950 in Britain and 14 overseas in the financial year 1964/5, and is headed by a Director-General, who has seniority equivalent to Deputy Permanent Secretary in other Ministries of the British Government. A feature of the Department's staffing arrangements is that a high proportion of its administrative officers are seconded from the Colonial Office, Commonwealth Relations Office, and Foreign Office. Of 73 administrative class civil servants in February 1964, 44 were on secondment from other departments, by whom they were 'lent' to the DTC when it was set up in 1961. In addition to the staff of the Department itself, one must take into account nearly 700 more divided between the three Special Units – Directorate of Overseas Surveys (510), Overseas Geological Surveys (102), and Anti-Locust Research Centre (66). Special Units are borne fully on the Department's vote. The total annual wages bill for the staff of the Department at home and overseas is expected to be almost £1.2m in 1964/5. This is not counted as part of Britain's annual 'aid' contribution to developing countries, nor is a further £250,000 of General Administrative Expenses on travel, post office services, etc. (Nor, for that matter, is a further £370,000 for various office expenditures, including superannuation and rent and rates for the Department's Head Office – at present Eland House, Stag Place, Victoria, London S.W.1 – which is borne on the Ministry of Works' vote). However, in the case of the Special Units, the salaries of staff, amounting to nearly £800,000 a year, and office expenses are counted in the total figures for the aid programme.

(c) Home Administrative Structure. The administrative and executive staff at the Department's Head Office are at present divided, under the Director-General, into four divisions each headed by an Under-Secretary, who is in turn in charge of four or five departments. These departments, of which there are sixteen to twenty at present, fall into four main groups (though each group does not correspond with one under-secretary's responsibilities) and consideration of their different functions is useful for an understanding of the problems DTC faces. First, there are the geographical departments responsible for technical assistance given to individual countries or to groups of countries. These departments keep in touch with developments in their respective overseas countries and maintain contact with British embassies and high commissions in these countries. It is in the geographical departments that decisions have to be made about technical assistance allocations to particular countries and areas, and it is primarily here that political considerations, if applicable, will be taken into account. Also in this group of departments is one dealing with Britain's contribution to international technical assistance and relations with other donor countries.

Second, there are departments specialising in particular fields of technical assistance, such as engineering, natural resources, research, education, communications, etc. They must take a view of the whole range of British technical assistance in their specialised field, not confining their interest to a particular country, or to any particular form of assistance within the range of activities covered by their subject matter. Their task is not easy because, generally speaking, British technical assistance is administered on either an area basis (e.g. the Colombo Plan, Special Commonwealth African Assistance Plan), or a functional basis (e.g. research, Overseas Service Aid Scheme). It therefore takes some effort to see assistance in a field like medicine or agriculture as a whole. These specialist subject departments are largely responsible for maintaining liaison with United Kingdom bodies engaged in activities in their field. They work closely with the Department's Advisers and Advisory Committees and Panels (see below).

Third, there are recruitment and training departments responsible for finding the real technical assistance resources, such as training places in Britain or experts for service overseas, needed to carry out the programmes. There is also a 'personnel services' department responsible for administrative arrangements for UK personnel once they have been selected for service in developing countries (administrative follow-up of trainees, once placed, is mostly carried out by the British Council).

Fourth, there are departments servicing DTC in such things as personnel matters, accounts, statistics, and information.

Brief mention should also be made of the Overseas Services Resettlement Bureau, which is part of the Department and is responsible for helping to find employment for British civil servants returning home from developing countries (see Chapter 5); and of the Overseas Territories Income Tax Office. The staffing of the Overseas Territories Income Tax Office is controlled by DTC, though this Office is financially self-supporting and its main task is to act on behalf of colonial and ex-colonial territories in

assessing for overseas tax UK companies operating there and overseas government pensioners who are resident in the UK.

(d) Advisers. In addition to the administrative and supporting staff, there are a number of Advisers. These are for the most part professional men and women whose functions are to advise the Department on technical matters in the field of their different specialisms. Altogether there are 37 Advisers, including the 6 at the Middle East Development Division, Beirut (see below). Of the 31 in the United Kingdom, 28 are at the Department of Technical Co-operation (5 only part-time) and 3 are heads of the DTC's Special Units (see below). As well as being able to call on help from these Advisers, the Department also has access to advice on a further ten subjects from people at outside organisations and establishments. A full list of Advisers and Advisory Committees is given in Appendix III (a).

The Advisers perform their functions in relation to the Secretary for Technical Co-operation, although their help is occasionally sought by overseas governments. As explained in the last chapter, most of the Advisers were originally appointed to advise the Secretary of State for the Colonies, who still seeks their advice on Colonial Development and Welfare matters.

The Advisers are normally consulted on any important matters within their field of competence. They bring to their job both a detailed professional knowledge of their subjects and wide experience of its application in overseas countries. They are not tied to any particular department within the DTC and have no executive or policy-making responsibilities, but are available for consultation by the subject departments, geographical departments, training and recruitment departments and therefore act as a focal point for activity in their individual fields. Their main activities include giving advice to the Department on the technical and professional merits of requests for aid; advising colonial or other overseas governments when asked; advising on the suitability of overseas candidates for training in Britain, and in some cases advising the trainees themselves; participating in selection boards for technical assistance personnel; liaison with professional bodies in the UK; attending international meetings and conferences on behalf of the British Government; visits overseas to give advice, to familiarise themselves with local conditions and to make contacts with overseas authorities.

(e) The Special Units and Other Associated Organisations. There are at present three operational 'Special Units' – namely the Directorate of Overseas Surveys, Overseas Geological Surveys, and the Anti-Locust Research Centre. However, it was announced in May 1964 that the status of Overseas Geological Surveys is to be changed and it will cease to be a Special Unit (see Chapter 8). Each of the Special Units has its headquarters located in or near London. They are part of the Department of Technical Co-operation, even though they are separately established for staff and accounting purposes. Their staff are members of the scientific civil service, and are on permanent pensionable terms. Their work is more fully described in Chapters 7 and 8.

Apart from the three Special Units, DTC additionally finances, either in whole or in great part, certain other organisations in Britain specialising

in overseas research, as will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 7. They include the Tropical Products Institute; Tropical Section of the Road Research Laboratory; Tropical Division of the Building Research Station; Tropical Stored Products Centre. The above bodies are mostly under DSIR or the Agricultural Research Council, and are not administratively a part of DTC itself. The Tropical Pesticides Research Unit and Tropical Pesticides Headquarters and Information Unit are in a rather different category, being administered by DTC but not having the status of Special Units.

DTC also bears the entire cost of the staff of two independent bodies, the Inter-University Council for Higher Education Overseas (IUC), which recruits staff and provides advice for universities and colleges in a number of developing countries; and the Council for Technical Education and Training for Overseas Countries (TETOC), whose responsibilities cover recruitment, training and advice in the field of technical education. Some of the staff of these two Councils are in fact DTC staff seconded to them, but others are not civil servants at all.

Apart from the above organisations which are wholly financed from DTC funds, the Department does also of course give support, in varying degrees, to a number of independent bodies. Many of these are enumerated in the Department's Estimates (see Appendix II).

(f) Overseas Staff – the Middle East Development Division. The 14 DTC staff serving overseas are all at the Middle East Development Division in Beirut. This is staffed by British civil servants (in temporary appointments) comprising a Director, 6 Advisers (covering Agriculture, Veterinary Medicine and Animal Husbandry, Forestry and Soil Conservation, Economics and Statistics, Engineering and Industry (2)) and supporting staff. The Division was established as long ago as 1946, with its headquarters originally in Cairo, to provide an advisory service to Middle East Governments on economic and social development matters and has been undertaking this work ever since. It covers an area ranging from Turkey in the north, Pakistan in the east, Sudan and Ethiopia in the south, and Libya in the west.

The Middle East Development Division has the dual role of supervising British technical assistance to the countries in its area, and actually providing assistance (through the 6 Advisers) itself. Where necessary, the Division can ask DTC to send out experts to supplement the work of its own Advisers or to work in fields not covered by them. The Middle East Development Division is the only DTC unit of its type overseas. The Department has no other staff overseas for it relies for overseas representation on the staff of other Departments in British high commissions and embassies overseas.

2 Finances

Appendix II shows in full detail the breakdown of the Department of Technical Co-operation's expenditure which, in the financial year 1964/5 (running from 1 April 1964 to 31 March 1965), is expected to reach a **gross** total of £36,479,000. This is £1½m higher than the **net** total and the difference is mainly accounted for by the payment of pensions and compensation to British officers who were formerly in the employment of the

Government of Nigeria: such payments are recovered from the Nigerian Government. It is more meaningful, therefore, to take the **net** figure. Below is set out in summary form the DTC's budget since it was formed on 24 July 1961.

Table 4

Department of Technical Co-operation's Annual Budgets 1961-5
British Government Financial Years (April-March)

Sub-heads of Expenditure (see Appendix II)	(£) Actual Expenditures 1961/2 (8 months only)		Estimated Expenditures 1963/4 1964/5	
	1961/2	1962/3	1963/4	1964/5
A & B Headquarters Salaries and Expenses	635,378	1,114,733	1,275,605	1,452,295
C Special Units	572,149	818,777	522,010	446,000
D Multilateral Assistance ...	2,857,143	3,192,300	3,906,625	3,906,625
E Subscriptions to International Organisations ...	2,081	1,688	15,400	2,315
F-L Bilateral Assistance - Regional Programmes ...	2,202,496	3,864,220	6,385,870	8,438,040
M-Q Bilateral Assistance - Functional	13,030,799	19,018,839	22,565,140	22,146,000
R Minor Services	50,197	219,155	121,350	87,725
Gross Total	19,350,243	28,229,712	34,792,000	36,479,000
Deduct: Z Appropriations in Aid ...	521,419	1,696,000	1,700,000	1,751,000
Net Total	18,828,824	26,533,712	33,092,000	34,728,000

Notes: 1 For a further more detailed breakdown of this table, see Appendix II, which also explains the various sub-heads of expenditure.

2 Figures for 1961/2 and 1962/3 are actual expenditures. For 1963/4, the figures are the revised estimates. For 1964/5, they are unrevised estimates. The official figures for detailed actual expenditures for the years 1963/4 and 1964/5 are not, of course, yet available (by September 1964) although Table 1 shows the published total for 1963/4. For comparative purposes, the estimates for past financial years have been (**net** expenditure in all cases):

	1961/2 (8 months)	1962/3	1963/4	1964/5
Unrevised Estimates	18,020,452	28,398,000	32,897,000	34,728,000
Revised Estimates	19,970,570	28,920,312	33,092,000	

3 The Department of Technical Co-operation's annual vote, as set out above, is not identical with the figure for British technical assistance included in the annual aid totals issued by the Treasury (see Table 2). The Treasury excludes 'headquarters' salaries and expenses' and also excludes subscriptions (but not voluntary contributions) to international bodies like the Colombo Plan Bureau. These are not counted as 'aid' at all. The remainder of DTC's vote is regarded by the Treasury as being equivalent to British technical assistance. This practice is certainly debatable and DTC itself, in making submissions to OECD on British technical assistance expenditure (Table 5 and Appendix I are based on these submissions), differs from the Treasury in two major respects. DTC omits capital aid for university and technical college buildings in the colonies supplied under sub-head N (of the 1964/5 vote) entitled 'Colonial Development and Welfare Schemes', amounting to £1.3m. On the other side, DTC includes certain expenditures on the Colonial Office vote on training schemes in the colonies, amounting to about £4m per year. These differences in practice between Government Departments are extremely confusing. They are quite separate from the issue raised in Chapter 1 and Appendix VI as to whether many other items on the DTC's vote which both the Treasury and DTC count as technical assistance are, in fact, genuine transfers of services and skills at all.

Sources: Civil Appropriation Accounts Class II for 1961/2, 1962/3.
Civil Estimates Class II 1961/2, 1962/3, 1963/4, 1964/5.

As Tables 2 and 4 show, overall technical assistance expenditure, as calculated by the Treasury, has risen six times since 1957/8 and the DTC vote has risen by about 30% (calculated on an annual basis) since the Department was created. This huge increase in expenditure since 1957/8 can be traced back chiefly to the introduction of new schemes, such as the Overseas Service Aid Scheme and Commonwealth Educational Co-operation at the beginning of the present decade just before DTC was set up. Other changes over this period have been a threefold increase in the Regional Programmes of technical assistance, including technical aid to the colonies, and a fourfold rise in contributions to multilateral agencies (largely because of the launching of the UN Special Fund).

What needs to be emphasised in this connection is the extent to which the increased money has been committed from the outset. There has been far less room for planning priorities than the decision to set up a new Department with a £30m budget might imply. In fact, when DTC was formed, it was taking over technical assistance programmes either of long-standing or, as in the case of OSAS and the Commonwealth Educational Co-operation Scheme, with long forward commitments. At its formation, DTC found itself with a ten-year commitment on OSAS, four years to run of the quinquennium for Commonwealth Educational Co-operation, three years on CD & W, a two-year commitment on Colombo Plan expenditure, and so forth. Consequently, the Department has had little room for manoeuvre within its budget and, apart from the rapid expansion of the volunteer programmes and the extension of the geographical range of technical assistance, all the major aspects of today's programme were in existence when the Department was created.

Examination of the pattern of DTC expenditure by programmes (see Table 4 and Appendix II) reveals various different principles of allocation. Broadly, these conform to the different types of department within DTC discussed above. There are allocations for geographical areas; there are allocations for special forms of technical assistance (e.g. provision of personnel) and in two cases – education and research – there are allocations by subject.

So far as possible, the policy is to put as much of the assistance as possible on a geographical basis, which means in effect under the Regional Programmes of technical assistance. All countries to which DTC gives assistance are covered by one or other of these Regional Programmes. The assistance available under them includes provision of experts, training places, equipment, consultancies and surveys, or advice, in almost any subject. In some cases, however, it is not possible to administer assistance on this geographical basis. The Overseas Service Aid Scheme and the pensions and compensation money for Nigeria are kept separate, both because they are schemes established under specific Acts of Parliament (Overseas Service Acts) and it is convenient to account for them separately, but also because they apply to a limited number of specified countries. These sub-heads of the vote, which involve only one form of technical assistance – provision of personnel – are described by DTC as functional technical assistance.

Another functional allocation is that for research. A major reason for research being treated functionally, rather than geographically, is that

much of the money is spent in research establishments in Britain. It would be administratively impossible, as well as thoroughly misleading, to divide this up between countries. Moreover, as will be discussed later, developing countries' research services are only to a limited extent made available in response to requests. The research covers many different subjects.

The Commonwealth Educational Co-operation allocation is another instance where assistance is not given on a regional basis. As with the Overseas Service Aid Scheme, this is limited to a specific range of countries (independent Commonwealth countries and the colonies) and is governed by Acts of Parliament (Commonwealth Scholarships Act and Commonwealth Teachers Act). It covers the provision of many forms of technical assistance for the education sector (scholarships and bursaries, teachers, etc.). Theoretically, of course, the number of subject allocations could be indefinitely extended – there is nothing, other than political and administrative convenience, to prevent there being special programmes for Commonwealth (or Overseas) Agricultural Co-operation or Medical Co-operation, for example.

The present arrangement of DTC's accounts means that in order to find how much technical assistance from DTC's vote has been given by country, one must enquire not only about its Regional Programme allocation (nowhere published) but also about any 'functional' allocation it may be receiving. To calculate the total amount of a particular form of technical assistance, as for instance the supply of experts, then all the Regional technical assistance Programmes **and** the Overseas Service Aid Scheme **and** Commonwealth Educational Co-operation, etc., must be analysed. Similarly, to find out what assistance is being given in a field like agriculture or medicine, it is necessary to look through nearly every heading on DTC's vote.

3 Functions

There are three main phases involved in the organisation of technical assistance. They are, first, identifying the needs which one is prepared to meet and determining policies and priorities. Second comes the raising of the resources required. Third is the administrative task of keeping the programme operational, which basically involves paying out and controlling expenditure of money.

(a) Identifying Needs: Request Procedures

Policy and practice relating to this are fully discussed in Chapter 4. It is the responsibility of DTC to determine policy and priorities in meeting technical assistance requests received from developing countries. In performing these functions, there is close consultation on general policy matters (not technical matters) with the Commonwealth Relations Office and Foreign Office, whose overseas posts are the channel through which most requests are received, from independent countries and with the Colonial Office. DTC itself has some role to play in request formulation, however, through visits by its own administrative and advisory staff and through its overseas staff at the Middle East Development Division.

(b) Raising of the Resources

With the important exception of the Special Units and the Advisers, the staff of DTC do not themselves generally provide technical assistance. They are mostly administrators rather than technical experts. Moreover, the DTC has no training establishments of its own; nor has it under its control any business establishments manufacturing equipment or materials. This means that a major part of the Department's work is the locating and hiring of technical assistance resources from elsewhere in Britain. This job involves the recruitment of personnel for service overseas, the arrangement of courses and individual placements for training men and women from developing countries, the hiring of consultants, the conduct of research work, the purchase of equipment and materials.

It is interesting to reflect that, whilst the technical assistance programme is rendering nearly £30m of services each year to developing countries, they are not the sole beneficiaries. Most of the £30m is actually paid to British personnel overseas, to British makers of equipment, British consultancy firms, universities and other bodies for provision of research and training, British transport firms, etc., for the performance of services for the benefit of developing countries. Even that part which is paid direct to 'foreigners' – e.g. study or training grants – comes back almost immediately in fees for courses or in expenditure on accommodation and other services and goods in Britain. Thus there are always counterpart British beneficiaries under technical assistance, but in this short volume one can do no more than just mention this aspect of technical assistance.

DTC doesn't do all this work of raising the necessary resources itself. Some of it is sub-contracted out to other bodies for administrative convenience. Thus the British Council recruits some staff on DTC's behalf and both places and administers many trainees for it. The Association of Commonwealth Universities places Commonwealth Scholars and the Department of Education's Commonwealth Bursary Unit places Commonwealth Bursars. The DTC leaves to the Crown Agents the recruitment of certain categories of staff (the Crown Agents acting in this case not as agents of DTC but of the developing countries), and the purchase of equipment (for which service DTC does pay). The IUC and TETOC are given the job of recruitment in their particular fields of higher education and the Overseas Nursing Association acts as DTC's agent in the recruitment of nurses. What DTC itself is left with in the matter of actual execution in raising resources is the recruitment of some 1,400 people a year, the placing of some 2,500 students and trainees, commissioning of all consultants, etc. It is interesting to note that the cost to DTC per candidate recruited for service overseas is £194, and the cost of all services provided to trainees and other students handled by Training Department (including Students Branch) of DTC is £34 a head. (The latter figure excludes the cost of placing and other services carried out by the British Council in respect of a proportion of the trainees.)

As a backing for this work, the Department clearly needs mechanisms for maintaining contact with professional bodies, employers, training institutions, and a whole gamut of other institutions in Britain. The sort of help that is needed is partly professional advice; partly it is access for overseas students and trainees to courses organised by British institutions;

in some fields, especially those where there is a 'monopoly' employer or a national system of professional employment, the terms of service for people detached for service abroad may have to be agreed with the competent authorities. Much of the liaison work involved is on an informal and personal basis, but in many specialised fields there are also about twenty permanent Advisory Committees, Panels, and Councils. A list of these is given in Appendix III (*b*). Their membership is drawn predominantly from independent organisations and individuals, though DTC's professional Advisers usually participate as full members and DTC staff members also attend meetings as observers. The Committees and Panels represent a means for the Department to maintain liaison with professional bodies in Britain and enable it both to draw on a wider range of advice than might otherwise be possible, and also to enlist the support of leading members of the professions for Britain's technical assistance activities in particular fields.

In addition to these permanent consultative arrangements, there have been five Committees set up at various times on an *ad hoc* basis by DTC in order to report on British technical aid in specific fields. These have been as follows (for exact titles of documents see Appendix V):

- (i) **Medicine.** Working Party on Medical Aid to the Developing Countries, chaired by Sir Arthur Porritt. Reported January 1962. Report published and Government statement of policy issued March 1963.
- (ii) **Public Administration.** Committee on Training in Public Administration for Overseas Countries, chaired by Lord Bridges. Reported January 1963. Report published March 1963: Government statement of policy accepting most of recommendations July 1963.
- (iii) **Co-operatives.** Advisory Committee on Co-operatives, chaired by Lord Peddie. Reported October 1963; report published January 1964; Government statement of policy accepting most of recommendations also issued January 1964.
- (iv) **Agriculture, Animal Health, Forestry and Fisheries.** Advisory Committee under chairmanship of Mr. F. C. Bawden reported June 1962. Report published February 1964, simultaneously with Government statement of policy on its recommendations.
- (v) **Overseas Mining and Geology.** Advisory Committee set up under the chairmanship of Sir Frederick Brundrett. Reported early 1963. Report published May 1964 together with Government comment on recommendations.

(c) Administration

Finding places for students and trainees and selecting experts and consultants is only a first stage, though perhaps the most vital one, in technical assistance. Immediate arrangements have to be made for passages, accommodation, contracts (in the case of experts) and later on ensuring that the necessary payments and allowances are made to trainees and experts, and that any personal problems concerning living conditions are sorted out. For overseas trainees and scholars coming to Britain, administrative responsibility is transferred in most cases to the British Council, who act as agents for DTC on a repayment basis. In the case of British personnel serving overseas, procedures vary according to the category of

personnel, though in nearly all cases contracts and passages are handled by the Crown Agents. Overseas Service Aid Scheme personnel are the employees of overseas governments, but although they thus do not have to be 'administered' from London there is a vast amount of work involved in assessing entitlement to allowances paid by Britain. Experts under Regional technical assistance Programmes are ultimately employed and fully paid by Britain (even though being at the full disposal of the recipient government to which they are assigned) and here both DTC and British posts abroad are kept very busy with administrative work.

Apart from the above, there are payments for the support of research and other work at institutions which DTC does not itself administer, and this, too, involves many of the Department's staff and much of its administrative resources.

4—Request Procedures, Terms and Priorities

1 Request Procedures

A cardinal principle of British technical assistance policy is to give aid only in response to requests emanating from the developing countries themselves. One cannot do better than quote the officially stated policy of the Department of Technical Co-operation in its White Paper of April 1962, 'Technical Co-operation: A Progress Report by the New Department'. In answer to the question 'on what principle should aid be given?', it gave the answer (para. 36) that this 'presents few difficulties. Britain's policy is to give aid only at the request of the country concerned, and not to impose upon our friends an arbitrary notion of what they ought to have. Not the giving but the receiving countries are in the best position to decide on their needs for outside help, and it is for them to say which of these needs they judge to be most urgent. Britain's job is to respond to the requests they make as best she may within the inevitable limits of men and money available.'

Then how do these requests arise? The answer is slightly different in the case of each of the four main types of bilateral technical assistance – the Regional Programmes, the Overseas Service Aid Scheme, Commonwealth Educational Co-operation, and Research.

(a) Regional Programmes

When people talk about request procedure under British technical assistance, it is usually the Regional Programmes they have in mind. What follows under this sub-heading, except from the general point about representation overseas, applies only to the Regional Programmes.

Under the various Regional Programmes, Britain now gives technical assistance to some 66 independent countries (including Malawi, Malta and Zambia) and 31 dependent territories. Most of these are listed separately in Appendix I. As discussed in greater detail in Chapter 10, the main Regional Programmes are the Colombo Plan, Special Commonwealth African Assistance Plan, and the Central Treaty Organisation. Assistance is also given on quite a large scale to Non-Commonwealth Africa, Latin America, to Commonwealth countries in the Caribbean, and to non-CENTO Middle East countries.

How do countries get into these categories? This is best answered separately for colonies, independent Commonwealth, and foreign countries.

The **colonies** have received British technical assistance ever since it was first given, but they were only brought into the various Regional

Programmes in 1963. (Previously they received technical assistance under Colonial Development and Welfare.)

Independent Commonwealth countries. India, Pakistan and Ceylon began to receive assistance when the Colombo Plan was established in 1950, some years after they became independent. In nearly all other cases, technical assistance continued when colonies became independent (Malaya joined the Colombo Plan as an independent member in 1957 and Ghana and Nigeria and Sierra Leone were each the subject of special arrangements until the Special Commonwealth African Assistance Plan got under way). Cyprus was an exception because, although becoming independent in 1960, she was only included in technical assistance arrangements in the financial year 1962/3, eighteen months later.

Foreign countries either began to receive technical assistance when they joined the Colombo Plan, CENTO or FAMA respectively; or in 1962/3 when the DTC first introduced aid to certain Latin American, Middle Eastern and Far Eastern countries which had not previously received British technical assistance.

Aid under all these Regional Programmes is given bilaterally direct by Britain to the recipient. In a few cases there is an actual agreement about technical assistance, but these agreements are confined to rather minor details of who pays for what, and technical assistance still flows quite smoothly even where the agreement is not yet signed.

Independent countries normally submit requests through the British Embassy or High Commission in their country. Colonies can approach DTC direct. Britain does not have special offices dealing with aid and technical assistance of the type that the American AID for example has, either on a country or area basis. The sole exception is the Middle East Development Division, already referred to on page 34. Instead, aid and technical assistance matters are handled by British Embassy or High Commission staff who include this with their other duties. In some countries, British technical assistance has grown to such an extent that it has proved necessary to appoint someone with full-time special responsibility for technical assistance matters. So far, there are ten of these officers serving in Sierra Leone, Ghana, Nigeria, Uganda, Kenya, Tanganyika, Jordan, Iran, Pakistan and Malaysia. They are appointed by the Commonwealth Relations Office or Foreign Office in consultation with the Department of Technical Co-operation. They are FO or CRO staff and are on their payroll—the DTC is not expected to reimburse the overseas departments at all for their salaries. In one or two cases, members of DTC's own staff have been seconded to fill these posts and it is possible that this practice will be extended. The duties of these officers, or of other embassy and high commission staff where there is nobody especially responsible, are broadly threefold. They are expected to act as quartermasters for British technical assistance personnel in the countries concerned; they liaise with the authorities of the country where they are stationed, keeping themselves informed about the economic and social plans of these countries and particularly of their technical assistance requirements; and they report back to the Department of Technical Co-operation.

The Regional Programmes each have a total allocation published and approved by Parliament at the beginning of each financial year, but individual developing countries are not normally told how much they can expect to receive each year under technical assistance. Theoretically, this could hamper developing countries in their planning and they might find it useful to know exactly what they could count on obtaining. But there are powerful arguments operating in the other direction, the main one being to preserve flexibility in responding to requests as and when they arise. DTC claims that it has in fact been financially able so far to accept **all** reasonable requests for technical assistance under the Regional Programmes, so that the naming of specific sums might, in some cases, have turned out to be unnecessarily limiting. If allocations to each country were revealed, Britain might find herself under pressure to spend up to a definite sum whether or not there were enough worthwhile technical assistance projects in a particular country to merit this. It is also true that technical assistance differs from capital assistance in that the donor cannot be so sure of having the resources available. Whilst it is reasonably certain in regard to a loan for capital equipment that there will be a firm anxious and able to supply the plant and machinery, it is by no means certain in relation to a particular specialised expert requested under technical assistance that it will be possible to recruit him. Furthermore, technical assistance covers such a diverse range of subjects and services that no developing country has in fact yet learned to plan the use of expected technical assistance in any very great detail. In any case, it is not difficult in practice for a country to work out, by rule of thumb, the approximate number of experts or training places it may expect to receive from Britain under the Regional Programmes. It can simply look at its own experience in past years and the total increase in the DTC's budget for the region in which it is situated.

The absence of any financial bottleneck is surprising, to say the least, and immediately raises the following crucial question. If it is true that the potential needs of developing countries for operational and advisory personnel, for training and for equipment are almost incalculably great, how is it that Britain is not flooded with technical assistance requests? It seems strange, but is apparently true, that Britain should not have choice and priorities forced upon her by too many reasonable demands in relation to her resources.

Possible explanations for the flow of good requests for technical assistance being small in relation to the needs of developing countries are many. First, there may in some cases be a natural reluctance to ask for help at all. The whole donor-recipient relationship is not a comfortable one and there will often be occasions when it does not suit developing countries to be in the posture of asking for aid from Britain or of having too many foreign experts in key positions. Second, even where there is no reluctance to ask for help, developing countries may have difficulty in knowing what to ask for, or what sort of help is available. Third, the aid-requesting machinery in developing countries may suffer from administrative blockages due to disagreement within the government over the right priorities, to inadequate channels of communication between operational workers on the job who need help on the one hand, and the government

authorities responsible for making technical assistance requests on the other, or simply to lack of able civil servants in sufficient quantities. The very act of preparing a technical assistance request, and making the necessary arrangements for an expert, may take more of an official's time than can readily be spared and many developing countries are administratively too weak to plan the making of requests for the help they so badly need. Fourth, most requests are subject to discussion with British representatives during the process of formulation and before they are formally submitted to DTC. Tentative approaches for assistance which Britain is doubtful about her ability to provide may therefore be discouraged at an early stage. Fifth, the terms of British technical assistance may be the obstacle. It is not free (nor, generally speaking, is that given by other countries). Britain pays for an expert under the Regional technical assistance Programme as regards his salary and travel to and from his post. But the receiving country finds and pays for his accommodation, internal travel including use of a car, office and secretarial needs, medical services, etc. In addition, it exempts the expert from local income tax, and is normally expected to provide a counterpart who will take over when the expert leaves. In the case of trainees coming to the United Kingdom under technical assistance, Britain pays all costs arising directly from the training, but the developing country has to pay the trainee's salary, or at least enough of it to enable him to support his dependants, etc., and has also to find a substitute to do the man's job at home while he is away. Paradoxically, therefore, countries may feel they are unable to **afford** to accept British technical assistance, and in all cases it must be realised that the organisational effort and the expense of technical assistance are some disincentive to asking for it. Where cost or administrative shortages are not a problem, it may be that Britain's criteria, such as concentration on key posts or reluctance to give training at lower than postgraduate level, act as a brake.

There are, of course, certain ways in which Britain can and does try to help developing countries overcome these difficulties. The role of our embassies and high commissions is partly to help with the framing of requests, and to let developing countries know what Britain is in a position to offer. In addition, the periodic visits by DTC's Advisers also frequently result in the identification of some project that Britain can usefully help with. It is not, therefore, strictly true to say that Britain does nothing to stimulate or assist with requests from developing countries for technical assistance, although it **is** true that under the Regional Programmes Britain neither can, nor does, proceed with technical assistance which is not the subject of a formal request. Another potential method of easing the administrative strain on developing countries in making requests is of course to make available technical assistance personnel for this very purpose, and some British personnel in developing countries are engaged on this task. A final way of stimulating requests would be to give more publicity to ways in which Britain is ready to help: but so far DTC has not been forward with its publicity.

Related to the problem of lack of requests is the fact that some requests under the Regional Programmes are formally made but never come to fruition. Amongst the general possible reasons are:

- (i) that the request is outside the scope of the Technical Assistance Programme. One of the main conditions of assistance under such Programmes is that the operation must be conducive to the economic and/or social advancement of the developing country. A request for an expert in restoration of paintings, or for the training of fashion designers, would not be likely to be accepted by the British Government.
- (ii) that the job to be done (in the case of experts) is insufficiently defined – though this would be a cause of delay rather than outright rejection of the request;
- (iii) that candidates for training are unsuitably qualified for the course they wish to pursue and speak insufficient English;
- (iv) that the expert put forward by Britain is unacceptable to the developing country (this is infrequent);
- (v) that the technical assistance resources are not available. It may prove impossible to find the desired expert or the training place requested, even though in every other respect the request is perfectly acceptable;
- (vi) that finance is not immediately available. As mentioned above, general experience to date has apparently been that this is not a limiting factor. But obviously it could be in future if the volume of requests was to grow.

None of these various causes of failure with requests is an insuperable problem, though clearly the last two are always a potential limit. The first four, however, are all matters which experience and good liaison can help to overcome.

(b) The Overseas Service Aid Scheme

Here the position is rather less complicated than under the Regional Programmes. As will be explained more fully in Chapter 5, the Overseas Service Aid Scheme (OSAS) is a financial device for enabling certain Commonwealth developing countries to afford the services of expatriate (almost entirely British) personnel. It relates only to the provision of operational staff. Initiative in requesting the necessary finance is called for from such developing countries as are eligible (the original formulation of the Scheme excluded some of the more wealthy territories – see page 59) at two stages under this Scheme: first, at the moment of signing the ten-year (from April 1961) agreement with Britain, and second in agreeing each year the number of public service officers to be covered and the expenditure involved. In addition, they can put forward requests to DTC for recruitment help in filling posts for which financial provision under OSAS has already been agreed. However, these posts are almost invariably ones which have fallen vacant as a result of an expatriate's retirement and for which no suitable local candidate is yet available; and, although developing countries may make requests for fresh recruitment on a considerable scale under the Scheme to offset retirements, the scope for requesting **increased** financial aid under the Overseas Service Aid Scheme is negligible.

(c) Commonwealth Educational Co-operation

The main elements in this programme are the Commonwealth Scholarship Scheme, Commonwealth Teacher-Training Bursaries, and the supply of teachers. Under the Scholarship and Bursary Schemes, the number of awards offered by Britain is fixed at an average of 500 Scholarships held in any one year, and about 450 Bursaries of all kinds per year. British authorities are responsible for determining the number of nominations invited from each country. Under the Scholarship Scheme, the total number of awards is limited by statute. There is a country quota system under this Scheme which, however, allows for a measure of flexibility enabling countries offering a good field of nominations to be granted more than their nominal quota of awards. There is no quota system for the award of Bursaries.

As regards the supply of teachers under Commonwealth Educational Co-operation arrangements, the limit is not fixed in absolute numerical terms for each country. For school teachers (for whom governments submit requests), however, it has been limited to 'key posts'. For university teachers (where the overseas university has the responsibility for making its needs known), there has been much more flexibility. In fact, as with the Regional technical assistance Programmes, finance has not proved a difficulty and other factors have been more important in accounting for the low level of activity (see Chapter 10). It is, however, obvious that over the past five years (1960-65), for which Parliament voted a total of £6m to Commonwealth Educational Co-operation, any great expansion in the number of requests would soon have hit up against this monetary limit.

(d) Research

Although the Department of Technical Co-operation's research vote is included in the official figures for British aid to developing countries, by no means all the research expenditure is undertaken in direct response to requests from them. Much of it is decided by the DTC's advisory committees or arises from proposals made by individual organisations in Britain. The influence of the past is particularly strong in the research field - most of the research now supported from DTC funds was started before independence with CD & W funds.

* * *

The conclusion to be drawn from this survey of request procedures is that whilst it may be true to say that 'the receiving countries are in the best position to decide on their needs for outside help, and it is for them to say which of these needs they judge to be most urgent', this is only a very approximate description of what in fact happens under British technical assistance schemes as they actually operate. It exaggerates the extent to which the pattern of British technical assistance is in fact determined as a result of independent decision-making by developing countries.

2 Terms

Terms will be discussed in more detail later on under the various forms of technical assistance Britain makes available. However, some general points may be made:

- (i) Virtually the whole of British technical assistance is on a grant basis. The only loan item of DTC's vote is a small sum to Nigeria (see sub-head P3 in Appendix II) to meet 50% of advances of compensation and this is repayable. The £1½m grant under sub-head P2 is rather similar. Nigeria reimburses Britain for these outlays, which thus involve the UK in hardly any net expenditure whatsoever in the long term.
- (ii) This does not mean that Britain meets the whole cost of the technical assistance activity. It merely means that the British share of the cost of the technical assistance operation is given free. The principle of contributions from the benefiting developing country runs through nearly all programmes. Sometimes Britain contributes by merely topping up basic overseas salaries and, as described earlier in this chapter, even when experts are full employees of the British Government the developing country must meet a number of local costs. Sometimes there are other expenses which arise for developing countries, like a share of the consultancy fees or travel costs for Commonwealth Bursars. Only very rarely does British technical assistance cost developing countries nothing.
- (iii) British technical assistance is generally tied both in the sense of allocation for specific purposes and in the sense of being tied to goods and services of British origin. This means, in the first sense, that money is rarely handed to developing countries for the general support of running costs or payment for unspecified skills or training places, but only in connection with the services of specific experts, consultants, etc. (as for instance under OSAS). In the second sense, this means that in nearly every case experts, training courses and equipment must be of British origin. The only exceptions which come to mind are that some experts supplied to dependent territories under OSAS happen to be of non-British origin (Australians, Canadians, etc.), and that training at British expense is given in Trinidad in agriculture, in Cyprus in forestry, and at Makerere in Uganda in education (teacher-training).

3 Priorities

In the earlier section on DTC's finances, three types of breakdown of technical assistance were discussed – by country, by form of assistance, and by subject. Given the resources available, how is allocation between them determined? The stock answer to this question is that allocation is determined by requests from developing countries, but as was pointed out in the previous chapter that is only a partial description of the truth, and there is often a greater area for initiative by Britain than this suggests, at least within the Regional Programmes. Outside the Regional Programmes, where the great weight of DTC expenditure lies, there is much

less freedom of choice because of the long-term nature of past commitments, and the pattern of expenditure under OSAS, because of the Scheme's size, tends to distort the whole picture (compare, for instance, in Appendix I technical assistance expenditure in Sarawak, which is eligible for OSAS support, with that in India, which is not). Leaving aside these important considerations, however, the following are the types of factor that tend to have influence.

(a) Choice between Countries

Altogether nearly one hundred independent countries and dependent territories receive British technical assistance. Appendix I shows how British technical assistance was distributed by country in 1961, 1962 and 1963. From this, certain obvious points stand out.

First, the flow of technical assistance, as indeed of all aid, is a reflection of the state of Britain's political relations with the recipient. This is shown particularly by the predominance of Commonwealth developing countries among recipients. Commonwealth countries receive as much as 94% of British bilateral technical assistance. In the case of the Commonwealth, quite apart from the consistently good political relations Britain usually enjoys with member countries, cultural factors such as a shared language and similar institutional structures make the flow of technical assistance much easier than to other countries.

An extension of this obvious preference for Commonwealth countries is that some foreign countries with whom Britain has close political and military ties certainly do better than others. Indeed, the impression is given in two cases – CENTO and SEATO – that developing countries receive British technical assistance only because they are members of a military alliance. Conversely, where Britain's political relations are strained, the technical assistance stream tends to dry up at both ends. New requests cease and Britain herself may take a positive decision to withdraw assistance already being given. As an example, technical assistance from Britain to Indonesia is one recent casualty of strained relations between the two countries.

Where there is little to choose between individual countries on political grounds, there are many other factors influencing decisions to give more or less technical assistance. Countries with well worked out development plans and well formulated schemes for which technical help is needed may well find this gives them the edge over others ('to him that hath shall be given'). There is some tendency for small and structurally uncomplicated countries to get help because of the proportionately greater impact that can be made there. There is no doubt that the strength of British commercial interests is a factor having influence. Finally, the character and vigour of the British representatives in the field can be of outstanding importance – certainly examples could be cited where high commissioners and ambassadors have 'bumped up' the amount of technical assistance flowing to 'their' countries by sheer energy and persistence.

(b) Choice between Subjects

The wide range of different subjects and the great difficulty of identifying expenditures by subject in programmes organised on a geographical or

functional basis make it impossible to survey British technical assistance subject by subject in this pamphlet. Where possible, however, a breakdown by subject of study or by expertise of British personnel operating overseas is given. For the two specific fields of agriculture and education, reference can be made to ODI's separately published pamphlets on these subjects.

Almost any subject falling within the area of social and economic development is eligible for British technical assistance. In *'Technical Co-operation: A Progress Report by the New Department'* (April 1962), the DTC set out the various types of technical assistance Britain could best supply. 'Our experience of past needs and requests shows that there are certain types of technical assistance which Britain is well fitted to supply and for which we may expect to receive demands in future. . . . The list is not in any order of priority, nor is it exclusive. Some things we are doing or hope to do have been left out of it, such as educational television, the training of the press, broadcasting and film officers and journalists, advice on local government and land tenure, and assistance in law reform. But these are the main areas in which it is intended to give our help even though we shall also do what we can to meet other requests.' There then followed a list of 12 types of technical assistance as follows:

- (i) training of public servants;
- (ii) supply of university and secondary school teachers and staff for teacher training colleges;
- (iii) technical education and training;
- (iv) staff and training for economic and financial planning;
- (v) geodetic and topographical surveys, geological surveys and help in developing mineral resources;
- (vi) supply of staff, advice and training to develop agricultural and other natural resources;
- (vii) advice, staff and training for industrial development;
- (viii) engineering surveys and assistance in telecommunications;
- (ix) the development of scientific research;
- (x) supply of qualified medical and nursing staff and medical and nursing training;
- (xi) individual service overseas through voluntary societies;
- (xii) management training.

This list is, of course, so comprehensive as to be almost meaningless. Once one has covered the civil service, education, health, telecommunications, agricultural and animal resources, industrial development and engineering, and scientific research, there is not a great deal left! (Perhaps mass communication outside the education system, distribution, marketing and commerce are the most notable omissions from the list.)

As mentioned below, Reports of Advisory Committees have been published on items (i), (v), (vi), and (x); also on assistance in the field of co-operatives.

(c) Choice between Forms of Assistance

Table 5 shows how British bilateral technical assistance was distributed in 1962 and 1963 amongst the various forms of assistance, and also by programme. This pattern of expenditure is not necessarily a true reflection of consciously formulated priorities. Much of it is due to 'prior commitments' including the great block of OSAS money accounting for about 60% of

52 Table 5

British Bilateral Technical Assistance Expenditure for Calendar Years 1962 and 1963 *
by Programme and by Form of Assistance

Technical Assistance Programme		Students and Trainees	Experts	Equipment	Consultants	Surveys ¹	Research	Others	Total
(£'000)									
1962									
Colombo Plan	...	849.0	429.2	415.2	58.7	—	—	8.6	1,760.7
SCAAP	...	233.2	275.2	65.9	21.7	190.1	—	15.2	801.3
Non-Commonwealth Africa	...	17.7	21.6	5.2	—	—	—	1.6	46.1
CENTO	...	80.3	153.3	637.5 ^a	—	—	—	30.5	901.63
SEATO	...	—	6.1	15.5	—	—	—	—	21.6
Commonwealth Caribbean	...	—	0.6	—	—	—	—	—	0.6
Other Countries	...	1.7	4.3	1.9	—	—	—	—	7.9
Total Regional Programmes									
OSAS	...	1,181.9	890.3	1,141.2	80.4	190.1	—	55.9	3,539.8
CEC	...	—	12,704.8	—	—	—	—	—	12,704.8
CD & W	...	919.3	23.1	—	—	—	—	—	942.4
Others	...	682.84	3.15	—	—	—	—	306.2	992.1
	...	36.8	1,093.66	—	—	915.2	1,517.2	34.9	3,597.7
Total	...	2,820.8	14,714.9	1,141.2	80.4	1,105.3	1,517.2	397.0	21,786.8

TABLE 5 (continued)

1963

Colombo Plan	854.8	622.8	271.7	74.0	—	—	1.9	1,825.2
SCAAP	432.4	508.8	45.7	25.5	354.9	—	11.7	1,399.0
Non-Commonwealth Africa	33.0	28.0	4.4	—	—	—	—	65.4
CENTO	112.6	131.7	610.0*	—	—	—	25.7	880.0 ³
SEATO	—	16.6	26.9	—	—	—	—	43.5
Commonwealth Caribbean	48.2	13.6	—	—	20.4	—	—	82.2
Other Countries	55.9	46.4	11.3	15.6	4.7	—	—	133.9
Total Regional Programmes	1,556.9	1,367.9	970.0	115.1	380.0	—	39.3	4,429.2
OSAS	—	15,155.4	—	—	—	—	—	15,155.4
CEC	762.9	215.0	—	—	—	—	35.0	1,012.9
CID & W	629.24	—	—	—	—	—	161.0	810.2
Others	46.7	16.86	—	—	740.6	1,765.2	222.2	2,791.5
Total	3,015.7	16,755.1	970.0	115.1	1,120.6	1,765.2	457.5	24,199.2
% 1963	(12.5)	(69.3)	(4.0)	(0.5)	(4.6)	(7.3)	(1.9)	(100.0)

* DTC vote excluding Multilateral Contributions, capital aid for higher education in colonies, administration costs, loans to Nigeria for compensation; also includes local training financed from CD & W territorial allocations (Colonial Office vote) - see Note 4.

Notes: 1 Mapping and geological surveys, carried out by DOS and OGS.

2 75% of the equipment supplied under CENTO in 1962, and 80% in 1963 was construction equipment.

3 Excludes contribution of £17,860 each year to CENTO Multilateral Technical Co-operation Fund.

4 Including £529,600 in 1962 and £562,100 in 1963 for local training in developing countries under CID & W territorial allocations (Colonial Office vote).

5 Contribution to volunteer schemes.

6 Mostly Nigerian Special List Officers.

Source: DTC (previously unpublished).

total British bilateral technical assistance expenditure in 1962 and 1963. Leaving aside OSAS, training and research each received allocations greater than that for experts in 1963. Moreover, there is a growing recognition that the aim of technical assistance should be to give the developing countries greater independence in the sense of being able to rely on their own skills and technical resources. This means that the assignment of experts is understood to have a training element in it and that greater emphasis is being placed in all facets of assistance in making developing countries more self-sufficient.

It is thus hardly possible to speak of decisions being taken to give some forms of assistance priority over others. In each case, the pattern of technical assistance must be tailored to the particular requirements of individual countries, and these will vary both between countries and over time.

The various forms of British technical assistance are separately described more fully in Chapters 5-9 following. It must be stressed that this is being done purely for convenience of layout. The different facets of technical assistance described in succeeding chapters are, of course, closely inter-related. Thus research and survey activities overseas involve the sending of people; equipment is supplied in conjunction with experts, and so on. Perhaps the weakest link is lack of any close integration of programmes to supply personnel for overseas countries and those to provide training in Britain.

There are, however, a few cases where Britain deliberately co-ordinates many of these different forms of aid into a specially designed programme of institutional aid. Apart from the Durgapur steelworks in India, these institutions are all in the educational training and research field. Perhaps the best known and most frequently cited case is the Indian Institute of Technology at Delhi to which Britain has been giving assistance since 1958 (Britain was following the precedents of American sponsorship of the Institute of Technology at Kharagpur, German sponsorship of Madras, and Russian sponsorship of Bombay). From the start, this has been a co-operative venture both on an international level between Britain and India and, within Britain, between Government, industry and academic interests. The total British contribution promised up to 1967 is £1,150,000, of which about £450,000 is in equipment given by British industry and the rest is Government finance for equipment and the salaries of 15 British professors and other staff. Imperial College, London, has entered into a special relationship with the Institute which will be given effect principally by the secondment of staff and acceptance of Indian staff for training.

Other examples of technical assistance to particular institutions are the help being given to the Engineering Department at the University of Chulalongkorn in Thailand, and the staff and finance for the CENTO Institute of Nuclear Science and Agricultural Machinery and Soil Conservation Training Centre. DTC is also supporting, principally from Commonwealth Educational Co-operation Funds, numerous other 'link' arrangements of the Delhi type between British universities and university institutions in developing countries, mostly in Africa. The links include exchanges of staff, provision of advice, help with devising syllabi, acting as external assessors for examination purposes, and so forth.

Table 6

British Technical Assistance Personnel in Developing Countries: Summary Table

Categories (see text for explanation)	Numbers at 31 December 1963					New Recruitment in 1963 ⁴					Total Recruitment 1963 as % of those serving	Employer	UK Share of Current Pay and Allowances	Approx. cost to UK 1963 £m	Career or Contract	
	Advisers	T	Other Op.	Total		Advisers	T	Other Op.	Total							
A. Directly Financed by Aid																
1. Regional Programme Experts	133	84	143	360	(212)	116	41	98	255	(160) ⁵	71	British Govt. Overseas Govts. and Public Bodies	100% Small	1·37 15·16	Contract About 55% Career 45% Contract (new recruits 100% Contract)
2. Overseas Service Aid Scheme	—	1,472	10,528	12,000	(14,400)	—	379	755	1,134	(1,062)	9				
3. Commonwealth Educational Co-operation	—	144	—	144	(55)	—	161	—	161	(120)	112	Overseas Govts. and Universities	Small	02·2	Contract	
4. Nigerian Special List Officers	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	660 ¹	(n.a.)	—	—	—	(—)	—	British and Nigerian ³	V. small	Neg.	Career	
B. Indirectly Financed by Aid																
5. Volunteers																
(a) Graduate and Qualified	—	182	77	259	(36)	—	175	77	252	(36)	97	UK voluntary agencies UK voluntary agencies (VSO) International Organisations	50% British costs (prob. about 30% total cost) 33½% British costs (about 20% total cost) None ²	0·12	Contract Contract
(b) School-leaver	—	210	112	322	(260)	—	210	112	322	(260)	100				
6. UN and International Programmes ⁶ ...	110	396	73	579	(n.a.)	n.a.	55	n.a.	135	(134)	23			Nil	Contract	
C. Financed Outside Aid Programmes																
7. British Council																
(a) London-appointed Overseas Staffs	—	319	—	319	(294)	—	15	—	15	(9)	5	British Council Overseas Insts. Overseas Insts.	100% 100% Varying	1·23 0·37 {	Career Contract	
(b) Other Wholly Financed Posts ...	—	13	—	13	(8)	—	18	—	18	(14)	138					
(c) Subsidised Posts ...	—	142	—	142	(165)	—	66	—	66	(46)	47					
D. Overall Responsibility but no Finance																
8. HMOCS Officers outside OSAS and Nigerian Special List	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	2,600 ¹	(n.a.)	—	—	—	—	(—)	—	Commonwealth and Colonial Govts.	None	Nil	Career	
9. British Council Non-financed Teachers on Guaranteed Terms ...	—	157	—	157	(178)	—	59	—	59 ⁷	(95)	37	Overseas Insts. and Education Authorities	None	Nil	Contract	
E. Recruited by UK Public Bodies but not otherwise under their sponsorship																
10. DTC ...	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	(n.a.)	—	21	119	140	(134)	n.a.	Overseas Insts. {	None None None None	Nil Nil Nil Nil	Contract Contract Contract Contract	
11. IUC ...	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	(n.a.)	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	(152)	n.a.					
12. TETOC ...	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	(n.a.)	—	20	—	20	(20)	n.a.					
13. Crown Agents ...	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	(n.a.)	—	—	213	213	(248)	n.a.					

1 Very approximate.

2 None directly, but UK does contribute to the budgets of these international bodies.

3 A small number on List A only - see Chapter II.

4 Excluding re-engagements.

5 Including 26 people on very short term missions, some of which were financed from CD & W.

6 Data for international exports in past relate to 1 July 1963, not 31 December. Recruitment figures for international exports include only those found through DTC.

7 Five of these British Council recruits were neither financed, nor on guaranteed terms.

T—Teachers (operational).

Other Op.—Other Operational.

n.a.—Not available.

neg.—Negligible.

Figures in parentheses () refer to 1962 comparative data.

Source: Compiled from data made available by DTC and the British Council.

5—Supply of Personnel

Britain supplies personnel for technical assistance work through a number of different schemes and channels. Even if one confines one's attention to Government operations only, 'supply of personnel' may be used to describe very different processes. It may include recruitment and financing; sometimes recruitment only; and occasionally financing only, with actual recruitment being undertaken by independent bodies. But there is the additional complication that other British public bodies also supply personnel to developing countries in these various ways. This is why one finds such different estimates being given at various times of the numbers of British technical assistance personnel overseas at any one moment, or of the numbers recruited in any one year. If one restricted this to people recruited and wholly financed by the Government out of aid funds, one would be left with the total of only 360 overseas at 31 December, 1963 (see Table 6). But by extending this to include all the people at present serving overseas who are financed to some degree by HMG or the British Council, or who were at some time in the past recruited by them or by associated organisations (like, for instance, the Inter-University Council, or the Crown Agents), the total quickly mushrooms to a figure of around 19,000.

Table 6 presents the various schemes in tabular form, both in terms of numbers serving and new recruits. It includes categories which Britain is directly or indirectly financing; or to whom (as in the case of HMOCS personnel) the British Government has some continuing obligation. It also includes, where data is obtainable, those once recruited but for whom there is no continuing financial or other obligation.

In this chapter, the supply of personnel is discussed from two distinct points of view—the numbers at present overseas and new recruitment. Given sufficient data, it would be possible to show the exact extent to which the present annual 'flow' of new recruits was sufficient to maintain the existing 'stock' of people in the field. At present the overall numbers of British technical assistance personnel in the field are falling: the rise in numbers between 1962 and 1963 in most categories has been offset by a heavy fall in Overseas Service Aid Scheme personnel. Despite recruitment of almost 3,000 people in the various categories shown in Table 6, there was a net fall of about 2,000 British people overseas during 1963.

1 British Personnel Overseas—Schemes and Categories

Table 6 sets out the best available information on the situation as at 31 December 1963. For those schemes where Britain gives financial support, the figures are fairly accurate: it is necessary to keep records for accounting reasons in these cases. For the Nigerian Special List and other HMOCS categories, the data are only approximate. For the numbers of those still

Table 7

**Countries where Regional Programme Expert Assignments
have been Completed up to 1.1.64**

<i>Country</i>	<i>Col. Plan</i>	<i>SCAAP</i>	<i>Non-Commonwealth Africa</i>	<i>CENTO</i>	<i>SEATO</i>	<i>Middle East, Cyp., Alg.</i>	<i>Caribbean & Latin America</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>%</i>
Barbados ...	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	1	—	2
British Honduras ...	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	1	—	2
Bechuanaland ...	—	2	—	—	—	—	—	2	—	4
Ceylon ...	109	—	—	—	—	—	—	109	21	3
Cyprus ...	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	1	—	2
Gambia ...	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	2
Ghana ...	—	34	—	—	—	—	—	34	6	6
Hong Kong ...	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	2
India ...	153	—	—	—	—	—	—	153	29	9
Jamaica ...	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	2	—	4
Kenya ...	—	3	—	—	—	—	—	3	—	6
Fed. of Malaya ...	25	—	—	—	—	—	—	25	4	9
N. Rhodesia (Zambia) ...	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	2
Nigeria ...	—	70	—	—	—	—	—	70	13	7
Nyasaland (Malawi) ...	—	5	—	—	—	—	—	5	—	0
Pakistan ...	91	—	—	1	1	—	—	93	18	2
St. Lucia ...	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	1	—	2
St. Vincent ...	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	1	—	2
Sierra Leone ...	—	3	—	—	—	—	—	3	—	6
Tanganyika ...	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	2
Trinidad ...	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	1	—	2
Uganda ...	—	2	—	—	—	—	—	2	—	4
Commonwealth Total...	379	122	—	1	1	1	7	511	100.0	80.6
Afghanistan ...	—	—	—	—	—	2	—	2	—	6
Algeria ...	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	1	—	8
Bolivia ...	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	2	—	6
Burma ...	25	—	—	—	—	—	—	25	20	3
Cambodia...	4	—	—	—	—	—	—	4	—	3
Chile ...	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	1	—	8
Ethiopia ...	—	—	3	—	—	—	—	3	—	4
Guinea ...	—	—	4	—	—	—	—	4	—	3
Indonesia ...	10	—	—	—	—	—	—	10	8	1
Iran ...	—	—	—	16	—	—	—	16	13	1
Iraq ...	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	1	—	8
Ivory Coast ...	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	1	—	8
Jordan ...	—	—	—	—	—	2	—	2	—	6
Laos ...	6	—	—	—	—	—	—	6	4	9
Nepal ...	5	—	—	—	—	—	—	5	4	1
Somalia ...	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	1	—	8
Sudan ...	—	—	2	—	—	—	—	2	—	6
Syria ...	—	—	—	—	—	2	—	2	—	6
Thailand ...	11	—	—	—	1	—	—	12	9	8
Togo ...	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	1	—	8
Turkey ...	—	—	—	14	—	—	—	14	11	4
Vietnam ...	8	—	—	—	—	—	—	8	6	5
Foreign Total ...	69	—	12	30	1	8	3	123	100.0	19.4
Grand Total ...	448	122	12	31	2	9	10	634	100.0	—

Source: DTC lists of assignments completed 1 January 1964.

serving overseas who were recruited at some time in the past by British public bodies acting as agents for overseas organisations and institutions, reliable data are simply not available. Tables 18 and 19 give a breakdown by country, scheme and field of activity of the various personnel in post under the main schemes on 31 December 1963. These programmes are described below.

(a) Regional Programme Experts

Under her Regional Programmes, whose framework is discussed more fully in Chapter 10, Britain gives technical help, on a bilateral basis to nearly a hundred independent countries and colonies. One of the forms this help takes is the provision of 'experts': others include training, surveys and consultancies, and equipment for training and research institutions (see Chapters 6, 8 and 9). These technical assistance experts are formally employed and have all their salary and allowances paid by the British Government. The only exception to this is when they occupy an established operational post in the government service of an overseas country, which would then be expected to contribute the equivalent of the local basic salary and the British Government 'tops up' this to a level sufficient to attract the men to the job concerned. The British Government also pays all travel to and from the country where the expert is to serve. During their period of service overseas, experts' services are entirely at the disposal of the recipient or host government. The host government is responsible for providing accommodation, local travel expenses including normally the provision of a car, office facilities, and also gives exemption from income tax. Where possible and appropriate it is also stipulated that overseas governments attach to the expert a 'counterpart', who will learn from him and take over when he leaves. In a very few cases of obvious inability to provide some of these local services, such as accommodation, Britain has helped with this, for example by paying hotel expenses.

Up to the beginning of January 1964, a total of 634 British technical assistance experts had concluded their assignments in 44 countries and territories, as shown in Table 7 (there were 353 in post on 1 January 1964, making a total of 987 recruited altogether). On the last day of December 1963, there were 360 British experts overseas under these schemes, divided among 133 advisers, 84 teachers, and 143 'other operational'. A breakdown of the 360 by Regional Programme and category shows the following:

Table 8
Regional Programme Experts in Post December 1963: By Programme and Category

					<i>Advisers</i>	<i>Teachers</i>	<i>Other Operational</i>	<i>Total</i>
Colombo Plan	45	38	42	125
SEATO	—	1	2	3
CENTO	9	19	12	40
SCAAP	60	20	74	154
Non-Commonwealth Africa	1	3	1	5
Other	18	3	12	33
Total	133	84	143	360

Source: DTC (previously unpublished).

The individual **countries** with most of these Regional Programme personnel were Nigeria 79, Ghana 38, Pakistan 36, India 29, Malaya 29, and Iran 26 (see Table 18, cols. 1, 2 and 4). Between them they thus had 237 people, or very nearly two-thirds of the total. Some special factors account for this distribution. The first five are all Commonwealth developing countries who for one reason or another are outside the Overseas Service Aid Scheme, as also are Ceylon (7 experts) and Sierra Leone (with 4). It is possible to attribute their high 'scores' in part to the fact that the Regional Programmes are the only major channel open for the provision of British assistance to them. Nigeria, Ghana and Malaya in particular were all until recently very dependent on British personnel in their government services, and the Regional Programmes are, to a limited extent, continuing to meet this need. In India and Pakistan, whose independence came ten years earlier, technical assistance personnel were never conceived of in quite the same sort of way – the help they receive is mostly in the form of advisory experts and teachers – and consequently assistance to them has always been so much more modest in relation to their size. Iran is a special case because its 26 personnel include staff at two CENTO institutions in or near Tehran – the Institute of Nuclear Science and the Agricultural Machinery and Soil Conservation Centre.

Of the 360 serving abroad on 31 December 1963, only 26 were on assignments of less than a year. Of course, a 'stocktaking' of the **numbers overseas** on a certain date is bound to give a slightly misleading impression of the overall proportion of short-term **recruits** to long. Thus out of 255 experts recruited under Regional Programmes in 1963, 76 were short-term (under 12 months) and 179 long-term. Taking advisory experts only, Britain provided 65 short-term ones as against 51 long-term in 1963. But in teaching and other operational jobs, only 11 of the experts were short-term and 128 long-term.

An analysis of the 634 experts who had completed their assignments by the beginning of January 1964 shows the following length of service:

Table 9
Length of Completed Assignments by Regional Programme Experts

								<i>Total</i>	<i>%</i>
Under 1 month	76	12
1-under 2 months	87	14
2-under 3 months	35	5
3-under 6 months	67	11
6-under 9 months	51	8
9-under 12 months	11	2
12-18 months	75	12
18-24 months	42	7
24-36 months	118	18
36-48 months	34	5
48-60 months	12	2
60+ months	14	2
Unspecified	12	2
Total	634	100

Source: DTC list of assignments concluded at 1 January 1964.

Length of assignment includes extended and additional tours to the same territory. An expert who is assigned to more than one country is counted more than once.

Thus 52% of completed assignments were under 12 months; by contrast only 30% of assignments for new recruits in 1963 were for under 12 months. One possible reason for this apparent discrepancy might be that initial assignments have tended to get longer because a rather higher proportion of them today are for operational or teaching posts as a result of the recent entry of many comparatively undeveloped countries into the Regional Programmes. But a second reason would be some 'fall-out' amongst experts who failed, for one reason or another, to stay the full course for which they were assigned. It would be interesting to know how far this latter was a factor of importance. Clearly most experts do complete the full assignment and many, in fact, serve for an extended period or for a second or third term, as the following analysis of the position on 1 January 1964, shows:

Table 10

**Extended and Repeated Assignments to the Same Country
by Regional Programme Experts**

				<i>Previous Experts</i>		<i>Experts in post 1 January 1964</i>	
				<i>No.</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>%</i>
Experts serving –							
A First Tour – initial period ...				557	88.0	273	77.0
first extension ...				45	7.0	52	15.0
second extension ...				5	1.0	14	4.0
third extension or more				1	0.2	1	0.5
A Second Tour – initial period ...				17	2.0	7	2.0
first extension ...				1	0.2	5	1.0
second extension ...				1	0.2	1	0.5
A Third Tour – initial period ...				4	1.0	—	—
Prematurely Terminated ...				3	0.4	—	—
Total ...				634	100.0	353	100.0

Source: DTC lists on assignments concluded and experts in post at 1 January 1964.

Most technical assistance experts have served singly, though nearly a third have worked in association with others supplied by Britain under technical assistance:

Table 11

**Size of Mission on Completed Regional Programme
Assignments 1st January 1964**

						<i>Size of Mission (No. of Members)</i>		<i>Missions</i>		<i>Experts Involved</i>	
						<i>No.</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>%</i>
1	461	89	461	72		
2	29	6	58	9		
3	10	2	30	5		
4	6	1	24	4		
5	5	1	25	4		
6 or more	5	1	36	6		
Total ...						516	100	634	100		

Note: Team members may work as members of team for part or the whole of their assignment.

Source: DTC list of assignments concluded at 1 January 1964.

For many years experts were not expected to submit any report on their activities to DTC. However, it has recently been decided that they should submit a report at the end of their stay overseas saying whether they think that their time has been put to good use, describing conditions of work, etc. Britain has no regular arrangements for evaluation in the sense of reporting on experts.

(b) Overseas Service Aid Scheme: Nigerian Special List Officers: Other HMOCS Officers

These three categories of personnel are here discussed together because they are all extensions of the former Colonial Services – even though many of those benefiting from OSAS were never members. As described in Chapter 2, the expatriate members of various Colonial Services (later HM Overseas Civil Service) were recruited by the Colonial Office, but were employed and paid locally by the colonial governments concerned. The only direct contributions Britain has made to their emoluments have been under the Nigerian Special Lists Schemes and the Overseas Service Aid Scheme, described below.

(i) Nigerian Special Lists. The origins and terms of these Schemes were described in Chapter 2. There are about 660 British personnel still serving in Nigeria under these arrangements, of whom about 50 are List ‘A’ personnel and the remainder List ‘B’ (see page 23). The numbers are steadily declining, however, because there has never been any new recruitment under the terms of these Nigerian Schemes, which were designed to retain officers serving in Nigeria in the late 1950s. The amount of British ‘aid’ involved under these Schemes is very modest, probably amounting to no more than about £100 or so a year per serving officer. It is only by stretching definitions that these people can be described as technical assistance personnel financially supported by the British Government.

(ii) Overseas Service Aid Scheme. In 1959/60, when independence for many more countries after Nigeria had become a virtual certainty, the Government reviewed the whole future of British expatriate officers serving overseas with colonial governments, and announced to Parliament in July 1960 its proposed Overseas Service Aid Scheme, which was more fully described in ‘Service with Overseas Governments’, dated October 1960. The objects of the Scheme can perhaps best be expressed by reference to the deficiencies of previous arrangements as set out by the White Paper:

‘ . . . The present arrangements do not provide an adequate means whereby that responsibility both to the individual Public Servant and to the Government concerned can be met. They offer insufficient inducement to troubled officers to continue to serve so long as their services are needed, and they offer insufficient assistance to those territories, some still dependent, others set on the road for independence, and yet others already independent, who wish to retain the services of expatriate officers in the interests of economic and social progress and stable administration until such time as they can build up their own

local Public Service. Fresh arrangements must be made if these deficiencies in the present arrangements are to be remedied. . . .’

The Overseas Service Aid Scheme (OSAS) was offered by the UK Government for a period of ten years (to continue after independence) from April 1961 to all territories which were not independent in September 1960, except the Bahamas, Bermuda, Brunei and Hong Kong. These four colonies were regarded as being sufficiently well off to do without help. Nor was the Scheme offered to Malta or Southern Rhodesia. Of those who were offered OSAS, all accepted apart from Nigeria and Sierra Leone, who considered it to involve an inappropriate continuation of colonial ties and an undesirable distinction between indigenous and expatriate officers (who were traditionally paid the same rate for the job in those countries). Tanganyika, Trinidad, Jamaica, Uganda, Kenya and Malawi have continued with the Scheme after independence. In the case of Malaysia, the position is that Sabah, Sarawak and Singapore were included in the Scheme (but not Malaya): officers still serving in the governments of those parts of the Federation and certain federal officers are included in the Scheme. It now applies, therefore, to the seven independent countries mentioned, to the East African Common Services Organisation, and to 28 colonies.

The Scheme is incorporated into Agreements between each accepting overseas government and the UK Government. The core of the Scheme is that HMG reimburses the overseas government, on receipt of detailed information each October, of the additional costs of employing overseas officers rather than local officers, on the following basis:

<i>Expatriate Costs</i>					<i>Reimbursement</i>	<i>Estimated OSAS cost in the 1964/5 UK Estimates</i> £'000
(i)	Expatriate salary allowances (less local tax element)	Full	4,893
(ii)	Additional part of pension or contractual gratuity related to (i)	Full	787
(iii)	Children's education allowances...	Full	623
(iv)	Passage costs of officer and his family (including annual visits of school children, and mid-tour concession passages of unaccompanied officers)...	Half	1,903
(v)	Compensation on premature retirement of 'pensionable and permanent' officers...	Half	6,493
	(Miscellaneous)	—	(17)
Total						14,716

When the Scheme was introduced in 1961, expatriate officers in countries which accepted the Scheme had, in order to be included in its scope, either (a) to be members of HMOCS or (b) to have been appointed on contract in the same way as HMOCS officers (i.e., through the Colonial Office, Crown Agents, etc.). This in fact meant that some officers who had been recruited for the Colonial Services from, for example, Australia and New Zealand, under the Commonwealth Recruitment Scheme (started in the 1920s) were eligible for inclusion: though such eligibility does not apply to new recruitment for independent countries. When the

Scheme was introduced, it probably had about 16,000 serving members (the original estimate of 20,500 was based on the assumption that Nigeria and Sierra Leone would participate).

Unlike the Nigerian Schemes, OSAS was designed to apply not only to already serving officers but also to people newly recruited on contract to countries within the Scheme after its introduction in April 1961: originally it seems to have been intended that this part of the Scheme should only cover new recruits for the colonies, but in fact it has always been applied to independent countries in OSAS as well. Over the first three years April 1961 – April 1964 about 3,000 new people were recruited under OSAS; but the total numbers covered by the Scheme had nevertheless fallen by 4,000 to 12,000 by the end of 1963, probably as a result of many permanent officers taking their compensation at independence. Of the 12,000, rather over half (about 6,750) were members of HMOCS on permanent and pensionable terms, the rest on contract. Since all new recruitment is on contract, contract officers will presumably soon form a majority of those receiving OSAS help. Table 19 shows how these are distributed by country and by field of activity; the education figures also include about 300 people subsidised by the British Council and Commonwealth Educational Co-operation funds.

Under the OSAS Agreements officers are 'designated' (i.e., approved) individually and the numbers of designated officers in each country, on which the annual financial estimates are based, set the ceiling for each year which, however, may be varied from time to time with British Government agreement. No payments are made direct to individual officers by the British Government. Under the Aid Scheme, Britain gives participating governments the financial help necessary to enable them to pay various allowances (including an inducement addition to basic pay) to their expatriate staff, and the fact that they are employed by and fully responsible to local overseas governments is not affected by the help they are getting from the UK through OSAS. The amount of inducement to be paid is always agreed between the British and overseas Government concerned – obviously it has to be greater in the poorest countries where local salary levels tend to be lowest (civil service pay scales have never been uniform between British colonies). The average level of allowances (excluding compensation) works out at about £600–700 per serving officer per annum (£1,000 p.a. if compensation is also averaged out) which in turn amounts to about a quarter of the average officer's total pay and allowances. The Scheme is not used in a way that is discriminatory between professions: the existing relationship in each country between the local basic pay scales of, say, a teacher and engineer is respected in arriving at the inducement pay.

In several areas, the introduction of OSAS was the occasion for raising and improving expatriate allowances quite considerably. Thus, as Table 12 shows, whilst the total cost of the Scheme to the UK is reckoned at almost £40m for the past three years, the extent to which the budgets of the recipient countries are estimated to have been relieved in terms of previous salary and allowance scales is £23m. The difference between them is the higher allowances now paid to officers, mostly higher inducement pay. But this does not mean that a substantial part of OSAS aid has benefited

the officers alone and not also their employing governments: it is the British Government's belief that the officers were previously being paid too little to keep them in service and the increased allowances are regarded as being more in line with the 'market rate'. If OSAS had not been introduced, overseas governments themselves would have had to finance increased pay and allowances in order to retain the services of these people. Britain expects to meet the full cost in future of any increases in inducement pay which may be necessary, though such increases would of course only be made with the agreement of the employing government.

The cost of OSAS was originally estimated at between £12m and £16m a year and so far has fallen within these limits. It was £13.1m in 1961/2, £12.5m in 1962/3, and the latest estimates for the subsequent two years show expenditure of £14-15m in each. Expenditure in future years will depend on a number of factors difficult to forecast. If large numbers of people retire in the near future with compensation, this will put up immediate expenditure, but will reduce commitments for inducement pay and allowances during the remainder of the period. However, a trend towards higher expenditure would set in if there were a rapid rise in recruitment under OSAS, or if inducement allowances had to be raised still further. The Government originally forecast (Cmnd. 1193) that the cost to the British Government of compensation under OSAS would average about £2½-3m per annum over the ten-year period (i.e., £25-30m in all) - nearly £20m of this will in fact have been paid out in the first four years. In addition, Britain has been making loans (on the CRO and Colonial Office votes) to many of the countries concerned to help them meet their half share of compensation.

(iii) Other HMOCS Officers. It is estimated that altogether there are still, in 1964, about 10,000 HMOCS officers in service. These are people who were recruited on permanent and pensionable terms for service in the colonies; many of them have remained in the country to which they were appointed, even after independence. Recruitment to HMOCS (i.e., on career terms) dwindled quite considerably after 1954 and had virtually ceased by 1962: it was gradually replaced by contract recruitment.

About 6,750 of the 10,000 are serving in countries covered by OSAS and are therefore covered by aid arrangements. Of the remaining 3,250, some 660 are Special List Officers still serving in Nigeria. The remainder, approximately 2,600, are either in Nigeria (but not on the Special Lists); or are in other independent countries outside OSAS, such as Ghana, Sierra Leone, and the Malayan region of Malaysia; or are in the 'excluded' colonies - Hong Kong, Bahamas, Bermuda, and Brunei.

These HMOCS officers outside OSAS and the Nigerian Special Lists do not involve the British Government in any monetary outlays in the normal way. Although originally recruited and appointed by Britain, they are wholly paid and employed by the overseas government where they are serving. Nevertheless Britain, through the Secretary of State for the Colonies, does retain various responsibilities in relation to them. He can promote and transfer them (with their agreement) to other colonies and his approval is necessary before a colonial government can dismiss them. In addition, as noted in Chapter 2, Britain has given them certain under-

Table 12

Expenditure under the Overseas Service Aid Scheme

(a) Estimated aggregate costs of **unimproved** emoluments, allowances, etc., taken over by OSAS from Overseas Governments during the first three years since the inception of the Scheme

Year	Inducement Allowances £	Education Allowances £	Passages £	Pensions and Gratuities £	Compensation £	Totals £
1961/2	2,490,000	6,662,000
1962/3	3,781,000	7,811,000
1963/4	4,931,000	8,635,000
Totals 1961-64	11,202,000	23,108,000

(b) Total costs of **improved** emoluments, etc., as actually borne by OSAS

Year	Inducement Allowances £	Education Allowances £	Passages £	Pensions and Gratuities £	Compensation £	Totals £
Actual Expenditure 1961/2	2,896,000	13,067,000
Actual Expenditure 1962/3	4,448,000	12,452,000
Revised Estimates 1963/4	5,797,000	14,366,000
Totals 1961-64	13,141,000	39,885,000
Estimates 1964/5	6,493,000	14,716,000*
Percentage of improvement over costs of pre-OSAS benefits (1961-64)	54%	112%	17%	73%

* Including £17,000 of miscellaneous expenditure.
Source: DfC (previously unpublished).

takings in the event of the territories where they are serving achieving self-government.

(c) Commonwealth Educational Co-operation (CEC)

Commonwealth Educational Co-operation schemes date from the First Commonwealth Education Conference at Oxford in 1959 (see Chapter 10). Britain then agreed to try to recruit an additional 400 teachers for Commonwealth countries and also to provide the necessary financial inducements, which were to be met out of the £6m allocation for Commonwealth Educational Co-operation in the quinquennium 1960-65 (this sum was also to cover Commonwealth Scholarships, teacher training bursaries, etc.). This target for teachers was never achieved, however, partly because recruitment was more difficult than expected, but also because for many posts it was superseded by OSAS.

At the end of 1963 there were 144 teachers overseas being part-financed by Britain under Commonwealth Educational Co-operation schemes, 49 in universities and 95 in other posts. As its name implies, this scheme is restricted to Commonwealth countries (and colonies). Like OSAS it is a 'topping up' scheme, providing inducements over and above the local salary, and is not a 'fully paid' arrangement like the Regional Programmes. But it is not restricted (as OSAS is) to Government schools - posts at universities or independent schools in the Commonwealth can be supported by it. It is generally used for posts where topping up from OSAS is not available; which in effect means for any educational post in a Commonwealth country outside OSAS like India or Ghana, or any non-government educational post in OSAS countries. Apart from salary inducements, the financial assistance under CEC may include payment of fares from and to the UK, insurance against accident or illness, terminal grants and help with travel expenses for interviews.

(d) Britons Serving With International Organisations

At 1 July 1963, there were 579 Britons with international technical assistance organisations. Most (558) of these were with the UN or the Specialised Agencies; this is much the highest number provided by any single country (See Table 20). But a few were with other international bodies such as OECD and the Organisation of American States. Most of the Britons serving the UN and Specialised Agencies have been recruited through the British Government. Britain does not support these experts directly in any way at all. They are fully the employees of the international organisation concerned and wholly paid by it. But indirectly, through being the second largest financial contributor to the international organisations, Britain is contributing quite heavily to their maintenance.

(e) Volunteers

Volunteers are not really part of official technical assistance at all, for they are selected, trained and in part financed by the voluntary bodies themselves. Nevertheless, the British Government gives substantial financial support out of aid funds and British Council staff overseas provide the necessary administrative services for Voluntary Service Overseas.

There are two main categories of British volunteer. First, there are

school-leavers and apprentices. A scheme for encouraging and enabling these people to volunteer for service in developing countries was started by Voluntary Service Overseas in 1958: and Voluntary Service Overseas is still virtually the only body sponsoring this particular category of volunteer. At the end of 1963 there were 322 of these volunteers in developing countries, of whom about two-thirds were engaged on teaching. Their countries of service are shown in Table 18. These school-leavers and apprentices normally stay 9-12 months each: in addition to their keep, they receive only a little pocket money. Whilst overseas they are put at the disposition of overseas agencies, both government and non-government, and work under the general supervision of the host agency. In 1964 the British Government will contribute £60,000 to match funds collected from voluntary sources to cover the British costs of this scheme. In 1965 the British Government contribution is expected to increase.

Second, there are the graduate volunteers. These are young men and women who have just finished at university or other courses of equivalent standing. This scheme started in 1962 when there were 36 graduates, wholly paid for by the Government. In 1963, some 250 graduates went overseas, and in 1964/5 there are to be 500. There will be 1,000 in 1965/6. In 1963/4 and 1964/5 the Government has paid 50% of the costs, but in 1965/6 will pay 75%. Most of the graduates are at present being sponsored by Voluntary Service Overseas, the United Nations Association, International Voluntary Service, the National Union of Students, and Scottish Union of Students, who co-ordinate their programmes through the Voluntary Societies' Committee for Service Overseas, on which the Department of Technical Co-operation is represented. At the end of 1963 there were 259 graduate volunteers, serving in the countries shown in Table 18. Of these, 182 were in teaching and 77 engaged on other work, mainly agriculture and social welfare. Graduates normally go out for one year in the first instance, though seven of those who volunteered in 1962 decided in 1963 to stay on for at least a further year and several others signed contracts for further periods of service outside the volunteer scheme. The graduates normally receive the equivalent of local salary rates (paid by the recipient country) and also receive from the sending organisation a terminal grant of up to £150 on their return.

(f) British Council

The British Council's status *vis à vis* official aid and technical assistance is somewhat ambivalent. It is not a Government Department, but it is nevertheless almost entirely financed from public funds provided through the Foreign Office, Commonwealth Relations Office, Colonial Office and Department of Technical Co-operation. It was established in 1934 'for the purpose of promoting a wider knowledge of the United Kingdom and the English language abroad and developing closer cultural relations between the UK and other countries'. The Council now reckons that some 70% of its total expenditure of £10.7m is accounted for by educational work for developing countries and many of its activities are virtually indistinguishable in form from those of DTC. In its annual submissions to OECD, DTC now includes British Council expenditure with technical assistance. But Treasury publications still exclude the British Council from

aid calculations, and the OECD comparative international figures also omit the activities of 'cultural' agencies like the British Council.

In terms of technical assistance personnel for developing countries, the Council makes two distinct contributions (n.b., it also operates in developed countries). There are its London-appointed overseas staff, of whom there were 319 in developing countries at 31 December 1963. Their work overseas includes teaching (mostly English-language teaching) and teacher training; the promotion of educational, scientific, professional and cultural contacts by arranging visits and exchanges between Britain and the country concerned; running libraries and making presentations of books and printed material; information, especially on educational matters; presentation of the arts and general administration.

Second, the Council recruits for teaching posts on behalf of overseas employers and, in the case of particularly important posts, can subsidise the overseas employers' terms or even, exceptionally, wholly finance the provision of a British teacher. The overseas employers are individual schools, colleges and universities as well as governments. There were 155 British teachers in posts in developing countries of this kind subsidised or fully paid by the Council at the end of 1963. These people are on contract terms normally of 1-3 years each. There were a handful more in post at the end of 1963 who, whilst not holding subsidised posts (and not therefore involving any charge to British funds), were on terms of appointment approved and guaranteed by the Council (rather like the non-aided HMOCS officers referred to on page 61).

Table 18 shows the distribution of British Council Overseas staff by country.

(g) Other Categories

Categories a-f above consist of British technical assistance personnel serving in developing countries who are either (a) financed or supported directly from aid or British Council funds; (b) indirectly supported from British aid funds (volunteers and UN personnel); (c) under the patronage in some way of the British Government or British Council.

In addition to these, however, there are many British people recruited each year for public authorities or institutions in developing countries by official British organisations who do not thereafter have any continuing responsibility for the personnel after recruitment. These people show up in official recruitment figures, but not in the totals of those in post under technical assistance). The recruiting bodies concerned are DTC, Inter-University Council, Crown Agents, etc. There are probably over a thousand such people serving overseas. There are, of course, many more British people serving overseas institutions in professional and technical jobs who neither have been recruited nor are supported in any way by the British authorities.

Distribution of Responsibility between Schemes

From the above a highly confusing picture emerges, particularly with regard to the different arrangements for financial support for experts serving overseas. Eligibility for the different forms of British financial support is best shown by the following diagram:

	<i>Advisers</i>	<i>Teachers</i>	<i>Other Operational Personnel</i>
Foreign Countries	Regional Programmes*	Regional Programmes* British Council†*	Regional Programmes*
Commonwealth Countries ...	Regional Programmes*	Regional Programmes* OSAS† CEC† British Council†*	Regional Programmes* OSAS†

* Wholly financed by Britain.

† Subsidised by Britain.

From this it is clear that the main area of confusion is in educational posts in the Commonwealth. Whilst there is a clearly defined boundary between CEC and OSAS, with CEC applying only to Commonwealth posts not eligible for OSAS support, there are frequent demarcation problems between CEC and the British Council, CEC and Technical Assistance, Technical Assistance and OSAS, etc. As a result it has not been unknown for two British people working side by side in identical jobs overseas to be on entirely different terms just because their appointment was made through different channels. The authorities are very conscious of the confusion caused by present arrangements and a working party is currently trying to draw clear boundaries between the different schemes and harmonise their terms.

2 Recruitment

Recruitment in 1963 of personnel under the various schemes described above (excluding Nigerian Special List and HMOCS for which recruitment has ceased) was as shown in Table 13.

The following notes may help to explain recruitment under the various schemes.

(a) Regional Programme Experts

These are all recruited by DTC on contract terms at the request of the overseas government concerned. DTC 'inherited' this recruitment from the Foreign Office and Commonwealth Relations Office. The breakdown of the 255 recruits in 1963 by Regional Programme and type of expert was as shown in Table 14.

(b) Overseas Service Aid Scheme

Recruitment here is divided between DTC and the Crown Agents, following on from the traditional procedure in the 1950s when the Colonial Office and Crown Agents were responsible for recruitment to the colonies. DTC has taken over the Colonial Office's role in this. Broadly speaking, the division of responsibility is that DTC recruits only at the request of governments: the Crown Agents recruit for overseas governments **and administrations**, including local government bodies, para-statal bodies such as electricity boards, etc. In recruiting at the request of governments, DTC deals with recruitment at professional level, the Crown Agents at sub-professional level.

The Crown Agents make a small charge for their recruitment, whether or not the overseas post is an aided one. DTC recruits free. Recruitment

Table 13
Recruitment of Personnel for Developing Countries by British Public Bodies and under Volunteer Programmes 1963

Regional Programme Experts	DTC*	255
Overseas Service Aid Scheme	DTC*	849
			Crown Agents†	285
Commonwealth Educational Co-operation:							
University Teachers	IUC...	39
			British Council	11
Other Teachers	British Council	61
			TETOC	50
			Independent Agencies†	50
Volunteers – Graduate	5 Voluntary Societies	252
Cadet School Leavers	Voluntary Service Overseas	321
International Agencies	DTC*	135
British Council:							
London-appointed Overseas Staff...	British Council	15
Other Wholly Financed Posts	British Council	18
Subsidised posts	British Council	66
Other Recruits (non-financed)	DTC	140
			Inter-University Council	(152)‡
			TETOC	20
			British Council	59
			Crown Agents†	213
Total	2,941

* DTC statistics for R.P. Experts, OSAS and International Agencies also include appointment made through TETOC.

† The Crown Agents and some private bodies make a small charge for their recruitment services; all the other agencies do not.

‡ 1962. British staff only. Also recruited 206 overseas staff.

Note: This table is of new appointments only; it excludes renewals of contracts.

Source: DTC (previously unpublished).

Table 14
Regional Programme Experts: New Recruits 1963 by Programme and Specialism

					<i>Education</i>	<i>Pub. Admin. Ec. & Finance</i>	<i>Soc. Services</i>	<i>Agric.</i>	<i>Industry & Technology</i>	<i>Health & Sanitation</i>	<i>Others</i>	<i>Total</i>
Colombo Plan	30	15	4	26	6	1	1	82
SEATO	—	—	—	—	1	1	1	2
CENTO	5	4	2	7	7	—	—	25
SCAAP	6	34	15	28	7	7	7	97
Non-Commonwealth Africa	2	1	1	1	—	—	—	5
Other	3	15	9	14	1	1	2	44
Total	46	69	31	76	22	11	11	255

under OSAS in 1963, all on contract terms, was in the following categories (which show an interesting proportionate change on the numbers already in post):

Table 15

Overseas Service Aid Scheme: Serving Personnel and New Recruits in 1963, by Specialism.

		<i>Education</i>	<i>Pub. Admin. Ec. & Finance Soc. Services</i>	<i>Agric.</i>	<i>Industry & Technology</i>	<i>Health & Sanitation</i>	<i>Others</i>	<i>Total</i>
New Recruits, 1963	...	379	99	81	270	174	131	1,134
%	...	33.4	8.8	7.1	23.8	15.4	11.5	100.0
In Service, December 1963	...	1,472	4,950	1,216	2,212	933	1,217	12,000
%	...	12.3	41.3	10.1	18.4	7.8	10.1	100.0

Source: DTC (previously unpublished).

(c) Commonwealth Educational Co-operation

In the case of schools' posts, Commonwealth developing countries are invited each year to submit a list of posts in respect of which they would like financial assistance to help them recruit a British teacher. Requests are then examined in Britain and, if the post is regarded as a 'key' post – i.e., an influential post in an important subject – approval will be given and the post will be scheduled for financial help. This doesn't amount to the actual promise of being able to find a teacher, though it implies that the UK authorities will help to find one if requested. Teacher recruitment under CEC is undertaken by DTC, by the British Council (for the Indian sub-continent) or by independent bodies which may include Commonwealth High Commissions in London, or else private recruiting bodies like the Overseas Appointments Bureau, Catholic Overseas Appointments, etc. Commonwealth Educational Co-operation is virtually the only technical assistance programme for which DTC though providing finance doesn't insist on recruitment by British public bodies. (The same, of course, applies to the volunteer programmes).

With university posts, the position is rather more flexible and informal. Universities in Commonwealth countries are independent of government and they frequently make direct requests for assistance. There is a special Committee for University Secondment (sometimes known as the 'Morris Committee' after its chairman, Sir Charles Morris) to examine requests. This consists mainly of university representatives and has a joint secretariat provided by DTC and the British Council.

Although DTC finances Commonwealth Educational Co-operation on its vote, it does not itself recruit university level teachers. For Africa, Malaysia and the West Indies university teachers are recruited by the Inter-University Council, an independent body (though almost fully financed by DTC) set up by the universities in 1946. For India, Pakistan and Ceylon the British Council does the recruiting. The Council for Technical Education and Training for Overseas Countries (TETOC) undertakes the recruitment for higher technical colleges overseas.

(d) Volunteers

These are recruited by the voluntary societies themselves. Volunteers are only rarely selected for specific posts in the same way as technical assistance recruits. It is, generally, more a case of a number of people being selected for a number of jobs and allocation taking place thereafter.

(e) International Agencies

DTC took over the International Recruitment Unit from the Ministry of Labour. This Unit now recruits for technical assistance posts with all the international agencies except for the World Health Organisation (WHO), which arranges its own recruitment direct. The Unit also recruits, in conjunction with the Treasury, for the World Bank and its affiliates, and assists the GPO which recruits for the International Telecommunication Union. However, the various specialised agencies with whom DTC does have dealings vary considerably in their approach to recruitment. Some handle the whole thing centrally at their headquarters as far as possible (e.g., FAO) and only approach DTC in isolated cases: some, like ILO, only notify DTC of vacancies which they feel Britain may be particularly well-placed to fill: others, like UNESCO, notify almost every vacancy to DTC.

DTC's role in the recruitment is not to make appointments itself but to make submissions to the international organisation concerned. It undertakes this work free of charge. Since the international organisation in turn is recruiting in response to a request from some of its member countries, the potential complication and delay is obvious. Unless a specific person has been asked for, the international bodies tend to circulate several countries with notifications of vacancies. Britain has in the past secured a high share of the international posts (see Table 20) and this leads to occasional 'political' difficulties with other countries who may want more of their own people chosen. There are, however, no formal quotas for each country in the case of international technical assistance experts as

Table 16

Recruitment through DTC for International Bodies 1963

Vacancies Notified

					Recruitment		Sub-	Appoint-
Agency				Total	Attempted	Not Attempted	missions Made	ments Secured
FAO	14	8	6	29	3
IAEA	72	71	1	33	5
ILO	139	136	3	300	44
ITU	56	45	11	20	1
UN	565	389	176	291	45
UNESCO	356	245	111	368	47
UNRWA	7	6	1	12	1
European Organisations				231	165	66	60	3
Other	62	36	26	36	—
Total				1,502	1,101	401	1,149	149*

* Of which 135 for posts in developing countries.

Source: DTC (previously unpublished).

there are for the regular staffs of the UN and its Specialised Agencies.

In 1963 the work of the International Recruitment Unit resulted in 149 appointments (137 in 1962) of British people being made by international organisations, of which 135 were in developing countries. All the posts were on contract. The distribution was as shown in Table 16.

(f) British Council

British Council Staff have only occasionally to be specially recruited on an *ad hoc* basis. More usually those appointed to overseas posts are already part of the Council's regular staff and they are simply posted overseas as part of their normal career.

The overseas teaching posts subsidised by the Council are filled at the request of overseas schools, colleges and universities or governments. Recruitment for these posts is undertaken by the Council and is free of charge.

(g) Other Recruits

(i) DTC. On request from overseas governments, and provided it considers the terms being offered are reasonable, DTC will recruit (free of charge, apart from any direct costs such as advertising) for any posts not covered by aid schemes. In practice, most independent countries have preferred to do their own recruitment from their high commissions or embassies in London, and DTC's services in this respect have been mainly concentrated on North Africa and the Middle East (Libya and Jordan especially) and Sierra Leone, which accounted for 29 and 14 appointments respectively in 1963. Including in addition the appointments made to the colonies outside the Overseas Service Aid Scheme, DTC recruited a total of 140 people to non-aided posts in developing countries in 1963.

(ii) Inter-University Council. Most of the university institutions established in British colonies after the Second World War used the IUC for help with recruitment and advice, and they have in most cases continued to use IUC services (which have also been extended recently to one or two other areas, such as Jordan and Ethiopia). Generally speaking, the institutions concerned have been able, until now, to pay sufficient salaries to attract staff from the UK, though IUC has more recently made several short-term appointments to posts where local terms have been supplemented under Commonwealth Educational Co-operation. In 1962, IUC recruited over 350 people for non-aided posts, about 150 of them British.

(iii) TETOC. The Council for Technical Education and Training for Overseas Countries was established in 1962 and is the successor body to the Council for Overseas Colleges of Arts, Science and Technology. It handles most technical education appointments for DTC, including those for UNESCO. It has especially close ties with certain higher technical institutions in the colonies and newly independent Commonwealth countries. Many of the 74 vacancies filled through it in 1963 were covered by the Overseas Service Aid Scheme, Commonwealth Educational Co-operation, Regional Programmes, or UNESCO appointments. Apart from these, there were only about 20 appointments which were not covered by financial aid arrangements.

(iv) **British Council.** Not all of the posts in overseas institutions for which the British Council acts as recruiting agent have to be subsidised. In 1963, as against 84 subsidised posts filled, there were 59 unsubsidised. In the case of most of the unsubsidised posts, the holders had their terms of appointment approved and guaranteed by the Council.

(v) **Crown Agents.** In addition to the 285 OSAS posts filled, the Crown Agents successfully recruited for a further 213 posts in developing countries in 1963.

3 Policy and Methods in British Government Recruitment

This section will discuss only recruitment through the Department of Technical Co-operation and the Government Departments from which it took over its present work (Foreign Office, Commonwealth Relations Office, Colonial Office, Ministry of Labour).

Recruitment by Government Departments over the years 1956-63 has been approximately* as follows:

Table 17

Recruitment by British Government Departments 1956-63*

<i>Calendar Years</i>	<i>Technical Assistance Regional Programmes</i>	<i>OTHER BILATERAL</i>			<i>International Agencies</i>	<i>Totals</i>
		<i>Colonies</i>	<i>Independent Commonwealth</i>	<i>Foreign</i>		
1956	n.a.	1,467	—	n.a.	n.a.	1,467†
1957	78	1,367	—	39	60	1,544
1958	86	1,335	—	29	52	1,502
1959	75	1,083	—	31	49	1,228
1960	98	816	—	17	90	1,021
1961	147	581	19‡	36	84	867
1962	160	504	249	21	134	1,068
1963	255	505	451	29	135	1,375

* The figures in this table are approximately correct: they are compiled from information given in 'Recruitment for Service Overseas: Future Policy' (Cmd. 1740) and 'Technical Assistance from the UK for Overseas Development' (Cmd. 1308); also from previously unpublished data kindly made available by the Department of Technical Co-operation.

† Total would presumably have been about 1,600 in 1956.

‡ From 24 July 1961 (establishment of DTC) to the end of the year. CRO recruitment figures outside Regional Programmes during first half of 1961 not available.

The table shows that total recruitment fell quite sharply from 1956 to 1961, but that since then it has been rising, again quite sharply. The biggest decline has been in recruitment for the colonies (due only partly to the transfer of colonies to the independent Commonwealth column in the table on achievement of independence). One factor may have been declining demand due to the localisation of the government services; another was straitened financial circumstances in colonies during the later 1950s; yet another, perhaps, was reluctance in the UK to build up HMOCS once independence for the colonies was in sight; and, of course, with the process of independence itself, some former colonies decided to do their own recruitment of British personnel, notably Ghana, Malaya, Nigeria and Trinidad (but Sierra Leone, Tanganyika, Jamaica, Uganda and Kenya still use DTC to a considerable extent).

Nevertheless declining demand cannot account for the whole of the fall,

as is readily illustrated by the fact that, although DTC recruited 964 people for colonies and newly independent Commonwealth countries in 1963, there were still 1,253 'live' vacancies on its books for these same countries on 31 December 1963 (compared with 886 in 1961 and 819 in 1962). There has never been a time since 1956 when vacancies have not run into several hundreds. The size of current demand, which DTC finds is growing, is hardly surprising when one takes into account that the numbers of permanent career appointments have fallen from 44·6% in 1957 to 17·9% in 1961, and virtually nil in 1963. (The mathematics of this is very depressing: assuming a career appointment was for 30 years and a contract appointment is for 2-3 years, one needs 10-15 times as many contract recruits to keep overseas jobs filled as before.)

Current Recruitment Policy of DTC

DTC's policy on recruitment has been fully set out in 'Recruitment for Service Overseas - Future Policy' published in May 1962. The background to this was the establishment of the DTC and the merging into it of the various overseas recruitment activities previously carried out by other British Government Departments. It was also felt necessary to review the future of recruitment for the colonies since it had become clear that all the larger ones would become independent in the foreseeable future.

The main point for decision was how recruitment was in future to be organised and whether a proposal made by the Select Committee (of the House of Commons) on Estimates that the Government should consider setting up a Commonwealth Advisory and Technical Service based on a pool of officers in the permanent employ of the UK was feasible. The conclusion had already been reached, in the course of a review of the needs of colonial territories, that the scope for career appointments with colonial governments was in future virtually nil and in consequence the decision was taken to stop completely any future recruitment for the colonies on this basis. The Select Committee's suggestion was different in that it proposed a service in the employment of the UK Government whose members could be seconded to overseas governments at their expense (rather like the Nigerian Special List A Scheme—see Chapter 2).

However, the Government found there were 'a number of obvious difficulties about this proposal' which basically stemmed from uncertainties about the future. On the Government side it was said that 'HM Government would have no control over the number, duration and type of vacancies to be filled' and that there was no certainty of the size and specific nature of future overseas demand. On the side of prospective officers it was suggested that such a service would be unlikely to be attractive to people of the right quality, even if HMG were to guarantee continuous employment for a period of years. This was because:

- (i) 'there might clearly be periods of varying lengths of unemployment between appointments . . .'
- (ii) 'the prospect of being sent arbitrarily for service anywhere in the world for limited periods . . . is not likely to be attractive to officers . . .'
- (iii) 'a career service such as this would have to offer a reasonable prospect of employment until normal retiring age . . . the prospect

of such employment could not in honesty be held out to those under about 45 or 50. No candidate of intelligence would believe it if it were.'

- (iv) 'but above all such a service . . . could not offer the prospect of a career with posts of increasing responsibility according to experience of its members . . .'

The Government's conclusion was that the suggestion by the Select Committee for a Commonwealth Advisory and Technical Service did not take sufficiently into account either the nature of the demand or the character of the supply and was therefore unacceptable. The alternative approach put forward was that instead of an overseas career service recruitment should proceed on the basic principle that in future it would be 'for limited periods which form part of a career based primarily in Britain or in the service of a British institution'. The phrase 'for limited periods' was likely, in fact, to mean a tour of two to three years, but DTC expressed the view that, particularly in the case of the colonies, contracts covering a period of seven to ten years, with provision for home leave at regular intervals, might be attractive over a considerable field of recruitment. Apart from Regional Programme experts, contracts would continue to be with overseas governments and not with the UK Government.

In its White Paper the Department envisaged three main types of arrangement whereby people would be drawn from employment in the UK for service overseas. First, there would be recruitment on contract with no specific arrangement made for return to a home post. In these cases, the recruit himself would bear any risk involved in finding re-employment at the end of the contract. It was thought that, in professions where there was reasonable mobility between employers, such as engineering, these arrangements would suffice. A second category, however, was where recruits would require assurance about their re-employment on their return from overseas, perhaps because in their type of work there was only one British employer or very few. In these cases, the loan or secondment terms would have to be worked out with employers by DTC and recruitment would depend very much on the goodwill of employers. A third, and rather more limited, category was employment which involved work in tropical conditions as an essential part of a UK-based job. Here people appointed to home-based establishments would, as part of their normal career, expect to spend periods of service overseas without leaving the employment of the UK institution. This was thought to be particularly appropriate, for instance, in the case of scientific research workers.

The Government's statement of policy put particular stress on the second of these categories—secondment with the goodwill of a UK employer—and it gave a pledge that Government Departments would give a lead and that other public bodies, like nationalised industries, statutory boards and local authorities, would be encouraged to play their part. It also laid particular stress on the private sector. Although 'the lending of staff in this way may admittedly be troublesome and inconvenient for the lending employer . . . if the responsibilities of HMG for finding suitably qualified people for service overseas are to be properly fulfilled, these difficulties must be overcome'.

How has this policy worked out in practice? In the absence of any exact figures, it is necessary to generalise. It is true to say that by far the greatest number of DTC recruits have not, in fact, had any guaranteed re-entry to posts in the UK. They have taken overseas jobs in the expectation either of renewed short contracts, a further stay abroad, or of being able to find jobs without difficulty on returning to Britain. This type of recruitment is comparatively easy for younger recruits who have not had time to become heavily committed in their career and domestic life. It is also the main method of recruitment of those who have already served overseas – amounting to nearly 25% of total DTC recruitment. But apart from these two special categories, quite large numbers of other people already in UK jobs seem to be prepared to take an overseas post without maintaining their right of re-entry to a job in Britain.

Actual secondments have probably not amounted to more than 200 or 300 a year, of which by far the greatest proportion have been amongst teachers. In the teaching profession, the Department of Education has worked out with local education authorities, through the National Council for the Supply of Teachers Overseas, a Code of Secondment for teachers. Under this Code, the re-employment of teachers returning from abroad is guaranteed without loss of pension rights or seniority. It is, in fact, the only system working nationally throughout a profession. Teachers selected for overseas posts are expected to arrange with their local education authority that secondment terms should apply to their period of service overseas. Beyond the teaching profession, there are probably fewer than 100 secondments a year and in these cases, because there is no national scheme, DTC as the recruitment agency often has to negotiate on an individual basis for the release of people required for overseas appointments. This is a costly and time-consuming activity.

The third type of arrangement whereby employees of British institutions engaged in tropical work are used for technical assistance jobs overseas is still a fairly small part of the total picture. There are, in fact, a number of people from research or survey institutions financed by DTC (see Chapters 7 and 8) on technical assistance assignments at any one time, but they probably number only about 20 or 30 a year. However, a new type of arrangement more recently developed by DTC has been to establish pools of experts based on UK institutions who will be available when required for service in developing countries. A precedent for this has existed for several years in the pools of research scientists established under Colonial Development and Welfare funds based on the Commonwealth Institute of Entomology, the Commonwealth Mycological Institute, the Rothamsted Experimental Station, the Pest Infestation Laboratory, and the Tropical Products Institute (see Chapter 7); but recently this idea has been extended. One example is the recent establishment of 12 senior and 6 junior lectureships at the London and Liverpool Schools of Tropical Medicine. The lecturers are on permanent appointment until retirement but must agree to be seconded when DTC has suitable requests from overseas. DTC pays their full salaries whilst they are in the UK, but the Schools of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine find the supporting expenditure. The hope is that they should spend most of their working years overseas. A new and similar arrangement is for the establishment

of a pool of half a dozen economists at Oxford and Cambridge Universities who would also be available for service overseas in response to requests. Similarly in agriculture the National Agricultural Advisory Service of the Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food has agreed to release up to 24 experienced officers for service overseas as needed. The Department of Technical Co-operation is also negotiating for an increase of about 40 agricultural posts in the staff complements of British Universities, research councils and the Development Commission.

These home-based pools of experts are, in fact, rather similar to miniature career services. The career service principle has itself been accepted in one exceptional case of English-language teacher-trainers under a co-operative scheme operated by DTC and the British Council. Thirty additional experts in English-language teaching have recently been recruited to the British Council's career service under the Aid to Commonwealth English (ACE) Scheme. DTC funds are paying for the training of these experts and for any supplementary finance which may be necessary over and above local salaries when they are in technical assistance posts.

Nevertheless all these different current arrangements for pools and career services will, even when negotiations are complete, put only about 100 people at the disposal of DTC for continuous use overseas.

Creating the Right Climate for Overseas Service

Apart from its basic decision on the employment structure of service for overseas, DTC has engaged itself in trying to create the right conditions and climate of opinion to encourage candidates to come forward for overseas service. In its White Paper on 'Recruitment for Service Overseas', DTC put forward five main factors which it regarded as being crucial to candidates for overseas appointments.

- (i) The state of law and order in the country concerned. Clearly this is not a matter for which the British Government is responsible (except in colonies).
- (ii) Financial inducements to work abroad. Because of the poverty of most developing countries, financial help has to be offered to overseas governments to enable them to hold out sufficiently attractive prospects to people from overseas. The Overseas Service Aid Scheme and Commonwealth Educational Co-operation arrangements already described above are means by which Britain helps them to do this. Furthermore under the Regional Programmes of technical assistance Britain will pay the full salary of experts.
- (iii) Family responsibilities, including accommodation, medical facilities and children's education. Efforts have been made under the Regional Programmes, OSAS and CEC to take care of most of these points (though in some countries accommodation and medical facilities are still felt to be insufficient).
- (iv) Pension rights. Personnel working overseas on short contracts will often want their pension rights safeguarded while they are away. This presents few difficulties in the case of established civil servants. For those in contributory pension schemes, arrangements can often

be made for the employer's contribution to be made either by the British Government or the overseas government concerned, and for individuals to maintain their contributions for a few years. There is scope for extending such arrangements and DTC is currently examining the position in local government.

- (v) Career prospects. 'Candidates look, naturally and reasonably, to a full career in their own profession, with the prospect of advancement, senior posts according to their ability, and experience. For the reasons already given, this is clearly not now available to them in the service of overseas governments, even if continuous employment were available. Candidates therefore need to be satisfied that work overseas will be professionally beneficial, that employers recognise this, and that on their return to Britain there will be no undue difficulty in resuming their career.' The Government has, through ministerial statements and speeches, continually emphasised the need for overseas service to be recognised as a qualification for advancement in employment in Britain. However, this principle has not been institutionalised to any great extent (apart from a few openings for returned overseas civil servants in the British Civil Service).

Mechanics of DTC Recruitment

Requests for the supply of personnel reach DTC via British posts overseas in the case of independent countries (but direct in the case of OSAS requests) and direct in the case of colonies. Before recruitment starts, DTC tries to satisfy itself about the terms offered and that it has as accurate a job description as possible. In the majority of cases where DTC is recruiting, the terms for the job are fixed on the overseas government's salary scale and any expatriate supplement, where applicable, is also fixed by a scale. Job descriptions tend to be relatively straightforward for established operational posts, but are sometimes a cause of great difficulty and delay with advisory or other posts under the Regional Programmes.

Most vacancies notified to DTC are recruited for by the Department itself. But in the case of technical teachers, DTC usually asks for the assistance of the Council for Technical Education and Training for Overseas Countries, whose administrative costs are fully financed by DTC, and recruitment of nurses is delegated to a voluntary organisation, the Overseas Nursing Association, which is paid a fee for these services. TETOC's and ONA's recruits are normally included in DTC's recruitment totals.

Usually posts are openly advertised in professional journals and elsewhere, unless there is somebody available from the DTC-financed pools of experts or unless there is reason to believe that a particular organisation or institution is the only source of the type of person required. In these latter cases, a direct approach will be made. In a few cases, Appointments Registers are kept of people who have expressed interest in overseas jobs in a particular field – this is done for technical teachers, for example, by TETOC, and the International Recruitment Unit at DTC also keeps a register. The Overseas Services Resettlement Bureau (see below) uses the same principle, and the British Council has recently established a register

of teachers interested in English-language teaching appointments overseas. The register system enables a more selective approach to be made with a fairly high probability of success when vacancies are notified to the recruitment agency: but it is important for success that only those with a genuine live interest in taking up overseas appointments are kept on the register.

Actual interviewing of candidates is undertaken with the help of DTC's professional Advisers. Sometimes representatives of the overseas country concerned participate in the process. In the case of independent countries, selections usually have to be confirmed in the developing country itself and, although there are only rare cases of disapproval of the recommended candidate, this stage does lead to some delay. Altogether for vacancies actually filled, the average length of time from notification of a vacancy to the appointee leaving Britain tends to be 4-5 months. But some vacancies are very difficult to fill at all and will have been on DTC's books for a much longer period than this. The vacancies position is reviewed at regular intervals and, in the case of Regional Programmes, those which are not 'live' are removed after about six months.

In the case of the colonies, if it proves particularly difficult to find British candidates, an attempt may be made to find candidates in European countries or elsewhere. But this is comparatively rare and Britain would not, in the usual way, recruit a non-British national for an aided post in an independent developing country.

Experience shows that about 25% of candidates turn down actual offers of appointment and this is a further source of delay in filling many posts. For those that accept, few formal arrangements for orientation and training exist, although candidates are put in touch with officers on leave from the country to which they are going so that they can learn of local conditions at first hand; and most candidates welcome this arrangement. Regional Programme experts usually have some informal briefing in the DTC before leaving on their assignments, and in a few cases short (one week) orientation courses have been held under the auspices of Oversea Service (to which DTC contributes financially) on social, political, climatic, etc., conditions in a particular area. Plans for extending the arrangements with Oversea Service to cover a substantial proportion of DTC recruits will come into force in October 1964. DTC has also organised orientation courses for some of the teachers recruited under the Teachers for East Africa Scheme - in this case it is easier to arrange such courses because one is dealing with a block of recruits in the same subject going out to the same part of the world at the same time. (The British Council regularly organises briefing and orientation courses in London for teachers recruited by the Council for Overseas Service: particular attention is paid to informing teachers about modern methods of English-language teaching.)

Professional training for recruits is not now a common feature of recruitment, though when career service recruitment for the Colonial Services was in full swing candidates used to attend special year-long courses of administrative training at Oxford, Cambridge and London. A few expatriate officers are still sent for training by overseas governments employing them, though this is not now numerically significant. The biggest current scheme of training of British people as part of recruitment

is under the Teachers for East Africa Scheme under which a number of graduates take their Diploma of Education course at the University of East Africa (Makerere College) before teaching for two years in East Africa. This is to involve about 60 people in 1964. A similar scheme involving 26 graduates in 1964 and a further 21 in February 1965 has been introduced in Zambia (Northern Rhodesia). Another arrangement is the provision of 20 studentships a year in tropical agriculture at the University of the West Indies' Faculty of Agriculture in Trinidad (the former Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture). The holders of these agricultural studentships will not be bonded to work in tropical agriculture for DTC, but it is hoped that many will do so. DTC also provides finance for forestry courses at Oxford and veterinary courses in Edinburgh, which are attended by some of those working overseas in these fields. In addition, DTC pays the cost of a year's training course for the recruits to the English Language Teaching Career Service at London University Institute of Education. Apart from these, Overseas Geological Surveys run short professional training courses each autumn for geologists going overseas.

Excluding the costs of training and orientation, recruitment work cost DTC about £270,000 in 1963, or nearly £200 a head for each candidate successfully recruited. In general, this service is offered free to overseas governments, who are only asked to pay the direct cost of advertising posts (DTC itself pays advertising costs for Regional Programme posts, which are in its own employ). In addition to its own recruitment, DTC co-operates with other UK agencies, notably the British Council, Inter-University Council, Overseas Appointments Bureau of the Institute of Christian Education, and Catholic Overseas Appointments. This co-operation takes several forms: interchange of information (about candidates and posts), regular liaison meetings on policy at executive levels, and action to avoid overlap.

Resettlement

For people who have been seconded from home-based jobs in the UK there is no problem of re-employment on their return. This also applies, of course, to members of the DTC's pools of specialists based on universities, the National Agricultural Advisory Service, etc.

But many of those who have been recruited in the past have not had any openings assured on their return to the UK and this particularly applies to those who were recruited for HMOCS on a career basis but who retired prematurely as a result of constitutional advance. To deal with this special problem, the Government established in 1957 the Overseas Services Resettlement Bureau to help place returning HMOCS officers. The OSRB is a part of DTC and is financed by the Department: it also has a regional office in Birmingham. In the first six and a half years of the Bureau's existence it has found jobs for 4,185 people. At the end of 1963 it had 822 people on its books looking for employment. Quite a large proportion of the people on the Bureau's registers are in fact recruited for new jobs overseas and nearly 25% of the total number of DTC's recruits have served abroad before. The OSRB register is regularly referred to when vacancies are notified to DTC.

In a few cases, the device has been employed of offering 'dormant

contracts' with British institutions to serving officers overseas to persuade them to stay longer in post. This has been done for certain research workers, the principle being that as they become older, people become anxious about their deteriorating employment prospects on their return home. A man will be less likely to hurry back to England to look for a new job if he can be given assurances in advance that, when he does leave the developing country where he is serving, employment will not present any problem to him. A device related to this which has been employed in the case of a few university staff overseas has been to offer them (in advance) financial support for a year on their return to Britain whilst they write up their overseas work and search for a new post.

British Technical Assistance Personnel Overseas, 31 December, 1963, by Country and Scheme

By Country and Region	Teachers		Other		Total under Aid	Volunteers		British Council Overseas Staff	Grand Total
	Advisers Regional Programmes	Regional Programmes	OSAS CEC Bt. Co.	Regional Programmes		Operational OSAS	Graduates and Qualified		
Colombo Plan									
Afghanistan	4
Burma	1	3	8	14
Cambodia	1	1	4
Ceylon	2	3	4	12
India	14	12	41	134
Indonesia	13	23
Korea	2
Laos	3	2	13
Malaysia	7	7	11	860
Nepal	1	1	2
Pakistan*	10	9	22	104
Philippines†	1	2
Thailand‡	6	7	44
Vietnam	1	3
SEATO									
Pakistan*	2
Philippines†
Thailand‡	1	1
CENTO									
Iran	7	14	1	48
Pakistan*
Turkey	2	5	10	26

[illegible]

Country	1960	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	2025	2026	2027	2028	2029	2030	2031	2032	2033	2034	2035	2036	2037	2038	2039	2040	2041	2042	2043	2044	2045	2046	2047	2048	2049	2050	2051	2052	2053	2054	2055	2056	2057	2058	2059	2060	2061	2062	2063	2064	2065	2066	2067	2068	2069	2070	2071	2072	2073	2074	2075	2076	2077	2078	2079	2080	2081	2082	2083	2084	2085	2086	2087	2088	2089	2090	2091	2092	2093	2094	2095	2096	2097	2098	2099	2100	2101	2102	2103	2104	2105	2106	2107	2108	2109	2110	2111	2112	2113	2114	2115	2116	2117	2118	2119	2120	2121	2122	2123	2124	2125	2126	2127	2128	2129	2130	2131	2132	2133	2134	2135	2136	2137	2138	2139	2140	2141	2142	2143	2144	2145	2146	2147	2148	2149	2150	2151	2152	2153	2154	2155	2156	2157	2158	2159	2160	2161	2162	2163	2164	2165	2166	2167	2168	2169	2170	2171	2172	2173	2174	2175	2176	2177	2178	2179	2180	2181	2182	2183	2184	2185	2186	2187	2188	2189	2190	2191	2192	2193	2194	2195	2196	2197	2198	2199	2200	2201	2202	2203	2204	2205	2206	2207	2208	2209	2210	2211	2212	2213	2214	2215	2216	2217	2218	2219	2220	2221	2222	2223	2224	2225	2226	2227	2228	2229	2230	2231	2232	2233	2234	2235	2236	2237	2238	2239	2240	2241	2242	2243	2244	2245	2246	2247	2248	2249	2250	2251	2252	2253	2254	2255	2256	2257	2258	2259	2260	2261	2262	2263	2264	2265	2266	2267	2268	2269	2270	2271	2272	2273	2274	2275	2276	2277	2278	2279	2280	2281	2282	2283	2284	2285	2286	2287	2288	2289	2290	2291	2292	2293	2294	2295	2296	2297	2298	2299	2300	2301	2302	2303	2304	2305	2306	2307	2308	2309	2310	2311	2312	2313	2314	2315	2316	2317	2318	2319	2320	2321	2322	2323	2324	2325	2326	2327	2328	2329	2330	2331	2332	2333	2334	2335	2336	2337	2338	2339	2340	2341	2342	2343	2344	2345	2346	2347	2348	2349	2350	2351	2352	2353	2354	2355	2356	2357	2358	2359	2360	2361	2362	2363	2364	2365	2366	2367	2368	2369	2370	2371	2372	2373	2374	2375	2376	2377	2378	2379	2380	2381	2382	2383	2384	2385	2386	2387	2388	2389	2390	2391	2392	2393	2394	2395	2396	2397	2398	2399	2400	2401	2402	2403	2404	2405	2406	2407	2408	2409	2410	2411	2412
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[illegible]

By Country and Region	Teachers		Other		Total under Aid	Volunteers		British Council Overseas Staff	Grand Total
	Advisers Regional Programmes	Regional Programmes Bt. Co.	Operational Regional Programmes	Operational OSAS		Graduates and Qualified	School-leavers and Apprentices		
Liberia	—	1	1	—	3	—	—	—	3
Libya	—	—	—	—	20	—	—	3	23
Mali	1	2	—	—	3	3	2	—	8
Morocco	—	6	—	—	6	—	2	—	8
Niger	—	—	—	—	—	3	—	—	3
Senegal	—	—	—	—	—	3	—	—	3
Somalia	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	—	1
Sudan	—	—	—	—	—	2	—	7	9
Togo...	—	—	—	—	—	2	1	—	3
Tunisia	—	9	—	—	9	—	—	2	11
UAR (Egypt)	—	2	—	—	2	—	—	3	5
Commonwealth Caribbean									
British Guiana	—	4	—	88	92	5	2	2	101
British Honduras	—	6	—	45	51	4	3	1	59
Jamaica	—	12	—	76	88	4	9	1	102
Trinidad and Tobago	1	4	—	16	21	—	—	2	23
Other	—	9	1	122	132	1	5	1	139
Latin America									
Argentina	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	8	8
Bolivia	3	—	5	—	8	6	8	—	22
Brazil	—	15	—	—	15	2	—	9	26
Chile...	—	12	—	—	12	2	—	3	17
Colombia	—	—	—	—	—	2	—	2	4
Mexico	—	1	—	—	1	—	3	2	3
Peru ...	1	2	1	—	4	5	—	3	15
Uruguay	2	1	—	—	3	—	—	2	5
Venezuela	—	1	—	—	—	1	—	2	3

'Other Countries'

Aden...	...	—	45	—	369	414	—	4	1	419
Falkland Islands	...	—	33	—	25	48	—	5	—	53
Fiji	2	26	—	317	345	—	6	1	352
Gibraltar	...	—	1	—	27	28	—	—	—	28
Gilbert and Ellice Islands	...	—	6	—	40	46	2	4	—	52
Hong Kong	...	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	3	4
Malta	...	—	9	—	—	9	—	—	1	10
Mauritius	...	—	7	—	87	94	3	—	1	98
New Hebrides (Br., Fr.)	...	—	3	—	31	34	1	1	—	36
Papua	...	—	—	—	—	—	—	7	—	7
Seychelles	...	—	7	—	33	40	—	—	—	40
Solomon Islands (Br.)	...	—	18	—	240	258	1	13	—	272
St. Helena	...	—	3	—	14	17	—	2	—	19
Europe										
Greece	...	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	7	7
Spain	...	—	5	—	—	5	—	—	11	16
Yugoslavia	...	—	2	—	—	2	—	—	8	10
Total	...	133	84	1,771	143	10,528	12,659	259	322	319
										13,559

Notes and Source: See Table 19.

**British Technical Assistance Personnel Overseas, 31 December 1963,
by Country and Type of Work (excluding Volunteers)**

By Country and Region	Education		Public Administration		Agriculture		Industry and Technology		Health and Sanitation		All Others		Grand Total
	Reg. Prog.	OSAS	Bt. Co.	Overseas Staff	Reg. Prog.	OSAS	Reg. Prog.	OSAS	Reg. Prog.	OSAS	Reg. Prog.	OSAS	
Colombo Plan													
Afghanistan	4	—	8	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	4
Burma ...	3	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	14
Cambodia	...	1	—	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	3
Ceylon ...	3	—	—	1	—	—	3	—	—	—	—	—	11
India ...	13	—	19	41	—	3	11	—	—	—	—	—	89
Indonesia	...	10	—	13	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	23
Korea ...	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Laos ...	3	—	—	—	—	—	3	—	3	—	—	—	10
Malaysia	...	7	91	11	10	—	8	184	4	118	—	32	817
Nepal ...	1	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2
Pakistan*	...	11	29	22	4	—	15	—	1	—	2	—	85
Philippines†	...	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1
Thailand†	...	—	16	7	1	—	1	—	2	—	—	—	29
Vietnam	2	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3
SEATO													
Pakistan*	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	2
Philippines†	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Thailand†	...	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1
CENTO													
Iran ...	14	...	5	16	—	—	4	—	2	—	1	—	47
Pakistan*	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Turkey	5	...	2	10	2	—	1	—	6	—	—	—	26

[illegible]

Basutoland	...	5	1	—	66	—	9	—	5	—	13	—	1	100
Bechuanaland	...	4	—	—	111	—	21	—	19	—	18	—	—	173
East African Common Services	...	5	—	—	576	—	37	—	690	—	7	—	105	1,420
Gambia	...	11	—	—	32	1	20	—	31	—	17	—	7	119
Ghana	...	9	10	9	—	1	—	14	—	—	3	—	—	57
Kenya	...	428	7	2	1,058	—	305	2	295	1	174	1	348	2,621
Nigeria	...	23	22	31	—	14	—	19	—	9	—	—	—	124
Northern Rhodesia (Zambia)	...	135	2	—	1,238	—	202	—	143	—	15	—	22	1,758
Nyasaland (Malawi)	...	82	2	2	342	—	63	2	39	—	2	—	282	816
Sierra Leone	...	4	2	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	10
Southern Rhodesia	...	1	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2
Swaziland	...	20	—	1	53	—	8	—	10	—	11	—	—	103
Tanganyika	...	212	5	3	303	—	138	1	223	—	113	1	232	1,237
Uganda	...	334	5	4	227	1	174	—	130	1	143	2	109	1,131
Zanzibar	...	26	1	—	55	—	14	—	30	—	25	—	1	152

[illegible]

[illegible]

'Other Countries'

Aden	45	1	—	148	—	25	—	104	—	79	—	13	415	
Falkland Islands	...	23	—	—	4	—	—	—	5	—	13	—	3	48	
Fiji	26	1	2	123	—	36	—	98	—	34	—	26	346	
Gibraltar	...	1	—	—	5	—	—	—	2	—	20	—	—	28	
Gilbert and Ellice Islands	...	6	—	—	22	—	1	—	10	—	6	—	1	46	
Hong Kong	...	—	3	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	
Malta	9	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	10	
Mauritius	...	7	1	—	43	—	6	—	22	—	6	—	10	95	
New Hebrides (Br., Fr.)	...	3	—	—	19	—	1	—	6	—	2	—	3	34	
Papua	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Seychelles	...	7	—	—	10	—	5	—	7	—	10	—	1	40	
Solomon Islands (Br.)	...	18	—	—	134	—	44	—	46	—	13	—	3	258	
St. Helena	...	3	—	—	5	—	1	—	1	—	7	—	—	17	
Europe															
Greece	—	7	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	7	
Spain	5	11	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	16	
Yugoslavia	...	2	8	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	10	
Total	...	94	1,771	319	83	4,950	39	1,216	96	2,212	35	933	13	1,217	12,978

Key: OSAS Overseas Service Aid Scheme
CEC Commonwealth Educational Co-operation
Ilt. Co. British Council

Reg. Prog. Regional Programmes

* Pakistan is a member of the Colombo Plan, SEATO and CENTO. The contributions shown against each scheme should be added to calculate the total benefit to Pakistan from UK technical assistance

† See above. Philippines is a member of Colombo Plan and SEATO

‡ As for Philippines (see above)

Notes: Of the categories in Table 6 on page 52, Tables 18 and 19 only cover 1, 2, 3; 5 (not Table 19): 7

The distribution between OSAS, CEC and British Council (column 2 in each table) is OSAS 1,472, CEC 144, British Council 155—see also Table 6—making up the grand total of 1,771

Source: DTC and British Council (previously unpublished)

Table 20**Nationality of International Technical Assistance Experts in the Field on 1 July 1963**

<i>Country</i>	<i>Expanded Programme of Technical Assistance</i>	<i>Regular Programmes of UN and Agencies</i>	<i>Special Fund</i>	<i>OPEX</i>	<i>Grand Total</i>
United Kingdom...	263	123	165	7	558
France	182	76	87	10	355
United States of America	146	75	80	3	304
Netherlands	83	71	44	3	201
India	98	39	28	1	166
Canada	58	31	36	1	126
USSR	80	19	24	—	123
Belgium	49	34	37	—	120
Germany	51	31	26	4	112
Switzerland	31	26	26	1	84
Australia	41	12	22	1	76
United Arab Republic ...	47	21	3	—	71
Italy	41	17	11	—	69
Norway	33	9	20	7	69
Sweden	36	15	13	2	66
Denmark	37	13	9	1	60
Spain	38	9	11	—	58
New Zealand	24	13	20	—	57
Other	412	232	94	9	747
Total	1,750	866	756	50	3,422

Source: UN Technical Assistance Board 'List of Technical Assistance Experts', TAB/DOC/R/104.

6—Training

British aid in the form of education and training is discussed in the third pamphlet in this series, *Educational Assistance*: therefore only a brief description is given here.

It is calculated that there were 50,100 full-time (on courses lasting six months or over) students and trainees from developing countries in Britain in March 1963, the latest date for which figures are available. The great majority of these had come to Britain privately or were financed by their own governments. The British Government was paying directly* for about 2,300 under official technical assistance schemes and the British Council for about 260 more through its Scholarship Programme (the British Council also financed a large number of very short-term training and study courses which would not be included in the 50,100 total). In addition, 483 United Nations Fellows from developing countries were on courses or attachments in Britain during the year 1962/3. Table 21 summarises the position for those under official technical assistance schemes or British Council sponsorship.

1 Schemes of Training

(a) Regional Technical Assistance Programmes

The main channel for providing technical assistance training is the Regional Programmes described more fully in Chapter X. Training is just one form of assistance provided under these Programmes: others include supply of experts, consultancies, surveys, equipment, etc. Table 22 shows the number of training places provided under each Programme since its inception (Colombo Plan 1951, SCAAP 1960 (Ghana 1957), CENTO 1956, Non-Commonwealth Africa 1958, Caribbean and other countries 1963).

During 1963, 1,085 trainees finished their courses, bringing the total number of completed courses over the period 1951–63 up to 6,055. At the end of 1963 there were 1,736 trainees under Regional Programmes in Britain compared with 1,150 a year earlier. The increase of nearly 600 in the number of trainees in Britain during the year was due primarily to a general expansion in Regional Programme training, but about a quarter of the increase was due to an administrative change on 1 April, 1963, which transferred students and trainees formerly financed from CD & W funds to the Regional Programmes.

* Indirectly it was to some extent supporting virtually all those from developing countries at British universities and technical colleges, numbering 10,110 and 13,640 respectively in 1962/3. In these institutions, fees cover only a small proportion of total costs of courses and the difference is made up from public funds. Taking only the current costs of courses (i.e., excluding capital costs of buildings, etc.), it is estimated that students from developing countries at universities and technical colleges benefit from British public subsidies by as much as £9–10m a year.

Table 21

Trainees in Britain under Official and British Council Programmes 1962/3

<i>Technical Assistance Schemes</i>				<i>Nos. at 31 March 1963</i>	<i>New Arrivals 1 April 1962 to 31 March 1963</i>	<i>UK Expenditure 1962/3 £'000</i>
Regional Programmes						
Colombo Plan	735	681	823
SCAAP	414	447	299
CENTO	105	26	94
Non-Commonwealth Africa	20	116	23
SEATO	1	1	1
Caribbean	4	12	2
Other Countries	12	20	6
Total	1,291	1,303	1,248
Commonwealth Educational Co-operation						
Commonwealth Scholars ³	308	136	385
Commonwealth Teacher Bursars	390	333	298
Total	698	469	683
CD & W¹						
Short-term ²	170	261	} 146
Long-term	95	21	
Total	265	282	
British Council³						
Short-term ² (Bursars, Visitors, Study Tours, etc.)	287	1,722	150
Long-term (British Council Scholars)	273	263	240
Total	560	1,985	390
UN and Specialised Agency Fellows³				483⁴	n.a.	—

¹ 31 March 1963, was in fact the last day of operation of CD & W as a separate training programme. On 1 April 1963, it was merged with the Regional Programmes.

² Including a high proportion for only two-three months.

³ Excluding those coming from developed countries to Britain under these programmes.

⁴ Numbers in Britain over the year April 1962-March 1963.

Source: DTC (previously unpublished).

Table 22

Provision of Training by Britain under Regional Programmes of Technical Assistance
As at 31 December, 1963

<i>Stage Reached</i>	<i>Colombo Plan</i>	<i>SCAAP</i>	<i>CENTO</i>	<i>Non-Commonwealth Africa</i>	<i>Caribbean</i>	<i>Other Countries</i>	<i>Total</i>
Training completed	87	76	6,055
Trainees in Britain	93	126	1,736
Total places provided	180	202	7,791
Cases under consideration:							
Offers accepted	8	15	92
Offers made	1	16	105
Applications being processed in Britain	38	77	790
Total under consideration	47	108	987
Grand Total	227	310	8,778

Source: DTC (previously unpublished).

Requests for training come to DTC via British posts overseas. Training is usually at postgraduate or equivalent level for people from developing countries who either hold a post or are about to be appointed to one. In other words, ordinary students are not generally accepted, although in the case of colonies and some of the more newly independent African countries exceptions have been made. Training given under these schemes is nearly always in Britain, apart from some forestry training in Cyprus and agricultural training in Trinidad. Courses may last up to six years, though they are normally much shorter. Britain pays the whole cost, including fees, maintenance allowances, travel, etc. Requests for training must come from overseas governments, though there is nothing to prevent them asking for training for people from the private sector. Subject to the foregoing provisions, a request for training will be accepted by the UK Government provided that:

- funds are available;
- a training place can be found;
- the training proposed will contribute to the economic or social development of the country concerned;
- the trainee is suitably qualified and speaks sufficient English;

It is also stipulated that trainees will return to their own country at the end of their training.

DTC does not now keep detailed records of the number of requests which cannot be met, but up to the end of 1962 rather over a quarter of the total number of requests that had been made under the Colombo Plan and SCAAP had not been followed by training for various reasons (see *Educational Assistance*, p. 108).

Regional Programme trainees study in Britain on average about 18 months and the cost to DTC funds is in the region of £1,000 per trainee per year. The 18 month average conceals a marked difference between those on academic courses at universities and technical colleges who tend to come for two or three years or even longer, and those on shorter courses and attachments which may often last from three to nine months.

About two-thirds of the trainees under technical assistance are at universities, technical colleges or teaching hospitals. Of the 1,303 new arrivals in 1962/3, 475 were studying social and economic sciences and public administration; 474 are classified as studying technology, industrial and agricultural subjects; 267 medicine, health and sanitation; 50 education, and 37 liberal and fine arts. The breakdown by Regional Programme is given in Table 23. Most of the Regional Programme trainees are taking courses also available to British students, but a small proportion of them attend the special courses for overseas students listed in Appendix IV.

Although DTC bears the cost of all Regional Programme training on its vote, it does not itself undertake the placing of the majority of trainees. In 1962/3, for instance, DTC placed 11% of these trainees, the British Council 36%, British Postgraduate Medical Federation and Royal College of Nursing 12%, Ministry of Labour 12%, other Government Departments and public bodies 12%, and 17% already had places when they were accepted for help under the Regional Programmes.

Training under Regional Programmes: Subject of Study of New Arrivals, 1962/3

Source: DTC (previously unpublished).

(b) Commonwealth Educational Co-operation

The historical background and institutional arrangements for Commonwealth Educational Co-operation are described in Chapter X. Under these schemes there are two main programmes for bringing students and trainees from developing countries to Britain.

Commonwealth Scholarships

At the first Commonwealth Education Conference at Oxford in 1959, Britain undertook to provide up to 500 scholarships and fellowships a year. Legislative provision was made for this in the Commonwealth Scholarships Act 1959, and financial provision was made in 1960 by the Commonwealth Teachers Act, which provided £6m over the period 1960-65 for all Commonwealth Educational Co-operation schemes. In the academic year 1962/3, there were 472 Commonwealth scholars in Britain, of whom 335 were from developing countries (only 308 of these were in Britain on 31 March, 1963—see Table 21). By October 1963, the total number of Scholars and Fellows had reached 512, including those from Australia, Canada, New Zealand and South Africa. Most scholars come to Britain for two or three years and virtually all of them study at university for higher degrees. In a very few cases at the request of the Commonwealth developing countries, Scholarships have been awarded for study at undergraduate level. The subjects of study of the 163 new scholars from developing countries in 1963 was 37 technology, 35 arts, 33 medicine, 30 pure science, 5 social sciences, 1 dentistry, 1 agriculture, 1 veterinary science.

The Scholarship Scheme in Britain is run by the Commonwealth Scholarship Commission, which is responsible to the Commonwealth and Colonial Secretary and has a predominantly academic membership. Its secretariat is provided by the Association of Commonwealth Universities. The Commission invites nominations from all Commonwealth countries in accordance with a quota previously laid down for each country. Selection is on the basis of 'the possession of intellectual merit and the submission of a realistic and practicable plan of study; but selections are made in such a way as to ensure that the various parts of the Commonwealth are appropriately represented and that various fields of study are included among the awards'.† Nominations are considered by a Selection Sub-committee of the Scholarship Commission with appropriate expert academic advice. The following table shows how the scheme has worked since it was inaugurated:

† Commonwealth Education Liaison Committee: *Commonwealth Scholarship and Fellowship Plan - First Annual Report 1960/1*, page 13.

Table 24

UK Commonwealth Scholarships: New Awards 1960-3

	1960	1961	1962	1963
Nominations invited by UK	482	481	n.a.	n.a.
Applications received by governments of recipient territories	5,407	6,135	4,060	4,921
Nominations submitted to UK by Commonwealth governments	452	471	396	362
Scholarships offered by UK	210	256	209	273
Scholarships accepted by candidates	168	226	183	222*

* Initial acceptances.

Source: CELU and UK Commonwealth Scholarship Commission Annual Reports.

The cost of the Commonwealth Scholarships works out at about £1,000 per scholar per full year. This covers travel to and in Britain, fees, maintenance grants and, where appropriate, marriage allowances.

The Commonwealth Scholarship Scheme is a multilateral scheme and other Commonwealth countries also offer scholarships to Britain. Fifteen UK nationals are listed in the 1963 Report of the Commonwealth Scholarship Commission as having accepted awards made by Commonwealth developing countries.

Commonwealth Teacher Bursaries

This scheme also dates from the Commonwealth Education Conference at Oxford. The Bursary Scheme is limited to developing countries of the Commonwealth and Britain has offered an average of 400 Bursaries per year. There were 351 Bursars in 1960/1, 415 in 1961/2, 390 in 1962/3, and 419 in 1963/4. In addition, there are in 1963/4 for the first time 17 technical teacher training bursaries (as against 45 offered) and 10 Bursars on a special course in textbook writing and production, bringing the total number up to 446 Bursars. The technical teaching bursaries and textbook writing bursaries were offered at the Second Commonwealth Education Conference at Delhi in 1962.

The Bursars are qualified teachers who come to Britain for supplementary or advanced training, although in a few cases initial training is given. Many of the Bursars attend specially designed courses at university institutes of education, though a few are at training colleges. The Scheme is designed particularly for key personnel who are expected to be teacher trainers themselves or to occupy responsible posts such as head teachers, school superintendents, and administrators. The training usually lasts one year, but sometimes two.

There is a special Commonwealth Bursary Unit at the Department of Education and Science, which administers the Scheme and makes selections. There is less emphasis on academic achievement than in the Scholarship Scheme, and an attempt is made to obtain a fair distribution of awards among Commonwealth developing countries. The average annual cost works out at about £800 per annum per Bursar, which covers fees and full maintenance. Developing countries themselves are usually expected to meet travel costs to Britain.

(c) Colonial Development and Welfare

Although shown in Table 21, the Colonial Development and Welfare category of trainees has now ceased to exist. As from 1 April, 1963, the colonies were brought into the Regional technical assistance Programmes and this involved a transfer of students and trainees from CD & W support to Regional Programme support. About 60 or 70 long-term students from the colonies were brought within the scope of Regional Programmes and between 100 and 200 shorter term trainees. The number of CD & W scholars and trainees had in any case been declining with the gaining of independence by successive colonies. The amalgamation of CD & W with the Regional Programmes meant that the scope of training under Regional Programmes had to be modified. They could no longer be confined to preparing people from the developing countries specifically

for jobs because many colonies required a continuation of the financial help they had been receiving from CD & W to send students to university undergraduate courses and other courses of similar standing. The administrative change also resulted in a few expatriate civil servants from overseas being brought within the scope of the Regional Programmes. The numbers are not large and those concerned are usually attending courses of two to three months during their leave in Britain.

(d) British Council

Although its activities are not normally counted as part of the official aid programme, the British Council is very active in programmes for trainees from the developing countries. The main scheme run by the Council is its Scholarship Programme, which is open to students from both developed and developing countries. The Scholarships are normally advertised publicly. Preliminary selection is done overseas, and the final awards are made by the Awards Committee in London. At present there are about 300 Scholars a year from developing countries in Britain. The Scholarships are usually awarded for one or two academic years and are for postgraduate study or research, normally in British universities or other educational institutions. Scholars are under an obligation to return to their own country at the end of the period of tenure of the award.

Apart from the Scholarships, the British Council runs a number of shorter term schemes. There are British Council Bursaries which are for two to six months research and training in Britain and 200–300 of these are awarded each year to nationals of developing countries at present. Bursars are normally people already established in their profession or trade. Another category is British Council 'Visitors'. These are mostly people of senior status who come to Britain on visits from a few weeks to several months. Their visits are more in the nature of liaison and contact visits than training. About half of them are under two months but a few come for six months or more. In some cases the British Council help consists entirely of arranging visits and making professional contacts, but in other cases financial assistance is also given. Of 1,470 visitors in 1963/4 (1,265 in 1962/3) assisted by the Council, 630 (550) were being financially assisted in whole or in part: three-fifths of the visitors were from developing countries. A further category is people coming to Britain on 'study tours'. These are a series of visits arranged on request for groups of specialists from overseas countries to study the latest practice in Britain in their fields and British Council catered, in 1963/4, for about 400 (over 300 in 1962/3) people from developing countries on these study tours. The study tours are short term.

(e) United Nations and Specialised Agency Fellows

In 1962/3 there were 483 UN and Specialised Agency Fellows in Britain, of whom 149 were under the auspices of WHO, 99 UNESCO, 83 UN technical assistance, 58 ILO, 57 FAO, 37 others. The direct finance for these Fellows is provided by the UN or Specialised Agencies and not by the UK, but Britain is the second largest contributor to the budgets of the sponsoring bodies. In addition to this indirect financial contribution, Britain gives assistance with placing. Thus the British

Council handles placing in Britain of Fellows for UN Technical Assistance, UNESCO, FAO and International Atomic Energy Agency; Ministry of Health – WHO; Ministry of Labour – ILO; General Post Office – Universal Postal Union and ITU; Ministry of Defence (RAF) – WMO.

2 DTC Placing Activities

Arrangements for placing overseas students under publicly financed technical assistance schemes have been described above and can be summarised as follows:

Scheme	Placing Bodies
Regional Programmes	British Council, DTC, etc.
Commonwealth Scholarships	UK Commonwealth Scholarship Commission
Commonwealth Bursaries	Department of Education and Science
CD & W	Now amalgamated with Regional Programmes
British Council Schemes	British Council
UN and Specialised Agency Fellows	British Council, Government Departments

In addition to its share in the placing of technical assistance trainees, DTC also assists independent and colonial governments by placing, at their request, other students and trainees. (DTC distinguishes between 'trainees' who come to Britain for specific job training, and 'students' who are as a rule not yet employed and come for general study.) DTC does not charge overseas governments for its assistance with placing. However, in spite of DTC's willingness to help in this way most independent governments rely on their own embassies and high commissions in London to undertake this work.

In 1962/3 DTC placed about 1,700 public service trainees outside the Regional Programmes and Commonwealth Educational Co-operation. These mostly came from colonial territories and a few recently independent Commonwealth countries. In the last financial year April 1963 to March 1964, the numbers had fallen to 740, of whom 160 were expatriate employees of overseas governments. Some of the trainees came for individual attachments to Government Departments, public corporations, etc., but the majority were on courses. In many cases they were studying (at the expense of their own governments) on the special courses listed in Appendix IV, and were attending these side by side with the British-financed trainees under Regional Programmes.

In addition to the public servants mentioned in the previous paragraph, DTC also places through its students branch about 1,500 colonial and Commonwealth students a year in British academic institutions, mostly universities and teacher training colleges. For minor colonies, DTC has taken over from the Colonial Office the placing of all officially sponsored students. For larger colonies and some newly independent Commonwealth countries, DTC handles placing of undergraduate university students and teacher training college students, but the countries and territories concerned use their own student offices for all other categories of student. DTC does not, however, place any students for India, Pakistan, Ceylon, Ghana, Malaysia, Nigeria, Cyprus or Northern and Southern Rhodesia, nor will it be doing so for Uganda after 1964. These countries have their own student offices and British universities and training colleges

will accept applications from them direct. The British Council also places a considerable number of students sponsored by overseas governments upon the recommendation of the Council's representatives overseas, particularly from the Middle East, South East Asia, the Far East and Latin America.

3 Sponsorship of Courses

As already explained, most overseas students and trainees attend courses basically designed for British students. There are, however, a number of courses specially designed for overseas candidates and most of these are listed in Appendix IV. The first eight of these can only be attended by people nominated officially. The others are open to private students as well; but in practice, since the fees are usually rather high, most participants tend to be financed from the Regional Programmes, British Council, UN and Specialised Agencies, or by the participants' own governments.

DTC prefers to support courses through the payment of economic fees on behalf of technical assistance trainees. However in a few cases it has given special assistance in other ways. For example, it pays the salaries and expenses of supervisors for overseas students on administrative training courses at Oxford, Cambridge and London Universities, at the School of Military Survey, and at the Police Training establishments at Hendon and Bramshill. These courses were originally established largely in order to train British entrants to the Colonial Services, but in the course of time they have concentrated increasingly (now almost exclusively) on nationals of the developing countries.

A second way in which DTC is occasionally able to make available support is by helping to finance the cost of establishing new courses. The sums involved are not large and are expected to be once and for all payments – thereafter the courses must pay their way by charging appropriate fees.

A third form of support is the giving of guarantees to training institutions in respect of the number of students attending special courses. Since these courses are rather expensive to establish and overseas demand for them difficult to ascertain, DTC is occasionally prepared to give a financial guarantee in respect of the number of students required to reach break-even point. This has been done, for example, with the course in Co-operation Overseas at the Co-operative College, Loughborough, as recommended by the Peddie Committee, and in respect of certain public administration courses at the London School of Economics and elsewhere. This facility is useful to sponsors of courses but has not in fact cost DTC anything so far as the required numbers have been reached in every case since it was introduced.

As compared with payments of course fees under Regional Technical Assistance Programmes and Commonwealth Educational Co-operation, the arrangements described above do not claim much of DTC's resources and account for under £50,000 a year of expenditure.

4 Administration and Welfare Facilities

The British Council looks after the day to day administration of students and trainees under all the above schemes and, where appropriate, is reimbursed by DTC for this. The British Government also makes available welfare facilities through the British Council to non-aided overseas students and trainees, and has set aside sums of money for the capital cost of hostels for overseas students in Britain. For further details see *Educational Assistance*, pages 92-93 and 110.

7—Research

Assistance by DTC in the research field is organised rather differently from the Regional technical assistance Programmes under which personnel, training, consultancies and surveys, and equipment are provided in response to individual requests from overseas. Generally speaking, funds for research assistance are provided in a single separate sub-head of the DTC vote (the major exception to this rule is the Anti-Locust Research Centre, which is financed as a DTC Special Unit) and there are no regional programmes of research as such. There are several reasons for the different approach in this field. First, by providing earmarked funds DTC can ensure that the needs of research, which might not always be clearly seen in the developing countries, are not neglected by being accorded low priority in a territorial programme of technical assistance. Second, the problems of the developing countries on which research is required are often of concern to more than one country, or even region, and it would be difficult to ensure an adequate attack on these problems by merely responding to individual requests from overseas countries; it would also be virtually impossible to recruit for, and run, centrally-based institutions in London if these had to expand and contract their services from month to month in accordance with requests.

The ambit of DTC's research sub-head is wide, being for 'expenditure on the promotion of research for the benefit of developing countries' and it is used both to carry on or sponsor research in the United Kingdom on relevant problems and to make grants to overseas governments, universities and institutes in support of their own research on those problems. Originally this work was financed out of CD & W funds and was confined to the colonies, but the geographical range was extended from 1962/3 onwards. When the new sub-head was first established, its level was fixed for a period of three years (from 1963/4) at £1.96m (excluding provision for the Anti-Locust Research Centre of £247,000 in 1963/4 and £141,000 in 1964/5) and it is intended each year to fix the provision for a further year ahead. Thus, on this 'rolling triennial' basis, DTC will continue to know what they can plan to spend over three years ahead. This enables the Department to give firmer assurances of support and facilitates forward planning.

DTC obtains professional advice on research priorities from its Advisers and Advisory Committees (see Appendix III). In most cases, the research Advisers are the heads of the various home-based research institutions which DTC supports, and the only ones independent of any research institution are the Adviser on Medical Research and the Agricultural Research Adviser. The identity of these Advisers and Advisory Committees reflects (it is hard to know whether it is cause or effect) the heavy concentration of DTC research in the field of agriculture and medicine, and the relative neglect of economics, education, and the social services.

Beyond these advisers and advisory committees there is the Overseas Research Council (ORC), set up in 1959 to advise on policy and co-ordination in the field of scientific research for the benefit of overseas countries.

ORC replaced the Colonial Research Council which had advised on the application of CD & W Research Allocation funds to the dependent territories and its principal pre-occupation at first was to try to ensure the continuation of the research units in former colonial territories following independence. Because it has no funds of its own, ORC has acted in a purely advisory capacity since its creation. When DTC was established in 1961, many of the problems facing ORC fell within the ambit of the Department and the Council has, in consequence, been inactive since then. The Trend Committee on the Organisation of Civil Science recommended in its Report (1963) that ORC be dissolved.

Support for Overseas Research Organisations

Of the £2.2m for research in the 1963/4 budget, it is estimated that just over £1.2m was for research in the developing countries. A rough breakdown by region and by subject is given in Table 25. The greater part of this expenditure is in the form of grants towards the recurrent and capital cost of various research institutions in developing countries. It does frequently happen that the staff of the institutions are British expatriates perhaps recruited by DTC and supported partly by OSAS funds, but the financial grants by DTC are not specifically dependent on this, and in fact the total of 800 or so research workers at these institutions in 1963/4 included local as well as British nationals. Normally, British aid is given on a 50-50 basis, but there have been instances where DTC has gone higher than this. Almost without exception, the institutions concerned are situated in recently independent Commonwealth countries and were built up out of CD & W funds in colonial days. British support for them is still found necessary. Mostly they are national or regional institutions under the control of governments in the developing countries or else are parts of overseas universities, but DTC also gives support to several of the (British) Medical Research Council's* units overseas in the West Indies, Africa and Malaya.

Some of the bigger overseas institutions being supported are:

- East African Agricultural and Forestry Research Organisation
- East African Freshwater Fisheries Research Organisation
- East African Industrial Research Organisation
- East African Institute of Malaria and Vector-Borne Diseases
- East African Institute for Medical Research
- East African Leprosy Research Centre
- East African Marine Fisheries Research Organisation
- East African Trypanosomiasis Research Organisation
- East African Veterinary Research Organisation
- East African Virus Research Institute
- Medical Research Council Laboratory in the Gambia
- Regional Research Centre, West Indies
- Tropical Fish Culture Research Institute, Malacca

* The division of interest between the Department of Technical Co-operation and the Medical Research Council in this is as follows. The Medical Research Council's projects overseas and MRC finance for them should, under its terms of reference, be concentrated on health problems affecting British interests. The thought here is that some diseases are common to several parts of the world, or may affect British troops serving overseas, or may be carried to Britain by migrants, for instance. DTC's interest is in discoveries which are of (relatively direct and immediate) social and economic benefit to developing countries. Obviously some of MRC's work covers both these aspects.

Tropical Metabolism Research Unit, Jamaica
Tropical Virus Research Laboratory, Trinidad
West Indies Institute of Social and Economic Research

In addition to these institutes and organisations, financial support is also given to government agricultural research stations in Sabah, Sarawak, Malawi and Swaziland. In addition, DTC has agreed to make a substantial grant towards the work of the reconstituted Agricultural Research Council of Central Africa over a period of three years from 1 July, 1964.

Within the present limit of funds, the priorities in support for research overseas seem to be determined largely by past patterns in so far as the choice of countries and institutions is concerned. It is largely a case of continuing support for existing institutions; and new initiatives and new organisations can only be developed as new funds become available.

When support is given to an overseas institution, there are usually arrangements for DTC's professional advisers or other British scientists to participate in the work of the local research councils and committees that review their research programmes.

With the exception, perhaps, of overseas universities research, the motive for British support of overseas research institutions is to further the specific projects being undertaken there. The consideration that these are places where indigenous research workers could be trained and the foundations of a modern scientific community laid does not seem to play any significant part in British thinking on this. It is worthy of mention, however, that DTC does finance British participation in, and help and advice for, research councils such as the Natural Resources Research Council and Medical Research Council in East Africa, and the new Agricultural Research Council recently set up in Central Africa.

A new scheme at present being considered, and to be paid for out of research funds, is for a few Research Fellowships to be offered by Britain each year for tenure at universities and other institutions in developing countries. They will aim to attract people who have already completed a period of postgraduate research and at first there will probably be only up to about ten. They should not be confused with the new scheme for 25 Prestige Awards, primarily for teaching at universities in Commonwealth developing countries.

Table 25

Estimated† Expenditure on Research Overseas Supported by DTC - 1963/4

	East Africa £	Central Africa £	West Africa £	Caribbean £	Asia £	Others £	Total £
Agriculture (including Veterinary and Forestry)	...	144,000	6,000	130,000	121,000	37,000	627,000
Fisheries	...	35,000	—	—	55,000	—	92,000
Pesticides	...	40,000	—	8,000	—	4,000	52,000
Trypanosomiasis	...	42,000	1,000	—	—	—	43,000
Medical	...	91,000	—	100,000	2,000	—	260,000
Social Science and Economics	...	40,000	8,000	34,000	—	15,000	101,000
Miscellaneous (including Meteorological and Seismology, etc.)	...	23,000	2,000	—	—	—	33,000
Total	...	460,000	157,000	272,000	178,000	56,000	1,208,000

Source: DTC (previously unpublished).

† Actual Expenditure for 1963/4 was subsequently stated to have totalled £1,172,000 — In 'Research Assistance for Developing Countries' (Cmd. 2433, July 1964), Appendix B.

Support of Home-based Establishments

In 1963/4, nearly £1m was allocated to research undertaken in the United Kingdom on behalf of the developing countries. Table 26 shows how this money is divided between the various establishments and amongst outside institutions by subject. Altogether there were 144 Senior Staff and 190 supporting staff working on home-based research financed by DTC in 1963/4.

The home research institutions wholly financed by DTC were all at one time restricted in their operations almost entirely to the colonies, and were originally paid for out of CD & W funds. The change to the present system was made in 1962/3. The Anti-Locust Research Centre is the only one which ranks as a 'Special Unit' of DTC, though the Tropical Pesticides Headquarters and Information Unit and Tropical Pesticides Research Unit are also under direct administrative control of the DTC. The others are located under 'parent organisations' in DSIR or the Agricultural Research Council.

Most of these establishments concentrate primarily on their research function, though a certain amount of advice, regular information or training may also be given, and staff are often sent abroad on liaison or advisory visits. In addition, some have a few field officers available on secondment for technical assistance duties overseas on request. The work of the home units is undertaken only partly in response to actual requests and problems submitted by developing countries; most of it is applied research, but the units also undertake basic studies directed to the solution of longer-term problems. The general pattern of their work is in most cases controlled by a research committee advisory to the parent organisation or directly to DTC.

The work financed by DTC but carried out at independent organisations (Table 26b) is, of course, only a part of the benefit which developing countries may derive from research work in British universities and institutes, for many of these institutions finance work on problems of developing countries from other sources. DTC-financed research projects by these independent bodies are sometimes extensions of work being done on home problems and sometimes new work arising from contacts between the universities and developing countries. The request for DTC support frequently comes from the university or institution interested in undertaking the project, either direct or via one of DTC's scientific committees.

The following is a brief description of the activities of the home-based organisations listed in Table 26a.

Anti-Locust Research Centre

This is a Special Unit under the administrative control of DTC and it has a staff of 68. It was formally set up as a separate body in 1945, although many of its functions had been carried out previously by the Imperial Institute of Entomology (now the Commonwealth Institute of Entomology) since 1929. The work of the Centre, financed at first from CD & W funds but now directly by DTC, includes research into the biology, distribution, migrations and control of locusts; the dissemination of information on locusts and grasshoppers; and training. The A-LRC is,

in fact, an international centre of expertise in its particular field. It runs the Desert Locust Information Service which was constituted in its present form in 1961 by an agreement between the British Government and FAO, acting as Executing Agency for the UN Special Fund Desert Locust Project. It also runs training courses and provides facilities for research workers from overseas. It is largely due to the initiative and inspiration of the Centre that the strategy of control of the Desert locust has been put on a sound basis, and that the African migratory locust and the Red locust have been brought under control in the past twenty years by the establishment of international control organisations. The Centre has its headquarters in Kensington, London, where most of its staff work, though a few are normally in the field engaged on advisory or research duties. Its budget is just under £150,000 a year, though in 1963/4 this was swollen by the capital cost of acquiring new premises.

Tropical Products Institute (TPI)

The Tropical Products Institute is the largest of the home-based research units financed by DTC. Its budget is £310,000 and it has some 160 staff, of whom 77 are on the professional side (including laboratory staff). It is wholly financed by DTC at present, but is administered as a station of the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research (DSIR). As a result of the Trend Report which advocates the breaking up of DSIR, the question of its future attachment is re-opened. The location of its offices and laboratories is Central London.

Historically, TPI originated as part of the Scientific and Technical Department of the Imperial Institute, which opened in 1893. In 1949, it was taken over by the Colonial Office as the Colonial Products Advisory Bureau (later the Colonial Products Laboratory) where it was linked to the Colonial Products Council. In 1959, it was decided to broaden the organisation's terms of reference, which was interpreted as meaning it must move from under the Colonial Office 'umbrella' (DTC was not set up until 1961) and it was moved as the Tropical Products Institute to DSIR partly because at that time this was where the Pest Infestation Laboratory and Food Stations were based (they moved to the Agricultural Research Council three months later).

The work of TPI is mostly concerned with the processing, marketing and utilisation of renewable natural resources – i.e. plant and animal products. It is not concerned with agricultural techniques themselves, except indirectly, although it has been able to give advice on land use problems and many years ago was largely responsible for the successful introduction of pyrethrum into East Africa. It pays close attention to the economics of production, including the possibility of establishing small-scale industries to process local crops. The main forms of TPI's services include research at its London laboratories (it also finances some extra-mural research); an advisory service for developing countries who need answers to straightforward questions or want laboratory tests on their products (e.g. whether their citrus will yield juice of good quality on processing, etc.); process development work – which largely involves tackling engineering problems and devising tools and machinery to handle local processing of tropical produce; training of overseas personnel in

their work and methods; loaning of staff to work abroad on advisory visits or on a contract basis. TPI staff calculate that about 40% of their work is undertaken in response to requests, and about 60% on their own initiative.

Tropical Section, Road Research Laboratory

As early as 1948 there was a Colonial Liaison Officer appointed at the Road Research Laboratory (part of DSIR) and in 1955 a Colonial Section was formed. In 1959 its name was changed to the Tropical Section. It was originally financed from Colonial Development and Welfare funds. Since 1963 its activities have been financed by DTC and the scope of its work now takes in all developing countries. Its present budget is nearly £150,000 per annum. Of a total staff of 40, 33 are scientific and experimental staff. The Director of Road Research is advised on the activities of the section by the Overseas Road Research Committee of the Road Research Board, whose membership includes Commonwealth representatives.

The research work of the Section concerns, on the one hand, road-making materials and methods of construction, and on the other problems of road financing, planning, traffic control and safety. Most of the research work is undertaken overseas and usually there are between two and seven teams in the field. Research projects arise very largely out of discussions with staff of overseas governments during liaison visits carried out by members of the Section. The research is carried out in collaboration with governments and other institutions in developing countries who meet many of the locally arising costs.

Apart from research, the Section provides an advisory service on problems of road transport and road building in developing countries. The staff pay regular liaison visits overseas and, as required, special advisory visits. Reports on the results of research and on overseas road problems and developments are issued regularly. In addition, arrangements are made for training overseas personnel both on regular courses and *ad hoc* attachments.

Tropical Division, Building Research Station

The Division, although administratively part of DSIR, is wholly financed by DTC. Its history started when, in 1948, a Colonial Building Liaison Officer was appointed at BRS. A unit was gradually built up, which was originally confined to work on colonial problems and financed from CD & W, but later under DTC had its terms of reference and financial basis widened to include other developing countries. The Division at present has eight professionally qualified officers and a budget of about £40,000 per annum. There is a Tropical Building Committee of the DSIR Building Research Board to advise on the work of BRS on tropical building.

Its work covers the whole field of building, housing and planning in developing countries. The major part of its activities concerns the collection from, and supply to, developing countries of information on developments in these fields. The staff make frequent liaison visits and also *ad hoc* technical assistance missions to advise on particular problems. The

Division issues regularly its own specialised information papers, both on its own work and on general technical developments.

The research programme of the Division is partly basic research and partly applied research and development. Subjects at present being studied include thermal comfort conditions, building control, hurricane and earthquake conditions, paint and other materials, planning and planning legislation, building practice and housing densities. The programme is carried out in conjunction with governments and institutions abroad.

Tropical Stored Products Centre (TSPC)

TSPC was established in its present form in 1963, having previously existed as the CD & W financed Tropical Stored Products Liaison Department at the Pest Infestation Laboratory since 1951. The Centre is administered and financed by DTC with a budget of £40,000 per annum. The Centre has 18 scientific and 5 administrative staff of its own, though it can also draw on the expertise and services of specialist staff at the Pest Infestation Laboratory and the Infestation Control Laboratory of the Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food.

The TSPC's work is designed to bring about improvements in methods of harvesting, drying, storing and transporting produce in developing countries, which is effected through advisory work, training and research investigations. Much of it is undertaken in response to requests from developing countries themselves, though part of it is stimulated by the Centre. The main lines of research carried out in Britain and overseas are:

- new uses for plastics in drying and storage;
- behaviour of insects under tropical conditions;
- development of new types of sacks and containers;
- methods for assessing quality of produce;
- performance and development of moisture meters;
- development of chemical methods for control of insect pests.

The Centre runs special courses for technical assistance trainees and also accommodates trainees on attachment. The Centre seconds its staff under technical assistance (Regional Programme) arrangements to developing countries, and also arranges liaison visits at its own expense. The Centre's work and findings are published in a number of scientific journals, and a publication, 'Tropical Stored Products Information', is prepared by the Centre.

Tropical Pesticides Headquarters Information Unit and Tropical Pesticides Research Unit

The work of these organisations is concerned mainly with mosquitoes, flies, etc., which threaten human and animal health, and also with agricultural pests which attack growing crops (pests which destroy stored crops are investigated by the Tropical Stored Products Centre described above).

The Tropical Pesticides Headquarters Information Unit was started by the Colonial Office in 1955. It is administered by DTC, has a staff of 11 people, and is housed in the Tropical Products Institute building. Apart from its budget from DTC funds of just over £20,000 per annum, it

receives a small supplementary sum under a research contract from the World Health Organisation (WHO). The Unit is in charge of the Scientific Secretary of DTC's Tropical Pesticides Research Committee (TPRC – see Appendix III). This officer is responsible for co-ordinating all research carried out under the general guidance of TPRC, which includes work at the Tropical Pesticides Research Unit, Porton (see below); the Tropical Pesticides Research Institute, Arusha, Tanganyika, which was administratively linked with DTC until 1963; universities and research abroad. Apart from these co-ordinating functions, the Headquarters Information Unit offers information services, especially through its publications, and advice. It also undertakes a limited amount of research into molluscicides, biochemical mode of action of insecticides, and economics of pest control.

The Tropical Pesticides Research Unit was formed in 1948. It is administered by DTC and housed at the Ministry of Defence's establishment at Porton Down in Wiltshire. It has a total staff of 14, including 5 research officers, and is financed by DTC (about £23,000 in 1964) together with an annual grant from WHO for work in connection with international health programmes. The main types of research include the toxicity of different chemical compounds to various pests and the influence of different environmental conditions, etc., on their effectiveness; estimation of crop losses due to pests and economic uses of pesticides; methods of applying pesticides. This work is essentially fundamental research of general interest to developing countries, but some problems are submitted by individual developing countries.

Central Pool of Scientists

The origin of the Central Pool goes back some years to the days when the Colonial Development and Welfare Programme was at its height. There were certain specialists whose services individual colonies might not be able to afford and who were therefore supported from central funds and held available for the use of colonies as required. When not required overseas they were maintained in Britain (out of CD & W funds) writing up their work or doing fresh investigations, etc. With the setting up of DTC and the extension of British technical assistance to more independent countries, the policy has been to absorb these scientists into established (i.e., part of the civil service) home-based institutions as far as possible. In a few cases, this has not yet been possible and the following five categories remain under the Central Pool and are attached to various non-established organisations. The total number in Britain at any one time is normally under a dozen.

Category	Attached to	Administered by
Pool of Entomologists	Commonwealth Institute of Entomology	Commonwealth Agricultural Bureaux
Pool of Plant Pathologists	Commonwealth Mycological Institute	Commonwealth Agricultural Bureaux
Pool of Pesticides Chemists	Tropical Pesticides HQ and Information Unit	Department of Technical Co-operation
Termite Research Unit	Commonwealth Institute of Entomology	Commonwealth Agricultural Bureaux
Rodent Liaison Officer	Ministry of Agriculture, Food and Fisheries Investigation and Control Division	Department of Technical Co-operation

In addition to the above institutions engaged on research, there is a small but significant piece of work not on the research vote which deserves special mention in this chapter. Under sub-head Q4 of the Estimates (see Appendix II) is included a small item to support a Commonwealth Liaison Officer at the National Institute of Agricultural Engineering and to finance certain development work at the Institute. The NIAE has in fact been working with this money on the development of tools and machinery for agricultural use in developing countries and the first fruits have been a specially designed lightweight mono-wheel drive tractor for use in the tropics and an animal-drawn toolbar. Once prototypes have been successfully developed, manufacturing licences for them are issued through the National Research Development Corporation (NRDC), a public corporation, to private firms so that they can develop a market overseas and build up distribution channels. Some of this work by NIAE is similar in type to the newly established process development work of TPI (see above) and in fact a series of regular co-ordinating meetings is now being held between DTC, NRDC, NIAE, TPI and TSPC to work on simple technological devices and processes for use in developing countries. The total amount of DTC finance involved is equivalent to less than 1% of the research budget.

Table 26

Estimated† Expenditure on Home-Based Research

(a) Institutions wholly financed by DTC									
									£
Anti-Locust Research Centre (Special Unit, DTC)							247,000
Tropical Products Institute (DSIR)	310,000
Tropical Section, Road Research Laboratory (DSIR)							142,000
Tropical Division, Building Research Station (DSIR)							39,000
Tropical Stored Products Centre (Agricultural Research Council)							40,000
Tropical Pesticides Research Unit (DTC)							23,000
Tropical Pesticides Headquarters and Information Unit (DTC)							22,000
Central Pool of Scientists (administered by several bodies – see text)							15,000
Total	£838,000
(b) DTC-Financed Research at 'Outside' Institutions (Universities and Institutes) by Subject									
									£
Agriculture	35,000
Fisheries	6,000
Pesticides	29,000
Trypanosomiasis	43,000*
Medical...	35,000
Social Science and Economics	2,000
Total	£150,000

* Includes capital grant of about £30,000 in 1963/4 for a building at Bristol University to which DTC is contributing about £10,000 per annum in recurrent costs.

† Total actual expenditure by DTC on home-based research in 1963/4 was subsequently stated to be £905,000, of which £186,000 was the cost of the Anti-Locust Research Centre — see 'Research Assistance for the Developing Countries' (Cmd 2433, July 1964), Appendix B.

Source: DTC (previously unpublished).

8—Consultancies and Surveys

In 1963 DTC spent £115,000 on consultancies and about £1.1m on geodetic, topographical and geological surveys (see Table 5). Consultancies are financed entirely on a Regional Programme basis. Although only about one-third of the surveys were financed under Regional Programmes in 1963, the method of financing mapping surveys undertaken by the Directorate of Overseas Surveys has recently been changed so as to make Regional Programme funds cover virtually the whole cost of these henceforth; only the work of Overseas Geological Surveys now remains outside the Regional Programmes.

1 Consultancies

DTC provides consultancy services through Government institutions, statutory organisations or private firms. In the public sector, for example, it has used the General Post Office, Central Electricity Generating Board, National Coal Board, UK Railway Advisory Service; in the private sector it has turned mostly to professional consultancy firms, though on occasion industrial firms have been used. DTC has not (as AID in the United States has) employed universities for contract work, mainly on the grounds that few universities in Britain are organised in such a way as to be able to field an inter-disciplinary team for long periods.

In general, DTC-financed consultancies do not go beyond the feasibility stage. The actual design work on a scheme and the supervision both of the award of the contract and of the contractor's operations are felt to be part of the capital cost of projects and to fall more properly to the authority financing the project itself.

The present programme involves about 12 to 15 consultancies a year, and to date DTC has engaged some 15–20 different organisations. Individual consultancy contracts have normally been for amounts of well under £50,000.

Engaging consultants is an alternative to the use of individual experts or teams of experts, and may often be preferred where the job to be done requires a wide range of different skills and experience. Firms of consultants have the organisation and resources to be able to deploy specialist staff of their own, or to hire them from others, and to co-ordinate the use of those with different skills for short or long periods as required. Moreover, the continuity of existence of consultancy organisations has advantages in terms both of their professional interest in maintaining their reputation and of their availability for further consultation and advice once the initial survey has been completed.

Technical assistance requests which DTC has met by using consultants have included investigations into engineering projects such as Bangkok's sewage and drainage system, and specific economic and technical studies such as the possibility of producing polyvinyl chloride in Chile, of introducing cold storage facilities for the fish industry in Persia, and of setting up a resin industry in Ethiopia. There was also, for example, an industrial development survey of Northern Nigeria and one on reducing building costs in Northern Rhodesia. Another type of consultancy has involved

management studies. Most of the contracts have been in the industrial development or public utilities field; there have been no consultancies in the social services field.

When a request is received, DTC takes the advice of its professional advisers and of the relevant professional association in choosing the most suitable consultants, and the agreement of the government of the developing country is obtained. Consultants are engaged to work for and report to the government of the developing country or to an authority designated by it. DTC pays the bills: it also receives a copy of the report.

In appraising requests for consultancy work from developing countries, DTC's main concerns are, first, the project's relationship to the overall development of the requesting country and, second, arrangements for the implementation of the project. DTC generally insists, as with other forms of technical assistance, that projects should be likely to assist the economic development of the country and should fall within the development plan, if there is one. Normally, projects would be in the public sector, though private sector projects are not automatically excluded. With regard to implementation, DTC expects to satisfy itself as to the likely availability of money to carry out the project in question if the survey should turn out to be favourable. It also requires some assurance that (where applicable) it would be open to British contracting firms to submit tenders for the job in question. If, for example, there was reason to suppose that the actual implementation of the project would be paid for out of aid funds whose use was tied to the goods and services of a country other than Britain, then the UK would be unlikely to finance the initial consultancy. Nor would the British Government be likely to commission consultants to report on a project which could be expected to lead to increased competition for British firms.

As with the provision of individual experts, it is always a condition of technical assistance in the form of consultancies that the recipient country is expected to bear a share of the cost by providing for the consultants, without charge, local facilities such as transport and office accommodation and, where appropriate, help with local labour or with assembling any necessary statistical data. In addition, it is usual to ask the developing country to make a financial contribution towards the sterling costs of the consultancy work.

2 Geodetic, Topographical and Geological Surveys

In these specialised fields, DTC has organisations under its own administrative control, namely the Directorate of Overseas (Geodetic and Topographical) Surveys and Overseas Geological Surveys.

(a) Directorate of Overseas (Geodetic and Topographical) Surveys

The Directorate of Overseas (Geodetic and Topographical) Surveys (DOS) is the largest of the three Special Units under DTC. It provides the developing countries with surveying and map-making services. It was originally established in 1946 as the Directorate of Colonial Surveys and was financed from CD & W funds. Its headquarters are at Tolworth in Surrey, where most of the 510 UK staff are employed. However, DOS

also has survey teams doing ground survey work to establish control for mapping as well as basic triangulation framework in developing countries, where it co-operates with local survey departments. At present, the Directorate has about 14 field parties working overseas and 48 of its surveyors are working with these in Trinidad, British Honduras, Northern and Eastern Nigeria, Sierra Leone, Zambia (N. Rhodesia), Malawi, Kenya, Uganda, Tanganyika, Bechuanaland, Malaysia and British Solomon Islands Protectorate. These overseas survey operations give additional employment to a further 500 or so local ancillary staff. In addition to undertaking actual survey work overseas, DOS also occasionally second staff to developing countries to help with training local surveyors.

Most of the survey work undertaken by DOS is required in connection with urgent development and planning schemes, including irrigation schemes, river basin development and, more rarely, site surveys for specific projects like dams, although, wherever possible, the maps are prepared to a standard specification so as to form part of the basic national mapping. In the case of a few small countries, it has been possible to provide overall coverage of the whole country for general purposes. The majority of the maps are compiled from air photography undertaken partly by commercial firms under contracts arranged by DOS, and occasionally by the RAF as part of its military programmes. Most of the processes of making up the maps from the data acquired through air photography and field surveys are carried out at Tolworth and printing is done by the Ordnance Survey. Also at Tolworth is a special Forestry and Land Use Section which undertakes land resources investigations for overseas governments from the data compiled in their survey work. Its staff are specialists in assessing land capability and in planning for agricultural development.

In addition to its other activities, DOS arranges for training attachments both at Tolworth and with its field teams. There are normally about 12-20 trainees from developing countries on attachments at any one time.

The present budget for the operations of DOS is running at just over £1m a year. Almost the whole of this is met from funds allocated to the Regional Programmes. DOS's survey and mapping services are undertaken in response to technical assistance requests under these Programmes of the same kind as are made for experts, training facilities, and equipment. The developing country is usually expected to contribute 15% of the cost of aerial photography and of the field survey work and in kind (by adding place names, administrative boundaries, road classification, etc. for the mapping). In most of the individual countries where DOS is working, there is a long-term programme continuing over several years and the Directorate normally projects its estimates of expenditure over a five-year period ahead.

(b) Overseas Geological Surveys

Overseas Geological Surveys was established in 1947 as the Directorate of Colonial Geological Surveys. It has a staff of about 100, of whom rather over half are professional. Most of these are at the Head Office in London (and a few at the Directorate of Overseas Surveys at Tolworth) but there

are normally about ten actually overseas at any one time. The organisation's major role since its foundation has been to help build up local Geological Survey Departments in the colonies. This has been done by helping recruit staff and arrange training and also by provision of advice. It offers a number of specialist services including the laboratory testing of mineral specimens, the production of geological maps from aerial photographs, publication of statistical and other information on overseas mineral resources and production. There is also a Geophysical Division which, by arrangement with overseas governments, conducts field surveys in various countries. When required, OGS arranges on behalf of overseas governments for palaeontological work at the Natural History Museum, for Age Determination at its Unit at Oxford, and for the investigation of ore-dressing and processing problems at the Warren Spring Laboratory.

The future of British technical assistance in overseas mining and geology was reviewed by the Brundrett Committee, which reported in 1963 (published in May 1964). The main recommendation, which the Government has accepted, is that Overseas Geological Surveys should cease to have separate existence but should be amalgamated, as part of an overseas department or division, into the Geological Survey of Great Britain. The costs of this department would be fully met by the Department of Technical Co-operation.

9—Equipment

Under the Regional Programmes of technical assistance, Britain is currently making available about £1m per year in equipment (see Table 5). There is no predetermined proportion of the voted technical assistance funds set aside for the supply of equipment. Actual expenditure depends on requests made by developing countries and the availability of uncommitted funds.

Apart from expenditure under the Regional Programmes, there are also some allocations for equipment out of Research funds. Research funds may be used where the equipment is required for a research establishment, either overseas or in Britain, which is already receiving support from DTC's Research funds.

The equipment provided under technical assistance is restricted to that required for training and research purposes and it is therefore supplied mainly to universities, research institutes, or training institutes. It is frequently, though not always, supplied in conjunction with the provision of British experts or teachers, for it is regarded mainly as an ancillary item to the provision of British personnel. The range of equipment supplied is very wide and might include such items as tools and machinery, computers, test tubes, books, tape recorders, language laboratories, etc. However, buildings or the basic furnishings of buildings would not be regarded as 'equipment' falling under technical assistance, but as capital items. (Sub-head 'L' of the DTC vote entitled 'Small Capital Grants' is devoted specifically to the provision of small buildings, etc., needed by British experts in developing countries in connection with their technical assistance work.)

A major exception to the rule that equipment must be for teaching, training or applied research is the equipment supplied under the CENTO Programme for Joint Communication Projects linking the regional member countries. This equipment, which in value accounts for about half the £1m cited above, is described by DTC as 'economic infrastructure assistance'. It is not really very different from the productive equipment supplied under capital aid programmes handled by the Colonial Office, Commonwealth Relations Office, Foreign Office and ECGD.

Equipment provided under British technical assistance has mostly been given in fairly small-scale lots. There are, however, exceptions to this. Notable among them have been the equipping of two textile training centres in Pakistan at Dacca and Lyallpur at a cost of £147,000 and £181,000 respectively. More recent examples have been the large Government commitment to the Indian Institute of Technology at Delhi (which is also receiving gifts of equipment from British industry), and a promise of £100,000-worth of equipment to the Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology at Kumasi, Ghana.

Procedures for Provision of Equipment

Requests for equipment come from overseas governments in the same way as other applications for British technical aid. Where British experts have been supplied, the British Government is prepared to consider requests

direct from them for small but essential pieces of equipment to be used in connection with their technical assistance assignment. Any large item required by a British expert, however, would need to be formally requested by the government of the country for whom the expert was working, since there would be on-going maintenance costs for that government to take into account.

When a request for equipment is received, this is normally referred to DTC's professional advisers and they may, in turn, obtain specialist advice from others where necessary. In most cases, the purchase of equipment is made through the Crown Agents, who are DTC's officially approved purchasing agents. The Crown Agents are paid a fee ranging through a sliding scale from 4% on orders up to £250 in value to $\frac{3}{4}$ % on orders over £50,000. In addition, an inspection charge of 1-2% of the invoice cost is made for the inspection of certain items. Wherever practicable, the principles of competitive tendering are observed by the Crown Agents in purchasing equipment; this is part of their normal buying procedure. In some instances, however, the requesting country may specify a particular make of apparatus, because for instance they already have equipment made by the same manufacturer in use, or perhaps because the personnel who are to use the equipment are familiar with a particular type of apparatus. It also frequently happens that specialised scientific equipment is made by only one firm. Where competitive tendering is not the procedure to be used, the Crown Agents are instructed to negotiate for the item on the most favourable terms. With a very few *ad hoc* exceptions, all the equipment supplied under British technical assistance must be of British manufacture.

Britain pays for shipment of the equipment to the port of entry to the recipient country. The government of that country meets the transportation costs from there on. In the case of exceptionally complicated or delicate equipment, Britain has sometimes paid for the services of an installation engineer; but this is rare. Maintenance is the responsibility of the recipient government, but before supplying equipment DTC endeavours to ensure both that the recipients are fully competent to use it and that adequate maintenance facilities are available locally.

10—Regional Programmes and Commonwealth Educational Co-operation

1 Regional Programmes

The Regional Programmes accounted in 1962/3 for £3,864,750, or nearly one-sixth, of DTC's net aid expenditure in that year of about £25m. In 1964/5, the comparable figures (estimates only) are £8,438,040, which is over one-quarter of DTC's net aid budget of about £33m. The steep rise is due partly to an administrative change which brought colonies under the Regional Programmes in 1963/4; partly to the extension of British technical assistance to more foreign countries in recent years; but partly also to a steady expansion of the programmes generally. (It is also relevant to note that expenditure under the Regional Programmes has often lagged well behind the estimates; the gap between actual past expenditures and estimates for the current year is thus wider than comparisons of actual expenditure figures would show.)

All the independent countries and all the colonies to whom Britain gives technical assistance fall within one or other of the Regional Programme categories. A few fall in more than one. Thus Pakistan is a member of the Colombo Plan, CENTO and SEATO. Thailand and the Philippines are eligible for both Colombo Plan and SEATO help. For foreign countries, the Regional Programmes are virtually their only source of British technical assistance, unless one counts the benefit they indirectly derive from DTC's contribution to volunteer schemes and the British Council's programmes. Theoretically, foreign countries are also eligible for help from DTC's research allocation, though in practice the help they have so far received from this source is negligible. Apart from their Regional Programme aid, Commonwealth countries and colonies also benefit in varying degrees under Commonwealth Educational Co-operation, the Research allocation, and the Overseas Service Aid Scheme.

All the forms of technical assistance, except research services, described in Chapters 5–9 are provided under the Regional Programmes to developing countries asking for them. The Regional Programmes are in fact the only source of British funds to pay for consultancies, mapping surveys, or training equipment. However, experts may also be financed through OSAS or CEC (Chapter 5), and training is also available under CEC through the Commonwealth Scholarship and Bursary schemes (Chapter 6). A breakdown of expenditure in the calendar years 1962 and 1963 by form of technical assistance and by Regional Programmes is given in Table 5. (For total regional allocations for the past seven financial years, see Appendix II.)

A vital, but often misunderstood, point about the Regional Programmes is that they are generally **bilateral** in character. This is clearly indicated by the heading in the DTC estimates, but mention of the Colombo Plan or Special Commonwealth African Assistance Plan suggests

to some people that some sort of multilateral fund is in being. The only multilateral technical assistance under the Regional Programmes are SEATO arrangements, the Multilateral Technical Co-operation Fund of CENTO, and joint projects under CENTO and SEATO, as described below. There are consultative arrangements under some of the other Programmes and an actual central Bureau under the Colombo Plan, but these hardly affect the principle and practice of bilateral technical assistance under the Regional Programmes.

Two different kinds of Regional Programme should be distinguished. There are those where Britain is associated with other donors (as well as recipients) and which operate in relation to groups of countries forming a genuine collective category, with consultative and sometimes even executive machinery. Second, there are Programmes for countries which, though grouped together for administrative purposes by UK, are always dealt with for technical assistance purposes on a purely individual basis: in these cases, Britain is not formally associated with other donors of technical assistance. The 'collectivities' include Colombo Plan, CENTO, SEATO and, at a stretch, SCAAP: the various other countries are grouped by UK into non-Commonwealth Africa, non-CENTO Middle East, Latin America, Caribbean, and 'other'. A brief description of past and present arrangements for technical assistance to each of these categories is set out below. Fuller details of the different forms of assistance provided under the Regional Programmes can be found in Chapters 4-9.

(a) The Colombo Plan

The Members of the Colombo Plan, who include every non-Communist country in South and South-East Asia and six countries outside the Region, and their dates of joining are given in Chapter 2, where the setting up of the Plan in 1950 is also discussed.

The Colombo Plan is nominally multilateral but the actual processes of exchange of assistance are bilateral. The functions of the central bodies are purely advisory. The Consultative Committee meets once a year for three weeks to review progress and compare techniques; it is attended by senior officials and, in the final week, a minister from each country. Between these meetings there are meetings of the Council for Technical Co-operation, which usually comprises the members' diplomatic representatives in Ceylon, and which meets several times a year, but has no powers apart from controlling the work of the Colombo Plan Bureau. This Bureau, with a small staff, provides an information service, keeps detailed records of technical assistance given under the Plan, and prepares reports for the Council and for member governments. Its budget has never exceeded £37,800 a year and is met equally by all member governments regardless of their size and wealth.

The actual capital and technical assistance is arranged bilaterally between member countries. Nevertheless it automatically becomes known as 'Colombo Plan' assistance, provided it meets certain agreed conditions. A notable feature of these exchanges of assistance is that many of the receiving countries are also donors to each other, especially in the field of technical assistance. Though technical assistance given by developing countries is only a small part of the total, it is important from the point

of view of shared experience and morale, in replacing the concept of charity with that of mutual assistance. 'From each according to his ability' might well be the slogan of the Colombo Plan.

From the beginning of Colombo Plan Technical Co-operation in 1950 up to 30 June, 1963, the total expenditure on technical assistance by donor countries amounted to £144,886,555, of which £113,481,543 was given by the USA, £10,460,467 by Britain, and £10,082,110 by Australia. Britain's expenditure had provided the services of 552 experts (£2.9m), training for 5,205 people (£4.8m), and £2.8m-worth of equipment. (Over the same period, Britain's capital aid to Colombo Plan countries had amounted to £238m, with a further £155m committed but not yet spent by 30 June, 1963). Britain has been in the habit of making forward commitments for technical assistance to the Colombo Plan. For the last completed period (1956-63) she committed £9m, and for the three years 1963-66 has committed a further £5m, though this rate of expenditure is currently being exceeded by a fairly wide margin.

(b) Special Commonwealth African Assistance Plan (SCAAP)

At a meeting in May 1960, the Commonwealth Prime Ministers reviewed the economic development of the Commonwealth countries in Africa and it was decided that the Commonwealth Economic Consultative Council should examine the possibility of co-operative action by the Commonwealth. As a result, the Special Commonwealth African Assistance Plan (SCAAP) was launched in September 1960 'to focus attention on the aid already being provided' by the Commonwealth to its African members and 'to help further in meeting the very great need for assistance'. All such aid, including financial aid, is described as being given under the Plan, although since the Plan has no permanent co-ordinating machinery this is no more than a form of words at present. Financial aid has been given only by the UK, Canada and Australia so far, whereas almost all Commonwealth countries, including the less developed, give some technical assistance.

SCAAP is not a Plan, even in the sense that the Colombo Plan is. There has been no initial survey based on national development programmes, so that priority needs of the area were not assessed in advance. Nor do recipients present annual reports relating assistance to progress and to future plans. There is no central advisory body or secretariat. Nor is there any special annual meeting of Ministers specifically to discuss progress under SCAAP although, when the Commonwealth Economic Consultative Council meets, the annual report of SCAAP is one of the several items on the agenda. At the request of the CECC, the Commonwealth Economic Committee produced the first two SCAAP Reports, covering assistance in 1961/2 and 1962/3. These contain very detailed statistics on British technical assistance to Commonwealth African countries.

Another major difference between SCAAP and the Colombo Plan is that SCAAP, being an exclusively Commonwealth phenomenon, does not cover an entire geographical region as the Colombo Plan does.

According to the most recent SCAAP Report, the cost of all the technical assistance (not just Regional Programme allocations) provided by the UK for Commonwealth countries in Africa in 1962/3 amounted to £12.3m.

(c) Central Treaty Organisation

The Organisation, a defensive alliance, had its origin in the Baghdad Pact of 24 February, 1955, and was at that time known as the Middle East Treaty Organisation. Its original members, Iraq and Turkey, were joined by the UK in April, Pakistan in September, and Iran in November 1955. The USA had observer status.* The organisation changed its name to the Central Treaty Organisation (CENTO) in August 1959 after the withdrawal of Iraq in March of that year, and the headquarters were moved from Baghdad to Ankara.

Although CENTO is primarily a military organisation, it has from the start and with increasing emphasis played a role in the economic development of the region. Up to January 1959, Britain had at intervals contributed varying sums for economic development from long-term pledges of £1m for joint projects and £1m for technical assistance; but since then it has pledged £850,000 a year for both purposes. Of this sum, £450,000 is specifically for the provision of capital equipment for communication projects of joint interest to Turkey, Iran and Pakistan, and £400,000 for technical assistance, including bilateral technical assistance, contributions to the CENTO Multilateral Technical Co-operation Fund, and contributions to joint CENTO institutions. Actual expenditure has exceeded £850,000 in recent years and at the CENTO Economic Committee Meeting in March 1964, Britain announced that the total figure would be £1m a year in 1965/6 and that the estimates for 1964/5 would be slightly in excess of £900,000.

Although the technical assistance programmes are essentially bilateral, there is a small Multilateral Technical Co-operation Fund to each 'round' of which Britain has contributed £17,860 (\$50,000) from its £400,000 allocation, the USA the same, and other three countries a further \$50,000 between them. (A 'round' is usually about a year now.) The purpose of this fund is to facilitate exchanges of trainees and experts between the three region members only. There are also two joint CENTO institutions. One is the Institute of Nuclear Science formerly in Baghdad and re-opened in Tehran in 1959, with the UK contributing the salaries of the British staff, and subsidising a large part of the equipment and running expenses. The other is an Agricultural Machinery and Soil Conservation Training Centre at Karaj, near Tehran, to which Britain contributes in similar ways. The existence of the Fund and of the joint projects, both of which are ultimately under the direction of the CENTO Economic Committee meeting once a year, make CENTO more multilateral in character than, say, the Colombo Plan or SCAAP.

(d) Non-Commonwealth Countries in Africa

(including assistance through CCTA and FAMA)

British technical assistance to non-Commonwealth countries in Africa commenced in 1958/9 with the inauguration of the Foundation for Mutual Assistance in Africa South of the Sahara (FAMA – an abbreviation of the French). In the first instance, assistance was offered only to countries which were members of FAMA, but it has since been made available to all

* She still has observer status at ministerial meetings, but has almost from the beginning been a full member of the Economic Committee.

non-Commonwealth countries in Africa. At present, technical assistance is being given to some 18 countries, and proposals for nine more countries are under consideration or can be expected. The major recipients are Cameroun, Ethiopia, and the Sudan.

Assistance has also been given to joint projects which have been established by FAMA (see below) and this year (1964/5) the heading of the DTC financial allocation has been widened to enable assistance to be given also to African regional organisations, such as the African Development Bank.

FAMA's 'parent' body is the Commission for Technical Co-operation in Africa South of the Sahara (CCTA – also an abbreviation from the French). This aims to co-ordinate the activities of its member governments in the scientific and technical fields. It was originally established in Paris in January 1950 by France, Belgium, the UK, Portugal, the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland, and South Africa, and has operated under an Inter-governmental Agreement signed in London in January 1954. It was later joined by independent African countries. In 1963, proposals for a change of constitution were made. These would have involved its becoming a completely African organisation, with the exclusion of Portugal and South Africa but with the retention of Britain, France, Belgium and the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland as non-voting members, a status which they expressed their willingness to accept. These proposals, however, were later overtaken by an African move to merge CCTA with the newly-formed Organisation for African Unity, whereupon Britain, France and Belgium decided, with general agreement, to withdraw from membership, and have now given formal notice of withdrawal. Britain's subscriptions (see Appendix II), like other subscriptions to international organisations, were never counted in British aid totals. The re-arrangements affecting OAU have not yet been completed, however, and so for the time being CCTA continues. The African members (since the dissolution of the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland) are the Cameroons, the Central African Republic, Chad, Congo (Brazzaville), Congo (Leopoldville), Dahomey, Gabon, Ghana, Guinea, Ivory Coast, Liberia, Madagascar, Mali, Mauritania, Niger, Nigeria, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Somalia, Tanganyika, Upper Volta. The Commission is financed by contributions from member governments and has a secretariat in Lagos and information centre in London, but it has never had funds to distribute.

CCTA has two offshoots. The first, founded in 1950, is the Scientific Council for Africa which acts as scientific adviser to the Commission. The second, established in February 1958 at a meeting of the CCTA in Accra, is FAMA. This is an organisation established for the promotion of technical co-operation between the members of CCTA and its secretariat in Lagos, besides pursuing this end, is entrusted with the task of organising joint projects between groups of the members. Britain made contributions as required to the FAMA Central Fund until her liability ceased this year. Her assistance for the FAMA regional projects has always been regarded as bilateral assistance to the countries in which they are executed, and she still provides technical assistance to such projects. Amongst the FAMA joint projects supported by Britain have been the Gulf of Guinea

Survey, Fouta Djallon Mission, Control of Trypanosomiasis, and the Campaign for the Eradication of Bovine Pleuro-Pneumonia.

(e) South-East Asia Treaty Organisation

The South-East Asia Treaty Organisation (SEATO) was established on 8 September, 1954, when the South-East Asia Collective Defence Treaty and Pacific Charter was signed in Manila. This was ratified on 19 February, 1955, and a permanent organisation was set up at Bangkok in the same year. The members are the USA, Australia, New Zealand, France, the UK, Pakistan, the Philippines and Thailand.

Like CENTO, this is primarily a military pact, but there is a Council, comprising the ambassadors of member countries in Bangkok, which meets at least once a year to report on all non-military aspects of SEATO's work, including technical assistance.

SEATO technical assistance represents a high degree of multilateralism in that it is arranged through the SEATO secretariat in Bangkok, not directly between donor and recipient. Requests are sent in to SEATO, which then channels them to prospective donors through their embassies in Thailand. But when the assistance takes the form of a grant-in-aid, the money is paid directly to the institution involved. Britain's contribution is increasingly taking this form because of difficulties encountered in providing assistance in kind.

Since 1961, the UK has made a maximum of £40,000 a year, and in 1963/4 and 1964/5 £50,000, available to help meet the costs of SEATO technical assistance. The UK originally stipulated that its contribution would be available under SEATO only for those schemes which were inadmissible (because they incidentally involved strategic advantages) for Colombo Plan assistance. But this qualification was never applied, and Britain has helped with the two major SEATO schemes, a Cholera Research Institute in Dacca and a Graduate School of Engineering in Bangkok, by paying salaries and giving equipment. In 1963/4, nine scholarships were given for Third Country training in Engineering at Bangkok, an unusual form for British training assistance to take (trainees normally come to Britain). Any projects having SEATO sponsorship are automatically excluded from being counted as Colombo Plan assistance.

(f) Other Regional Programmes

The other regional programmes are administrative categories and there is no machinery binding the recipients together on a regional basis to discuss the technical assistance Britain is giving. Amongst recipients in these categories, colonies and independent Commonwealth countries have been eligible for British technical assistance ever since it was first available (see Chapter 2); but foreign countries outside the Colombo Plan, CENTO, FAMA and SEATO only became eligible in 1962/3 or later. The programmes are:

Non-CENTO Middle East – covers Cyprus within the Commonwealth and Jordan, Iraq, Syria and Lebanon outside it;

Commonwealth Caribbean – including Jamaica and Trinidad, and all British colonies in the area (including British Guiana);

Latin America – all Latin American countries are eligible;

Other Countries – includes any countries not covered by an already existing scheme. In practice, it mostly goes to small and relatively isolated colonies such as Gibraltar, Malta, Mauritius, St. Helena, Seychelles, South Arabia, and territories in Oceania.

2 Commonwealth Educational Co-operation

The holding of a Commonwealth Education Conference was proposed at the Trade and Economic Conference at Montreal in 1958. The first Commonwealth Education Conference was held at Oxford in 1959 and was followed by a second Conference at Delhi in 1962: the third is scheduled for August/September 1964 at Ottawa.

The most important schemes of Commonwealth educational co-operation launched at Oxford were the Commonwealth Scholarship and Fellowship Plan, and schemes for teacher training and the supply of teachers. Each country controls bilaterally the help it offers to other Commonwealth members, although there is a standing Commonwealth Education Liaison Committee in London consisting of representatives from the various Commonwealth high commissions, which reviews arrangements and progress and is served by the small Commonwealth Education Liaison Unit. Commonwealth members use the Unit as a channel for communication with other members and for information purposes. The biennial conferences afford an opportunity for stocktaking and for initiating new schemes of mutual help.

Nearly all Commonwealth members offer awards under the Commonwealth Scholarship and Fellowship Plan and all are recipients of awards offered by others. But there are naturally fewer countries in a position to supply teachers or to offer teacher training.

Britain offered 500 Scholarships (against a Commonwealth target of 1,000, now expected to be reached in Autumn 1964) and 400 Bursaries for teacher training to be held at any one time, and also promised to find an extra 400 teachers a year under Commonwealth educational co-operation arrangements. The first two pledges were fulfilled but that on teachers has not been fulfilled in the form in which it was originally given, largely because the Overseas Service Aid Scheme (see Chapter 6), inaugurated in 1961, has been used much more extensively as a means for the recruitment of British teachers than the Commonwealth Educational Co-operation subsidy scheme announced in 1960. These schemes were to be financed from a £6m allocation for the quinquennium 1960–65, and in fact the funds available were sufficient to finance in addition various other Commonwealth education co-operation activities, such as an official contribution to volunteer programmes, Centre for Educational Television Overseas, vacation teacher training courses in Africa, etc. Expenditure is expected to be £5.3m by March 1965.

The phrase 'Commonwealth educational co-operation' is usually restricted to the schemes described above, paid for in Britain's case out of the £6m budgetary allocation. The UK does, of course, make considerable contributions to the development of Commonwealth education outside the named Commonwealth educational co-operation schemes, through the Regional Programmes, OSAS, and by means of capital grants.

II—Multilateral Technical Assistance

Some of the consultative arrangements which exist in connection with British bilateral Regional technical assistance Programmes were described in the last chapter. This chapter covers multilateral technical assistance and co-operation and co-ordination with other donors. Table 27 shows UK contributions to world-wide international organisations.

1 Multilateral Technical Assistance United Nations

UN Expanded Programme of Technical Assistance and Special Fund

The United Nations has allocated part of its regular budget for technical assistance purposes since 1948. In 1949, the UN General Assembly approved the establishment of the Expanded Programme for Technical Assistance to be financed from voluntary contributions. There is an annual pledging conference for EPTA when contributions are announced. The UK's first contribution was £500,000 in 1950/1. Over the years, the contributions have increased and the last increase was a 25% rise to £1,339,375 a year (when converted into dollars, this and the Special Fund contribution make a round total of \$10m a year). The British Government has announced it will raise its contribution in the autumn of 1964. So far the UK has given over £10m to EPTA since it was formed.

The UN Special Fund was established by a decision of the General Assembly in December 1957. This decision followed years of debate on an originally much wider proposal to establish a Special UN Fund for Economic Development (SUNFED) to be financed from savings arising out of disarmament and to be a capital fund. Special Fund projects are technical assistance activities of the pre-investment type such as surveys and feasibility studies, research and training. Contributions are voluntary and the UK's contribution is now £2,232,250 a year, or \$6.25m. It was raised by 25% to the present level at the same time as the EPTA contribution was increased, and a further increase has been promised for autumn 1964.

The United Nations has recently been discussing a proposal that the EPTA and Special Fund should be merged, into a new United Nations Development Programme, and there has been considerable pressure in favour of converting the Special Fund into a capital, as well as a pre-investment, fund. Whatever arrangements are finally made, it is likely that separate accounts will be kept for the separate activities which the United Nations Development Programme (if created) will carry out – technical assistance (i.e., EPTA), larger pre-investment surveys (i.e., Special Fund), and (possibly) capital.

As well as carrying the financial contributions on its vote, the DTC is responsible for British representation on the governing bodies of EPTA and the Special Fund. It also makes requests for help from the colonies to the Special Fund and, in a few cases, to the UN Technical Assistance Board which controls EPTA (though on achievement of internal self-government colonies usually approach the TAB direct).

UNICEF

The United Nations Children's Fund was originally established in December 1946 to assist children in war-devastated territories. In 1950, however, the Fund's terms of reference were amended with a new emphasis on helping children in developing countries. The scope of the Fund's activities includes health, nutrition, education, vocational guidance and training, and family, child and youth services. Contributions are voluntary and the UK at present gives £335,000 a year, having contributed about £3m in total since the scheme's inception. UNICEF is a fund directly under the United Nations and is different in this respect from the Specialised Agencies.

The Specialised Agencies

Most of the Specialised Agencies were set up soon after the war, and the UK joined each of them immediately. They were not really established as technical assistance bodies, but in some cases technical assistance operations have come to be a prime function, and nearly all of them act as agents for schemes of technical assistance financed by EPTA and the Special Fund. Their original purpose was to provide a forum for exchange of information and ideas in the field of their expertise, and this is what their budget was allocated to. Contributions to the Specialised Agencies are therefore not counted as part of UK official aid.

As a consequence of these historical origins, UK representation at the Specialised Agencies and payment of subscriptions to them is not the responsibility of DTC but of other departments as follows:

Food and Agriculture Organisation (1945)	Ministry of Agriculture
International Civil Aviation Organisation (1947)	Ministry of Aviation
International Labour Organisation (founded 1919: Specialised Agency 1946)	Ministry of Labour
International Maritime Consultative Organisation (1959)	Ministry of Transport
International Telecommunication Union (founded 1934: Specialised Agency 1947)	General Post Office
United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation	Department of Education and Science
Universal Postal Union (founded 1874: Specialised Agency 1948)	General Post Office
World Health Organisation (1948)	Ministry of Health
World Meteorological Organisation (1951)	Ministry of Defence (RAF)

There is also the International Atomic Energy Authority (1957) for which the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research is the UK responsible department. However, the Agency is directly responsible to the UN General Assembly and is not, properly speaking, a Specialised Agency like the other nine listed above.

With the growing importance of problems of development, the Specialised Agencies have in recent years spent an increasing amount of their regular budgets on technical assistance operations and have, in addition, received funds from the Expanded Programme of Technical Assistance and the UN Special Fund for operational activities. Consequently Britain's interest in the activities of the Specialised Agencies now falls as much within DTC's field as those of the 'subject' ministries, and a great deal of consultation goes on between DTC and the Ministry of Agriculture, Department of Education, etc. When specialist conferences are being held which specially concern problems of development, it is often one of the DTC's Advisers who represents Britain.

The present position of shared responsibility in relation to the Specialised Agencies is somewhat unsatisfactory, since the formal position is that the Agencies must communicate with the British Government through the responsible ministry concerned and therefore it is somewhat difficult for DTC to keep itself fully informed of matters concerning it. However, the situation is not an easy one to resolve because, if DTC were to handle representation, the 'subject' ministries would themselves be in danger of losing direct contact with matters concerning only them. The dilemma arises out of the fact that Specialised Agencies are now dual purpose organisations.

In addition to Britain's subscriptions to, and participation in the councils of, the Specialised Agencies, she does of course also make a substantial contribution to their technical assistance operations through the recruitment of experts and placing of trainees (see Chapters 5 and 6).

UN Regional Commissions

The DTC exercises a general co-ordinating function within the Government in relation to the activities of the three UN Regional Commissions which cover the greater part of the developing world – namely the Economic Commission for Latin America (ECLA), the Economic Commission for Africa (ECA), and the Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East (ECAFE).

(a) International Bank (IBRD), International Development Association (IDA), International Finance Corporation (IFC)

The UK contributions to the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD) and its two associate bodies, the International Development Association (IDA) and International Finance Corporation (IFC), are paid by the Treasury and are considered as part of capital aid. In so far, however, as these bodies are concerned with technical assistance activities, responsibility for liaison with them lies with DTC.

(b) Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD)

The members of OECD are Austria, Belgium, Canada, Denmark, France, Germany, Greece, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, the United Kingdom and the United States. Yugoslavia is an Associate

Member. OECD was set up in 1961 as a successor body to the Organisation for European Economic Co-operation (OEEC) – its headquarters is in Paris. The UK's share of total expenses amounts to £930,000 for Britain's 1964/5 financial year. Of this, £63,000 is a direct contribution to the new OECD Development Centre for study, training and research on development problems, and of the remainder one can calculate that about £100,000 is equivalent to Britain's share of the cost of OECD's programme of technical assistance to its poorer member countries – Greece, Iceland, Portugal, Spain, Turkey and Yugoslavia. The programme consists mainly of supply of experts and provision of training.

Contributions to OECD are met from the Foreign Office vote and excluded from official British aid totals.

(c) CENTO

CENTO's Multilateral Technical Assistance Fund is discussed in Chapter 10 together with other assistance under the CENTO Regional Programme.

2 Co-ordination with Other Donors

British policy on co-ordinating her technical assistance work with that of other countries and international organisations is that 'this can best be done in the recipient country under the aegis and inspiration of the recipient government' (Cmnd. 1698). British diplomatic representatives in independent countries try to keep in touch with those of other donor countries and with the local representatives of the United Nations, particularly the resident representatives of the UN Technical Assistance Board and Special Fund. In a few places, consultative groups on technical assistance for the exchange of information have been started by OECD's Development Assistance Committee. Thus, there is a Consultative Group on Thailand which meets in Bangkok to consider technical assistance priorities in the country and swaps information on the programmes of the various donors. The Group consists of representatives of donor countries, but also has the support and participation *ad hoc* of representatives of the Thai Government. The Group reports back both to individual donor governments and to the Development Assistance Committee of OECD. Somewhat similar consultative arrangements operate in East Africa. It should be emphasised that the Group in Thailand is purely consultative and there are not yet any instances of all the bilateral technical assistance to a particular developing country being pooled by the donors and allotted by a central body, or of technical assistance projects in a country being centrally allotted to particular donors.

As well as co-ordination with other donors in recipient countries, there is also donor co-ordination at OECD in Paris. OECD has a special committee on aid known as the Development Assistance Committee (DAC) and this has a Working Group on Technical Assistance which at present meets about four times per year. This is a forum for comparing experiences, problems and solutions. Each year the donor countries submit information on their aid programmes, including technical assistance to DAC. One of the main side advantages of these exchanges of information through DAC has been the improvement of the statistics kept by Britain and other countries on their technical assistance activities.

Table 27**UK Contributions to UN and Specialised Agencies**

(Most recent annual contributions as at 14 January 1964)

	£	UK contributions % of total contributions
United Nations Regular Budget	2,120,530	7.58
Special Accounts:		
Middle East Operation (UNEF)	288,676	8.5*
Congo Operation (ONUC)	1,043,327	8.8*
†United Nations Expanded Programme of Techni- cal assistance	1,339,375	7.0
†United Nations Special Fund	2,232,250	8.5
‡United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees	1,928,572	15.9
†United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) ...	335,000	5.2
‡United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA):	200,000	8.2§
Regular Budget	178,370	7.01
Operational Budget	51,000	13.15
Specialised Agencies:		
Food and Agriculture Organisation	519,809	10.15
World Health Organisation	763,289	6.92
United Nations Educational Scientific and Cul- tural Organisation	487,726	7.23
International Labour Organisation	468,200	9.36
International Civil Aviation Organisation ...	166,820	9.9
International Telecommunication Union ...	70,413	5.45
World Meteorological Organisation	18,522	5.89
International Maritime Consultative Organisation	17,726	12.95
‡International Bank for Reconstruction and De- velopment.	Her Majesty's Government provide 12.4% of the capital	
‡International Development Association	13.5%	
‡International Finance Corporation	14.4%	
International Monetary Fund	12.95%	

* Half-year only.

† Included in UK totals of technical assistance.

‡ Included in UK totals of financial assistance.

§ Amount offered subject to matching conditions.

Source: Parliamentary reply by Mr. R. A. Butler to Mr. Berkeley: *Hansard*, 14 January 1964.**3 Joint Projects with Other Bilateral Donors**

DTC is responsible for consultation with the technical assistance authorities in other countries, where this is necessary. One aspect of this work is when a foreign or independent Commonwealth country offers technical assistance to British colonies – in these cases, DTC frequently acts as an intermediary.

There are also a few examples of joint co-operation between bilateral donors on actual technical assistance projects. The best known of these is perhaps the Anglo-American Teachers for East Africa Scheme launched at the Princeton Conference in 1960, which was attended by representatives from the US, the UK, Kenya, Tanganyika, Uganda and Zanzibar. The Teachers for East Africa Scheme was originally a purely US venture, but British participation was invited in 1961 and the present arrangement

involves roughly matching contributions in teachers by both Britain and the United States. In 1964, a total of 380 teachers will, it is hoped, be recruited by Britain and the US in approximately equal numbers.

As a result of the 1964 Commonwealth Prime Ministers' Conference, it is intended to start joint Commonwealth Development Projects and Britain has promised to contribute substantially. It may be expected that these will involve the combination of British technical (as well as capital) assistance with that of other Commonwealth donors on a co-operative basis.

There are other less conspicuous examples of co-operation, particularly in the higher education field. The governing councils of several universities in Commonwealth Africa have both American and British – as well as African – representation; the British participation in these cases is met from aid funds. There have also been instances of commissions of enquiry under technical assistance to developing countries in which British, American and other representatives have jointly participated, though these have usually been under the auspices, not of governments, but of international organisations or private foundations.

12—Co-ordination of Technical and Financial Assistance

The establishment of the Department of Technical Co-operation in 1961 brought into existence a unified administration of British technical assistance. This was undoubtedly beneficial, but it created fresh problems in so far as it involved a new separation of the administration of technical assistance to each area from that of financial aid, which remained the responsibility of the Colonial Office, Commonwealth Relations Office, Foreign Office, and the Export Credits Guarantee Department of the Board of Trade.

Many of the recent proposals for a specialist unified aid administration, either in the form of a separate Ministry of Overseas Development or an aid agency serving a unified Ministry of External Affairs*, are designed to end the division between technical and capital aid. Whilst there are strong arguments in favour of one or other of these solutions, there would also be difficulties to overcome. A Ministry of Overseas Development could only work effectively if it established close relations with the existing external relations offices: on the other hand, an agency within a unified External Relations Office will not be possible so long as the Commonwealth Relations Office is a separate administrative unit from the Foreign Office (the CRO and Colonial Office will merge in 1965 according to present plans).

The most recent White Paper on Aid to Developing Countries issued by the Treasury, which generally oversees British aid policy, clearly illustrated the present fragmentary approach. Beyond the bald statement that 'some projects, particularly those of an industrial nature, call for the combination of financial aid with various types of technical assistance', it omitted altogether to discuss the problem of marrying technical and financial assistance. Aid for developing countries was discussed not as a co-ordinated whole but in sections corresponding to administrative divisions within the British Government machine. However, the Department of Technical Co-operation, in its Progress Report issued in April 1962, drew attention to the issues involved as follows:

'... there is also a need to co-ordinate technical and financial help, men and money. These two kinds of aid are complementary. It is useless for the most expert adviser in the world to examine a country's problems and recommend ways of solving them if the country has not got the money to put the advice into effect. It can be wasteful and even harmful to give or lend money for schemes which are not backed by the necessary resources of technical and administrative manpower. In general, it is clear that a country's largest problems (for instance its shortage of secondary school places and teachers) need a sustained effort and continuous help stretching over years if they are to be overcome; piecemeal or desultory aid will simply be dissipated. ...'

* See the first pamphlet in this ODI series: *British Aid 1—Survey and Comment*.

A frequently voiced criticism of British financial aid is that it is under-administered and subject to too little technical supervision. In large part this is a new problem for Britain, arising from the decision to give financial aid to independent countries. The problem was not acute so long as nearly all British aid was to the colonies, largely through Colonial Development and Welfare channels. CD & W proposals were closely examined from a technical point of view at the commitment stage and the execution of projects and programmes in the colonies was generally in the hands of expatriate officials whose quality Whitehall knew and trusted.

In the case of independent countries, supervision of aid and the association of technical assistance with capital aid is naturally politically more difficult, and the British Government has almost leant over backwards to avoid any impression of interference. Apart from the political aspects of this, supervision has also been technically more difficult because of the nature of the aid given. Whereas CD & W aid consisted largely of projects, aid to independent countries has been mainly in the form of loans for development programmes or for the purchase of British equipment, or grants of the budgetary assistance type. Now, apart from making available staff for planning departments, the scope for associating technical assistance with loans for whole development programmes or with grants to make good budget deficits is relatively limited. Similarly, unless equipment supplied under capital goods loans is for specific development projects, it is hard to associate the supply of technical assistance with it, or to check on its ultimate use. Very little of British capital aid to independent countries has been tied to specific projects – the Durgapur steelworks is the one big exception most people can think of – and it has been powerfully argued elsewhere* that more ought to be. Other bilateral donors of aid have tended to channel a much higher proportion of their financial aid into projects than Britain has.

Similarly, much of present British technical assistance expenditure is not on services of the type that can be readily associated with capital aid. Over half DTC's technical assistance outlays have been on the Overseas Service Aid Scheme, which is less a development programme than a holding operation to help emergent countries staff their public services while their own nationals are being trained to take over. OSAS expenditure is closely related to financial assistance in the form of budgetary support, but is hardly an instrument that can be used in direct association with the provision of capital aid. But where British Regional Programme experts need buildings or small items of capital equipment in connection with their work in developing countries, DTC is able to make provision for this out of the allocation, new in 1964/5, for small capital grants. There is also scope in the case of consultancies for capital aid to be used to finance such projects as are proved to be feasible. However, as yet British technical assistance in the form of consultancies is modest in size and this method of combining technical and capital assistance has not yet developed far.

In view of the divided aid administration in Britain and the nature of British overseas technical and financial aid, it is hardly surprising that very few instances of the combination of financial aid and technical

* See I.M.D. Little's pamphlet: *Aid to Africa*, June 1964.

assistance can be cited. Such examples as there are concern projects in the Indian sub-continent for which Britain has supplied capital goods and equipment. Foremost amongst them is the Durgapur steelworks where, in addition to £50m of loans, Britain has financed the training of nearly 400 engineers in British steel companies, and the British Iron and Steel Federation arranged for many British technicians and engineers to work at the plant. British consultancy services have also been provided for Durgapur under technical assistance arrangements. However, whilst Durgapur provides a striking illustration of the scope for combining the two forms of aid, it also illustrates no less the potential dangers in administering parts of the aid programme separately. It was only at a late stage – after all the arrangements for the British ECGD capital goods loan had been made – that serious steps to provide training and technical help for Durgapur were taken.

Other examples of technical assistance for projects also supported by capital aid (ECGD loans) have been provision of a chief engineer for a security paper mill in India, training of people for the Bhopal heavy electrical engineering works in India, engineers for an electricity project in Nepal. In some of these cases, it has proved necessary to ask the firm supplying the equipment also to provide the technical assistance needed. There are obviously advantages in this, though DTC is naturally reluctant to set precedents whereby it might seem to be ready to finance services from technical assistance funds that should, perhaps, have been included in the original contract price for the goods.

In Africa one can cite the University of East Africa and certain Nigerian higher education institutions as instances of capital aid from the CRO being accompanied by technical assistance from DTC. In the Middle East, arrangements are further developed and DTC's Middle East Development Division already has a co-ordinating role which seems to offer a pattern which could possibly be followed with profit elsewhere. The Division's staff give advisory and supervisory services on most of British capital aid, as well as DTC's technical assistance to the Middle East, and this has been found to be a fruitful arrangement.

The rather trifling nature of most of these examples shows that British arrangements for integrating capital and technical aid are not at present well developed, though it is possible that the recently announced plan for joint Commonwealth Development Projects will bring a change of approach. Generally speaking, it is true to say that most capital goods supplied under British aid to India and Pakistan or to other independent countries have not been accompanied by technical assistance, whether in the form of studies of technical feasibility and economic viability, or consisting of management services and training.

13—Technical Assistance through British Public Bodies (other than DTC)

As explained in the Introduction, only expenditures through the Department of Technical Co-operation are normally counted in official publications for computing the technical assistance component of British aid. However, some technical assistance contributions pass through other Government Departments or public bodies. For instance, the Foreign Office and the Colonial Office have a number of small technical assistance items on their votes. Other Government Departments, as well as co-operating in training programmes or by seconding experts under arrangements financed by DTC, are responsible for British contributions to the international Specialised Agencies. The Board of Trade contributes to the FBI Overseas Scholarship Scheme and the Central Office of Information runs the Low-Priced Book Scheme. Further reference is made to these activities in Appendix VIII: in this chapter, attention is concentrated on the role of three public bodies which are not Government Departments, namely the British Council, Commonwealth Development Corporation, and Crown Agents.

1 British Council

The British Council's status *vis-à-vis* official aid and technical assistance is somewhat ambivalent. It is not a Government Department, but it is nevertheless almost entirely financed from public funds provided through the Foreign Office, Commonwealth Relations Office, and Colonial Office. It was established in 1934 'for the purpose of promoting a wider knowledge of the United Kingdom and the English language abroad and developing closer cultural relations between the UK and other countries'. The Council now reckons that some 70% of its total expenditure of £10.7m is accounted for by educational work for developing countries and many of its activities are virtually indistinguishable in form from those of DTC. The Director-General of the British Council has defined its three main tasks as being:

- educational work, especially in the field of English-language teaching;
- the fostering of personal contacts between British and overseas people, especially in the educational, scientific, professional and cultural fields;
- helping ensure that English reading matter is as widely available overseas as possible.

In parts of its annual submission to OECD, DTC now includes British Council programmes in British technical assistance. But Treasury publica-

tions still exclude the British Council from aid calculations, and OECD comparative international figures also omit the activities of 'cultural' agencies like the British Council. The grounds for exclusion seem to be that the British Council is not a Government Department and the assistance it offers is normally not government-to-government assistance but is help to institutions and individuals within developing countries. Moreover, it is questionable how far the development of cultural relations can be described as technical assistance.

The main activities of the British Council in assisting developing countries are the supply of personnel and the sponsoring of students and trainees coming to Britain. The Council's provision of personnel in the form of Council staff and teachers is described in Chapter 5. Apart from these longer term people, the Council also arranges shorter visits overseas by advisers and lecturers. The number of these is at present running at about 500 a year and many of them go to developing countries. Help with the reverse flow of students, trainees and visitors to Britain is discussed in Chapter 6. The British Council sponsors and pays for a large number of Scholars, Bursars and Visitors coming to Britain from developing countries each year.

Apart from this work in recruiting and financing overseas personnel and in sponsoring students, trainees and visitors in Britain, the Council engages in a number of other technical assistance activities. For instance, it sponsors and arranges courses and summer schools in Britain and overseas, provides administrative and welfare services for thousands of overseas students in Britain, and provides books and educational materials in overseas countries. The Council maintains or assists some 100 libraries in developing countries with a book stock of about $1\frac{1}{2}$ million, and it spends about £360,000 a year on books, periodicals and films for use in developing countries.

Apart from this technical help, the British Council also gives financial assistance in capital and recurrent form to overseas educational institutions, and in capital form to the development of public library services in certain territories.

2 Commonwealth Development Corporation

CDC has derived the bulk of its resources from the UK Exchequer and new Treasury advances to the Corporation are counted as part of aid funds. Investments in developing countries undertaken by CDC are accompanied by the supply of experienced management and by the provision of training opportunities for the Corporation's employees and of open scholarships. For instance, candidates from Malaysia, West Africa, East Africa and the Caribbean have been given management training in the regional and London offices of CDC and scholarships are offered at universities and colleges in these areas. Training for technical and supervisory positions is continuously being given on the site of projects themselves. In addition, the Corporation arranges for the benefits of skilled management to be provided through help and advice to local farmers and smallholders in the establishment of crops and with processing and marketing. In many developing countries, CDC has developed the

idea of plantations or farms managed on commercial lines and surrounded by small farmers who can learn from qualified managers and from the example of the nucleus CDC estate. Unfortunately it is not possible to set a figure on CDC's contributions through such technical assistance. However, at the end of 1963 CDC investments in developing countries were valued at £92m.

3 Crown Agents

The Crown Agents' full title is 'The Crown Agents for Oversea Governments and Administrations'. There are, in fact, three Crown Agents but the term 'Crown Agents' is normally used to apply to the Crown Agents' Office, which has a present staff of about 1,400, of whom 300 are technical. Apart from the main office in London, there are now branch offices in Washington and Tokyo. The Office was first established as long ago as 1833 and originally the Crown Agents' activities were restricted to the colonies, though now they will act for any international inter-governmental organisation, individual government, or officially-sponsored public authority. They do not act for private individuals or commercial concerns.

The constitutional position of the Crown Agents is a little obscure and currently attempts are being made to clarify it. As a public service, the Crown Agents do have some responsibility to the Secretary for Technical Co-operation, who appoints the three Crown Agents and answers any questions in Parliament regarding their activities. But the Crown Agents' Office is not a Department of the British Government, nor are its staff civil servants, even though their salaries and conditions are based on those of the UK Civil Service. Nor are the Crown Agents in any way dependent on finance from the British Government even though they are occasionally commissioned to do specific jobs on the Government's behalf. In all their business dealings the Crown Agents have sole responsibility to their overseas principals, and take instructions only from them.

The Crown Agents offer their services to overseas governments and public administrations on a fee-paying basis but charges are fixed at a level sufficient only to cover administrative costs and to maintain an adequate working balance and a reserve for contingencies. Thus the only sense in which their services to developing countries could actually be described as 'technical assistance' is the extent of the difference between a fully 'commercial' charge, and the actual level of Crown Agents' charges, and this would be impossible to compute with any accuracy.

The functions performed by the Crown Agents' Office on behalf of overseas authorities include:

- the purchase, inspection, shipment and insurance of stores, materials, and equipment of all kinds. In 1963 the Crown Agents placed new orders to the value of over £58m for their overseas principals. These were mostly placed in the UK, but also in Europe, the United States and Japan;
- the provision of specialist advice;

- the management of funds invested in London and the raising of loans, etc., on the London market. The volume of funds administered by the Crown Agents on behalf of their overseas principals amounted to over £1,000m in 1963;
- personnel services including recruitment of staff, payment of salaries and pensions, negotiation of contracts, etc. As noted in Chapter 5, the Crown Agents recruited 498 people for service in developing countries in 1963, of whom 285 were covered by the Overseas Service Aid Scheme.

Apart from the various services mentioned above, the Crown Agents are ready, whenever possible, to second members of their staff for overseas service and in 1963 26 officers were working abroad in developing countries in the service of overseas authorities. At the same time, the Crown Agents receive people from overseas for training in London and normally have about a dozen people on attachments at any one time.

The Crown Agents perform a number of functions on an agency basis for DTC. One of the Crown Agents acts as Engineering Adviser to DTC and the Crown Agents handle most of the ordering of equipment under Regional Programmes. There is also close co-operation in recruitment matters and the Crown Agents undertake much of the work connected with contracts, passages, etc., on behalf of DTC. Occasionally DTC uses Crown Agents' staff members as technical assistance experts under the Regional Programmes.

14—Conclusions and Suggestions

The foregoing chapters have given a necessarily detailed and factual picture of British technical assistance. In this chapter, a general stocktaking will be attempted in order to identify some of the more important features, trends and issues of relevance to future policies. These conclusions and suggestions are those of the author alone.

The scale of the British technical assistance programme is now considerable. The Department of Technical Co-operation has a record budget in 1964/5 of over £36m, and the British Council's budget of £10.7m is also at its highest point ever. There are about 19,000 British civilians working in the developing countries whom the British Government or other public bodies have recruited and, in most cases, have some continuing financial or other responsibility for. Whilst these 19,000 represent only a tiny part of the total UK labour force, they undoubtedly constitute a much more significant proportion of the better educated and more highly skilled sector of the working population. At home, the 2,300 students and trainees from developing countries under British Government aid programmes in 1963 represented the highest number ever reached and the total numbers (including private) have passed the 50,000 mark for the first time.

All this has been achieved over a period during which a new Department has been settling down and finding its feet. It is hardly three years since the Department of Technical Co-operation was formed with staff drawn both from other ministries, with such different traditions as the Foreign Office, Commonwealth Relations Office, Colonial Office and Ministry of Labour, and from the Colonial Service. Even in early 1964, over 60% of the administrative staff of DTC were on secondment from other departments. But DTC has had to do much more than just 'settle down' as a new organisation. It inherited a structure of technical assistance mainly designed for and largely restricted to British colonies, and it has had to wrestle with the dual problem of adapting these programmes to the post-independence era and, at the same time, of extending technical aid to countries being helped by Britain for the first time. The Department could fairly ask of those who would judge it that they should take the achievements of the next three years as their measuring rod, and not solely those of the past three.

It is particularly difficult to judge the British technical assistance programme because of the very different functions and purposes of the various parts of the British programme. It cannot really be said that there is a British technical assistance programme at all – we have rather an amalgam of different programmes and schemes inherited from the past, most of which are now grouped together administratively under the Department of Technical Co-operation but which have not yet by any means been functionally related to each other.

Emphasis on Ex-Colonies

These programmes fall into two main groups – those arising directly from the colonial relationship still virtually confined in scope to their original beneficiaries; and the Regional Programmes (like the Colombo Plan) which were from the start conceived as a way of helping independent countries. DTC took over the first group from the Colonial Office and the second from the Foreign and Commonwealth Relations Offices. It has moved some way to integrating the two sets of activities it inherited by, for instance, bringing the colonies into the Regional Programmes in 1963. But a measure of the existing concentration on the former group is illustrated by the fact that 84% of DTC's bilateral expenditure in 1963 was in respect of parts of the Commonwealth which were still colonies less than five years ago, at the beginning of 1960. It is thrown into bolder relief by the discovery that Sarawak, for example, received more technical assistance from Britain in 1963 than did India. The former, colonial or recently independent, group of countries not only receives the whole benefit of the Overseas Service Aid Scheme, and virtually all the allocations to research, mapping and geological surveys, but in addition a substantial share of Regional Programme expenditure.

DTC's heavy expenditure on behalf of these countries is inevitable. It is a continuation of aid arrangements made in colonial days under the Colonial Development and Welfare Acts and a natural outcome of the earlier provision of British personnel to the civil services of the colonies. The notion that at political independence Britain's responsibilities in the economic and technical fields ceased was rightly abandoned at the end of the 1950s and the introduction of the Overseas Service Aid Scheme in 1961 for ten years recognised this fact. OSAS was an important commitment on such a scale that it has accounted for 60% of British bilateral technical assistance expenditure in each of the last two calendar years.

It may seem that Britain has been generous with her help to her colonies and former colonies, but it is difficult to see that she could have done less. Although, for example, the introduction of the Overseas Service Aid Scheme in 1961 appeared to create 16,000 extra British technical assistance personnel in the colonies in Africa, the West Indies, and elsewhere, from the colonies' point of view these were not in any sense additional people – they had been there all along. What Britain was doing under OSAS was not so much to provide new skills as to take over a substantial share of the cost. In fact, in terms of the skills and services they receive from Britain through official channels, the countries concerned benefit much less now from the supply of British personnel, both quantitatively and qualitatively, than they did in the late 1950s, because of the steady home-ward flow of civil servants to Britain. Indeed, the numbers serving under OSAS appear to have dropped by one-sixth in the single year of 1963. Moreover, when the balance of generosity comes to be weighed, the recipients will want compensation payments taken into account. About a quarter of British technical assistance to colonies and newly independent countries consists of compensation to British officials. Britain accepts responsibility for only half the compensation payable – the other half must be met from the territories' own resources. Whether or not it is right in

law, one cannot help wondering whether it is really just that poor countries should have been asked to pay, as the 'price' of independence, compensation to officials appointed by an alien régime. Britain is, in any case, having to give or lend most of them the money to fulfil this obligation: and the complete assumption of such obligations by the British Government would be a farsighted act of statesmanship leading to a much happier relationship in future.

British help for her colonies and former colonies has had, and must naturally continue to have, a high priority. Supplying their needs is a task which we must continue to perform, if only because there are no other obvious sources of outside aid. It means that a high proportion of British technical assistance resources will be committed to helping some of the poorest countries in the world to keep their basic government services operating. This may seem less glamorous than using technical assistance to launch new schemes and projects, but it is a necessary job. Moreover, it has its compensations because of its obvious value; there can be no doubt that the operational civil servant fulfils a vitally necessary role.

Need for Adjustment

But for all its necessity and its virtues – and many knowledgeable people seem to agree that, viewed comparatively, British technical assistance to its colonies has been fairly effective – the pattern of British technical assistance developed since the war is not wholly appropriate to present needs.

In the first place, the achievement of independence by many colonies involves us in a completely different relationship to them and this change will be felt as much in the technical assistance field as elsewhere. Technical assistance to the colonies was largely directed to activities and plans which had been scrutinised and approved by Britain and which were subject to the continuing advice and even supervision of London. Schemes were administered by British overseas civil servants in whom Whitehall had every confidence. Provision was made for technical assistance under the Colonial Development and Welfare Acts for five years at a time, and included centralised services established on a permanent basis which were on tap as needed. This system represents a very different régime from that which can apply to independent countries under Regional Programme arrangements. With independent countries technical assistance has to be negotiated and agreed on the political and diplomatic level. The onus of working out what recipient countries want is thrust on to their civil servants, who are overworked and whose knowledge of British institutions and what Britain can provide is far more limited than that of their British predecessors. On Britain's side the possibilities of discussion, supervision and control are much less obvious and the need to please and satisfy whims for political reasons is greater. Apart from anything else there is the new complication of co-ordinating British assistance to a particular country with that of other donors.

Second, the range of colonies and recently independent countries receiving 84% of British technical aid does not correspond with Britain's worldwide responsibilities. It excludes India, Pakistan and Ceylon, Malaya

and Ghana as well as a host of foreign countries in the Middle East and South East Asia, Africa and Latin America. A start in bringing the programme into better balance has been made with the recent offer of technical assistance to many foreign countries previously ineligible for it.

Unfortunately, however, not all the institutions and expertise built up in colonial days are fully geared to meet the new situation. Partly this is because of a failure, particularly during the later 1950s, to build up Britain's reserves of expertise on development problems. At that time the end of colonial responsibility was foreseen, but the need for a continuing effort after independence was not yet appreciated. Here one can only speak of the missing eight or ten years in the history of the British development effort. In the course of the 1950s, the arrangements for helping developing countries came to something of a standstill. The old colonial career services were allowed to run down in numbers and, instead of renewing them, the emphasis was switched to recruitment of fewer people for shorter periods. Moreover after a fruitful period of the development of new organisations to serve the needs of colonial development after the Second World War there followed, for organisations like the Directorate of Overseas Surveys and the Tropical Products Institute, years of uncertainty during which they hardly grew at all and always half expected to disappear entirely when their 'clients' achieved independence. Because of this failure to renew our resources, we face some considerable manpower problems for the future. Many of Britain's technical assistance personnel with any length of experience overseas are nearing retirement. DTC's Advisers, who represent the professional side of its work, are mostly over 50 and will be extremely difficult to replace (if such even be intended). Even the ranks of the administrators in the Department have few under 45 among them.

Even if the resources available in the past for assistance to the colonies had been fully renewed, the former patterns of aid might not prove appropriate to the requirements of independent countries. Certain of these schemes might indeed be extended and there is no good reason why the DTC-supported research and survey organisations should not be developed so as to be able to cater for the needs of a much wider range of countries than hitherto.

But the Overseas Service Aid Scheme, for example, was devised to meet a particular situation in the colonies which has few counterparts elsewhere. Apart from West Africa, where Nigeria and Sierra Leone have already rejected the Scheme, few developing countries outside OSAS either have (or desire to have) any substantial numbers of Britons occupying established positions in their civil services. Furthermore, many of the individuals who have spent long years in the Overseas Civil Service have a range of experience which may be hard to apply in parts of the world different from those they have served in.

Britain's technical assistance effort is thus moving into a new era in which we must both adapt where possible our proved and well-tried methods and institutions, and develop new ones. Our responsibilities to the colonies will remain; but the major growing points in our technical assistance are likely to be in the help we give through the Regional Programmes to independent countries. In spite of more than a decade of

giving Colombo Plan assistance, Britain's experience of giving technical assistance (or capital aid) to independent countries is more limited than that of many other donors. It is of the utmost importance that in the future Britain takes much more positive steps than in the past to learn from them and to co-operate with them, whether on a bilateral or multilateral basis. The fact of Britain's interdependence with others, whether donors or recipients, should be a recurring theme in our attempts to organise our effort and marshal our resources in technical assistance for the challenges ahead.

What in fact needs to be done?

Identifying the Needs

Identification of what help is most needed and can be provided is the first priority. Under the present system there is a surprising lack of well worked out requests for British assistance available under the Regional Programmes. The possible reasons for this were discussed in Chapter 4. They may sometimes be political, or it may be that the terms of British technical assistance are felt to be wrong. But a quite fundamental point seems to be that the channels of communication on technical assistance matters are partially blocked and are likely to remain so until Britain does more to influence and encourage requests and to identify the sort of help that developing countries need. Greater initiative in this matter by Britain should be fully consistent with the principle of formal requests being made by developing countries.

The first step is to arrange for permanent British representation overseas through technical advisers having long acquaintance with the area concerned. There is already one successful precedent in the Middle East Development Division, which is a permanent organisation (under DTC) in Beirut having six specialist advisers in different fields attached to it (see Chapter 3). The establishment of this type of organisation in other areas such as, say, East Africa, West Africa, Latin America, the West Indies, India and Pakistan, and South East Asia, should be considered as a matter of priority. The task of these regional organisations, as with MEDD, would be to maintain close contact with economic and social developments in the countries concerned and to help identify where and what sort of assistance is required; to supply advisory help through their own staff where possible or, if necessary, to draw on the more specialist resources available to DTC in London; and to maintain contact with existing British aid projects in their region. Their role should not be limited to technical assistance but should extend to capital aid as well. This should be part of the arrangements for a close link-up of capital and technical assistance, which will be discussed later.

Ideally there would be much to be said for organising such regional organisations on a Commonwealth or wider international basis so that they could serve several donors. Where appropriate, they might be located near, and be in some relationship to, the UN Regional Commissions. If, however, they were organised, like MEDD, on a narrower, national, basis, they would have to be closely associated with British diplomatic posts and (where convenient) with the Commonwealth Development Corporation's

regional offices. The exact nature of the relationship with British embassies and high commissions might have to be worked out on an *ad hoc* basis, but complete integration would hardly be possible since the development division staff would be on long-term appointments, they would not have administrative duties or be concerned with formal negotiation, and they would serve whole regions rather than individual countries.

A second proposal relates to British diplomatic posts. The development divisions consisting of permanent specialists need to be backed up by a network of good aid attachés in all the major countries where Britain has large aid programmes. At present there are a few of these, but not enough. The attachés should, if possible, be people with a real interest in economic and social affairs. They should be closely acquainted both with the organisation of British aid and technical assistance and with the institutional framework of educational, scientific and technical organisations in the UK. Some of these people may be diplomats, but recruitment for such posts should extend over a wide field as very special qualities are required. Above all the posts should have high status and not just be farmed out to someone who takes the job on because no one else can be found to do it.

A third proposal is for more frequent fact-finding and liaison visits by professional advisers or by full technical assistance missions, composed of both official and non-official members. These would discuss with the authorities in developing countries their development programmes and plans and would be on the look out for areas in which fruitful co-operation might be possible. They should be complemented by occasional visits in the opposite direction by delegations from the developing countries.

Fourth, institutions in Britain, independent or otherwise, should be encouraged, by means of financial and other help, to make contact and forge links with similar institutions in developing countries and to work out with them programmes of mutual co-operation. These institutions might include universities, research institutes, trade and professional associations, local authorities and trades unions, to name but a few. Technical co-operation projects could be jointly submitted to the two governments concerned with a view to a formal request being made; if acceptable, the assistance would be made available through the British institution, and financed by the British Government. Devolution of responsibility in this way to specialist semi-official or unofficial institutions might give greatly increased flexibility: it is already employed in respect of universities.

Fifth, arrangements to supply British staff to strengthen the government departments in developing countries responsible for planning the use of foreign aid and for making aid requests should be reviewed. Shortage of staff competent to cope with the procedures of working out projects and then asking for aid is one reason why Britain does not receive more requests. It is probably only a limited range of countries which might ask for help in this matter, but such requests should be given the very highest priority (the one, limited, technical assistance operation undertaken by ODI is in just this field).

Sixth, Britain should take more positive steps to let developing countries know what services she can make available. This is mostly a matter of building up institutions which can supply technical assistance on a per-

manent and continuing basis. But it also involves spreading knowledge about what can be provided. Developing countries are more likely to ask for specific services they know are available.

Finally, wherever possible a consultative framework with provision for full participation by the recipient should be established. It is important that developing countries do not get the impression that their role in technical co-operation is a passive one. A frank exchange of views and even joint planning are most desirable. If this can be done in association with other donors, so much the better.

Organising our Technical Assistance Resources

Proper arrangements for contact and communication on technical assistance matters between Britain and developing countries are only a first step. Quite as important are moves to ensure that we are able to meet the needs they express. This is primarily a matter of organising the supply of resources. The main responsibility for this lies at present with DTC, though it may very well later, whichever political party happens to be in power, come to be merged in a ministry or agency dealing with the whole aid programme, and this seems desirable. The internal organisation of DTC need not concern us here in any detail. But there is one obvious gap in the present establishment of the Department. It is deficient in economic advice and would benefit from having a unit similar to the Economic Section of the Treasury. There is urgent need for a section which would undertake study and analysis of problems and programmes in the sphere of technical assistance and aid, including a close assessment of development plans and economic progress in developing countries. It would be responsible for gathering information, reviewing the general direction in which the programme is moving, and developing new strategies. It would also keep an eye on questions of cost and effectiveness. All these activities are, of course, carried out to some extent at present (though there seems to be far too little evaluation) but they need to have full-time attention rather than whatever time administrators busy with day-to-day decisions have to spare.

How should the supply of British skills to developing countries be organised? The Treasury White Paper on Aid to Developing Countries, issued in 1963, stated that 'although the era of aid, viewed in the perspective of history, may be a transitory one it does not follow that it will be short, still less that its end is in sight. We have but to recall the long, hard years over which the development of the industrialised nations was spread in order to put aside any false optimism. . . . The task of helping the developing nations is, then, a continuing one.' This suggests that a major consideration must be continuity, which in turn involves a certain professionalism in approach. But one can hardly say that our present arrangements are built on this basis. Many of our scientists doing research into development problems, or the tutors running teacher training courses at our universities, for example, work on a hand-to-mouth basis with no certain prospect of employment ahead. We organise most of our recruitment on the basis of two or three-year contracts.

The Government's present policy appears to rest on the assumption that, although we must make a much greater effort in technical assistance in the years that lie ahead, the uncertainties of overseas demand and changed political and other circumstances necessitate primary reliance on the framework of home institutions and home careers as sources of help for developing countries. This approach involves drawing people as required from home-based careers for short periods and working on budgets for research and training of two or three years ahead. The advantages of flexibility are obvious: forward commitment is limited and there will be hardly anybody to pension off if demand from overseas suddenly vanishes.

The basis of such an approach is the view that the economic, technical and social problems facing developing countries are virtually identical with ours – that today's school teacher from Bootle, Bangor or Brighton can be an effective instructor tomorrow in Bangkok, Bauchi or Bogota. It takes little account of the difference between developing countries and Britain in climate, crops, and mineral resources; and more particularly in language, culture, and technical sophistication. Clearly there are many specialist skills whose application will not vary whatever the social environment, and in these cases a specialist overseas cadre may be superfluous – although even in these cases the most specialised expert can only be fully effective when he has established full rapport with his colleagues and this normally takes several months at least. But in many situations our help will only be fully effective if it is provided by people with considerable experience of overseas countries and conditions who understand what is possible, appropriate and practicable in the overseas context. This suggests that we need to build up institutions and a corps of people who will spend a considerable part of their working lives on overseas development if our aid programme is to provide real help and is not just to be window-dressing. Only if a nucleus of long-term professionals and a framework of permanent institutions exists will it be possible to draw fruitfully from time to time on the experience and expertise of people in home careers. The need for continuity is not at all a new idea – the Colonial Service was organised on this principle. It has also found recognition in the establishment of DTC, in the proposal (now being considered by DTC) by the Bridges Committee that a special institution for training and research in overseas development be established; and in DTC's decision to finance certain small pools of experts on a long-term basis. But what is needed is an extension of these principles: otherwise we shall find our efforts are piecemeal and patchy and that our best brains and greatest abilities will be diverted elsewhere.

Supply of Personnel

Much the greatest part of Britain's technical assistance effort at present is in the form of supplying British personnel to developing countries (about 70% of the bilateral effort – see Table 5). But a serious decline is taking place in the overall total of British technical assistance personnel serving overseas under aid programmes. According to figures supplied to OECD, during 1963 the numbers directly supported under aid programmes fell

from about 14,400 to about 12,500 (excluding Nigerian Special List Officers). The numbers under Regional Programmes and Commonwealth Educational Co-operation actually rose, though the totals under these were still tiny. The fall was entirely accounted for by a drop of 2,400 under the Overseas Service Aid Scheme and can be attributed almost entirely to the return home from Africa of many former colonial civil servants. There is nothing discreditable in this: the numbers involved are a measure of the contribution that Britain was making in the heyday of the colonial empire. Nor does it imply that the Overseas Service Aid Scheme has been a failure; for without it the beneficiary countries and colonies would have lost even more of those they already had and would have been able to attract fewer new ones. But the fact remains that if the present rate of outflow continues there will, within a very few years, be only a few thousand British technical assistance personnel under the Overseas Service Aid Scheme instead of the 16,000 of three years ago. Moreover, this change for the worse is not likely to be merely quantitative: it would also be reflected in a fall in quality resulting from the replacement of experienced officers of ten, twenty or thirty years' service overseas with less-experienced recruits on contracts of two or three years. Unless a large number of today's recruits renew their contracts, the average length of stay overseas will fall sharply. (Unfortunately there is no precise information on how long most of the recruits are staying in developing countries – this is one of the most serious gaps in present knowledge on this whole subject.)

Part of this decline is perhaps the inevitable result of independence. Developing countries want to man their administrations with their own people and are chary of offering long contracts to foreigners. Yet it is wrong to blame the fall entirely on declining demand. The number of vacancies at DTC have risen in the past two years in step with increased recruitment, which suggests that a more certain supply may help to create its own demand.

On the assumption that it is desirable for Britain to maintain her major effort in this field, we must therefore find means of recruiting more people and keeping them longer in service. One idea often canvassed is for the re-establishment of a career service, possibly on a Commonwealth basis, along the lines of the old career Colonial Services. This clearly has many attractions as a way of enabling Britain to build up a corps of people with specialist knowledge and experience who would be permanently available for meeting future technical assistance requests. They would be in the employment of the UK Government and could be loaned to developing countries for varying periods on request, as envisaged by the Government itself in its 1956 White Paper.

A Career Service?

But the Government has stated several objections to the career service in its own employ. These were last set out in detail in the 1962 White Paper (Cmnd. 1740) – but it is ironical, in view of the lapse of time and the arguments now being used, to reflect that the Government was already opposing the idea as long ago as 1946. First, HMG would have no control

over the number, duration and type of vacancies to be filled. It would be difficult to guarantee employment because forecasting numbers is hazardous; some countries might be prejudiced against employing British people; the needs for staff become ever more specialised. Second, even if it were possible to guarantee continuous employment for a period of years to a number of professional officers, the Government thought it most unlikely that this would be attractive to people of the right calibre because:

- (i) there might be periods of unemployment between appointments;
- (ii) the prospect of being sent arbitrarily for service anywhere in the world for limited periods was not likely to be attractive;
- (iii) a career service would have to offer a reasonable prospect of employment until normal retirement age and this could not be guaranteed;
- (iv) such a service could not offer the prospect of a career with posts of increasing responsibility.

Not all these difficulties seem insuperable, and it is important that a determined effort should be made to overcome them. As the OECD's Development Assistance Committee (of which Britain is a member) has just said in its *Proposals for Strengthening the Assistance Effort* 'the time has come for Member countries generally to recognise that at least a nucleus of experts should be placed on a permanent basis'. The British Government has moved some way by deciding to create a small career service in the teaching of English overseas. But there are also other types of expertise for which overseas demand seems assured well into the future and what is being suggested here as a possibility is not an all-embracing service of the kind which has been turned down but a more selective approach. Developing countries have a desperate need of good economists, statisticians, vets, technical and other teachers, and some countries with whom Britain has close ties will not be able to satisfy their requirements in these fields for many decades ahead. These are all examples of fields where the pilot career service might be tried on an initial basis of recruitment of perhaps between ten and a hundred people in each field, depending on the supply possibilities in each profession. They are, moreover, fields where employment in Britain in the unlikely event of jobs ceasing to be available overseas might not present too much difficulty, at least after short refresher courses. During periods of lack of employment overseas, if indeed any ever arose, the British Government might well be able to loan the services of these people to government departments, private organisations, local authorities, etc., on a repayment basis. This would be practicable and inexpensive. The cost of such schemes could also be kept down if the recipient government reimbursed the British Government with the equivalent of the man's local salary.

On these terms and if the services were clearly a British Government responsibility, it seems very possible that recruits would be forthcoming. 'The prospect of being sent arbitrarily for service anywhere in the world for limited periods' would hardly be more likely to deter entrants to these small services than it does Foreign Service personnel, British Council regular staff, or the members of the new English-language teaching

service. Reasonably generous home leave allowance and the occasional sabbatical year back in Britain would help members of such services to maintain their home contacts and to keep their professional knowledge up to date. Whilst 'a reasonable prospect of employment until normal retirement age . . . could not be guaranteed', there are already many home careers where this is also the case, and there are likely to be more in a swiftly-changing technological world. There would need to be safeguards on both sides. Individuals would be free to leave the service at their own request and to retain such pension rights as they had already earned; whilst on the other side provision might be made for the Government, on giving due notice, to pay compensation and arrange re-training for anyone they could not retain through lack of employment. As for the prospect of a career with posts of increasing responsibility, some of the requests from developing countries would undoubtedly be in respect of senior advisory positions. Apart from this, promotion could be either to advisory posts at DTC or the regional development divisions; to administrative posts in DTC, to the position of aid attaché in British diplomatic missions, or, by secondment, to the diplomatic service; or to posts in universities and institutions running special courses on development subjects. The service would also open up avenues for entry into the employment of the UN and its Agencies: the international organisations have drawn quite heavily on former members of the British Overseas Civil Service for their technical assistance operations, and it is important to maintain the supply in future.

All this only amounts to a rough outline and certain details would probably need to be modified. The proposal is designed to help fill the gap in present arrangements for ensuring that Britain has a reserve, or nucleus as OECD has put it, of experienced people on whom she will be able to draw to meet technical assistance requests. The onus is on those who would dismiss it out of hand to put forward an alternative strategy. At the moment, it seems more than doubtful whether the present supply of short-term people will be able to meet the needs that developing countries put to us, or to maintain the standards that have been set in the past.

Improving Recruitment

Whether or not this sort of specialised service proves acceptable, there will still be advantage in developing arrangements outside such a framework. Not everyone who is eager to work in developing countries will want to spend most of his working life there; and, in some professions, it might not be possible or desirable to form a career service. What other possibilities are there for improving recruitment? With regard to the length of period, one or two suggestions might be made. First, more flexibility in the length of contracts is desirable and the option of longer contracts should, where possible, be given when people sign on. DTC has pronounced itself in favour of this (see Cmnd. 1740), but developing countries have not always felt able to offer longer contracts. Might it not be possible for DTC to offer the basic five, seven or ten-year contract and then to second staff for employment by overseas governments for

shorter periods within this? Second, a system of steeply rising terminal grants payable by the British Government could be instituted. Additional years of service are so much more valuable than the initial ones that it would be worth making the terminal grant increasingly generous as the period of service lengthened. Finally, negotiations should be undertaken to remove any restrictive limits on the length of time over which a man overseas (or DTC on his behalf) can continue to pay in to UK pension funds.

As to increasing recruitment, some of the solutions are long-term and some short. There has been all too little analysis of the factors inducing or impeding the coming forward of recruits, and in the absence of this one must proceed largely on the basis of surmise. A shift in the climate of opinion, which is not so much hostile as ignorant at present, is clearly a long-term basic requirement. This calls for the use of television, films and other mass information media to stimulate interest and awaken imaginations. Teachers in schools, colleges and universities have special responsibilities in the creation of favourable attitudes, and extra staff and resources should be devoted to teaching and research in overseas affairs generally and development subjects more specifically. The Government should use every means at its disposal for attaching prestige to service overseas (including the Honours system, if necessary!). In the shorter term, more resources should be allocated immediately to recruitment in the form of additional staff and publicity material for DTC, the British Council and others. More recognised recruitment schemes, like the Teachers for East Africa Scheme (TEA) would be an advantage. TEA gives recruits a sense of participation in a large co-ordinated effort; it enables their welfare to be more closely supervised in the field; and on their return home it is an advantage if UK employers have heard of the scheme in question. From DTC's point of view, such schemes are large enough to give hope of making a really positive impact, and they make mass recruitment possible. Partly as a result of TEA, recruitment of teachers has increased dramatically in the past two years.

Such arrangements seem to offer more hope than the possibility of numerous secondments from employment in the UK. In fact, outside the teaching profession with its special Code of Secondment, very few secondments have so far been negotiated. It seems unlikely that secondment will ever prove to be a major source of recruits, and as labour mobility in the economy increases it may grow even less important as compared with direct advertising. The main drawback to secondment is that it is administratively a time-consuming and costly operation to organise because it involves Government persuading individual employers, both private and public, to release staff whom they are reluctant to lose. It therefore involves an unduly large amount of exhortation; and everybody is tired of that. One way of overcoming this particular difficulty might be to associate interested representative bodies more closely in the work of finding recruits for secondment. Just as the universities' own body, the Inter-University Council, is entrusted with much of the recruitment of university teachers for developing countries, might not professional bodies or industrial associations be given a greater role in the recruitment of doctors, industrialists, and engineers, for example?

Secondment may, of course, be the only approach where there are monopoly employers to whom anyone leaving a particular type of job in the UK is bound to return, or where a very specific type of skill is needed. In general, however, one cannot help wondering whether measures to promote the mobility of labour in the UK, such as full transferability of pension rights, etc., would not help overseas recruitment quite as much as detailed secondment agreements between government and individual employers.

Volunteers

Perhaps the brightest prospect in the whole field of Britain's effort to help developing countries with personnel has been the recent growth of the volunteer movement. With 800 volunteers in 1964, and 1,300 promised for 1965, this does seem a hopeful way of filling a small part of the gap left by the return home of so many British people from developing countries. At present there seems to be no shortage of young men and women ready to undertake this work and, provided additional finance can be found, further expansion should present few difficulties. But it must be frankly recognised that, as it is at present constituted, the British volunteer movement's contribution and value lie quite as much in the experience it gives to the volunteers and to the socially valuable leavening effect it is likely to have on attitudes in Britain towards developing countries, as in any significant increase in the skills being made available. This is not to deny that during their year overseas the volunteers leave their mark, both through the actual jobs they are doing and through the sympathy and energy they communicate to those they are working with. But so long as they are virtually untrained and stay so short a time their value will not realise its true potential. No school or institution can be run satisfactorily on a succession of teachers available for a one-year period, and it should seriously be considered by the voluntary societies and the Government whether the next step after the expansion already announced for 1965 should not be to lengthen the period of service to two years or more. Such a change might make it worthwhile 'investing' more in the training and orientation period that the volunteers have before leaving Britain.

A further point in regard to volunteers which needs to be considered urgently is career openings for returned volunteers, many of whom may wish to continue with work in the same general field. It is significant that a high proportion of the 36 original graduate volunteers who went out in 1962 stayed on to re-volunteer for a further year or to serve on a contract basis with the schools where they had been. Here, indeed, if the Government will grasp the chance, is an opportunity to lay the foundations for careers spent in the service of developing countries. The returned volunteer is comparatively free of ties and obligations and, given the opportunity, might be ready to join a properly constituted service of British technical assistance personnel. The Government should consider whether it should not try to direct the enthusiasm of volunteers and other young people into more permanent institutional forms. One valuable way of doing this would be to recruit young people under 35 as 'associate experts' for the

United Nations in the same way as the Dutch and Germans have been doing. Attachments to senior workers in the field can provide most valuable experience.

This leads on to the more general question of training and orientation of technical assistance personnel. At present, the numbers are such, the flow so irregular, and contracts so short, that it has not been deemed possible or worthwhile to organise more than the shortest and sketchiest of orientation courses. But longer contracts or a career service structure would make it worthwhile for DTC to arrange special training, especially for younger recruits, and to extend the range of studentships it offers for such training: the tropical agriculture studentships at Trinidad and those in Britain for the English-language career teachers are examples of what could be done. At present there are numbers of young men and women who would like to engage on technical assistance work but have virtually no opening outside the British Council or volunteer schemes because they lack training and experience. If we could arrange more provision for special training relevant to overseas conditions and could couple this with attachments to senior experienced workers in the field, as suggested above, we might be able to expand the opportunities quite rapidly. An important part of such arrangements would be a counselling service to people in sixth forms at school or at the start of their college and university careers about the likely opportunities for overseas service and the most relevant academic courses to pursue in order to acquire the necessary basic training at that stage.

Training

In the long run the supply of people from Britain will only have justified itself if it proves to have enabled the developing countries to man their own administrative, productive and social services with their own people. The great majority of British technical assistance personnel are already doing operational jobs which may give them little time for undertaking training work, but the principle that experts supplied under the Regional Programmes should leave behind local people to carry on their work is a sound one, even though in practice it may be difficult to find suitable 'counterparts'. Everything possible should be done to ensure that the supply of personnel is closely geared in with arrangements to make the developing countries self-sufficient in terms of their own manpower requirements. The supply of British university staff, for example, should be integrated with arrangements to give junior staff from developing countries administrative teaching and research opportunities in Britain.

Britain has a long tradition of help to developing countries in the key area of education and training. This assistance has been described in 'Educational Assistance' in this series of pamphlets and it is unnecessary to repeat the various suggestions made there. The present aid programme to a large extent recognises the primacy of education and training help and recently there has been a most encouraging expansion in the numbers of educational personnel recruited for developing countries overseas. This has been the result of a much more vigorous recruiting campaign and the use of mass recruitment schemes, such as the Teachers for East Africa

Scheme (TEA). All this is most welcome. However, the value of our help would be greatly enhanced if more of those recruited were teacher-trainers. Out of 648 educational personnel recruited under aid programmes in 1963, only 78 were for the teacher training field, of whom 50 went for very short (a few weeks) teacher vacation courses in Nigeria. If one excludes these short term appointments, only 10 out of 444 educational personnel sent by Britain to Africa in 1963 were for teacher training. Clearly the balance here is altogether unsatisfactory. To some extent it reflects the failure of African countries to give teacher training sufficient priority (but it is encouraging that requests under TEA for 1964 include teacher-trainers for the first time), and there is an urgent need for co-operation in working out joint schemes for the development of local teacher training institutions.

Teacher training is only one field where there should be greater emphasis on building up training institutions in developing countries themselves by the provision of staff, equipment and capital from Britain. It will always be desirable for general reasons that large numbers of overseas students should come to Britain for advanced study here, and the totals, both in overall numbers and British Government sponsored students, are now higher than ever before. But an uncontrolled flow of people to Britain may create serious problems for the developing countries, where institutions of higher education may find themselves deprived of their best students as a result of a scramble to take up overseas scholarships. In any case it is by no means clear in general that the unsettling effects of life for overseas students in Europe and America are always compensated for by the benefits derived. Britain should therefore be ready to discuss with developing countries how best her help in the form of teachers for overseas and training places in Britain can be dovetailed together to help fulfil their social and economic objectives. The needs from overseas may well prove to be so great that increased assistance will be needed **both** through additional places and through institution-building overseas: but greater emphasis should probably be placed on the latter.

For those that do continue to come to Britain, closer consideration should be given to the types and content of courses available. The number of courses in Britain specially designed for overseas students is limited and many overseas students take degree and other courses in science, technology, the social sciences and the arts which are unrelated to conditions they will find on their return home. Another difficulty, particularly in connection with engineering courses, is to find the opportunities for practical training to complement the academic courses. Practical training arrangements for the general body of overseas students still seem unsatisfactory, even though DTC has taken steps to improve the position for those sponsored under technical assistance arrangements.

Amongst the proposals for additional training facilities specially geared to the needs of developing countries was one put forward by the Bridges Committee (and again in the recent Commonwealth Prime Ministers' Communiqué) for a 'special institution' for research and training in development problems, including public administration. Whilst continuing demand from overseas for any general new course in public administration as such seems doubtful (because the senior civil servants for whom it would

be designed cannot find time to attend), there might well be overseas interest in more specialised facets of the development process, like social and economic development planning. The proposed new institution and others providing specialised courses in such fields should also be built up to serve as 'bases' for the provision overseas of technical and advisory services by establishing extra posts whose occupants are held free to be seconded for periods of service abroad.

Consultancies and Surveys

The use of teams of people and of consultancy firms instead of individual experts is growing. This is one field where Britain's technical assistance effort could be stepped up quickly and considerably without much difficulty. There is little doubt that independent consultancy firms are available who would be willing to undertake to provide the necessary services and the work involved, and in many cases they would be able to supply developing countries with basic information they badly need. DTC should pursue a long-term policy of trying to build up, through the award of contracts, sources of expertise in the type of problems facing developing countries and it should closely study American and other experience of the use of universities and other institutions for such work. For instance, the sort of detailed statistical work carried out by the Robbins Committee is something that should be in demand from developing countries for many years ahead; and there would be much to be said for DTC's supporting a centre of expertise which could undertake or assist with surveys in the social, educational and manpower planning fields. It should, of course, always assure itself (as it tries to do at present) that consultancy and survey work will be followed up by action, and should be in a position to give assurances that financial aid will be available to back up projects found to be worthwhile.

There is also scope for extending the Government's own activities. The sort of work performed by the Directorate of Overseas Surveys, and on a smaller scale by Overseas Geological Surveys, is immensely valuable in enabling developing countries to assemble the basic data on which further development must rest. At a time when the efficacy of individual experts is often questioned, services like basic map-making stand out as assets of lasting value. The Directorate of Overseas Surveys has been virtually restricted to its present size for several years now, even though its forward programme of work is heavily booked up. Expansion should therefore be planned for and DOS services should be offered to a wider range of countries.

Research, Science, and Technology

The Department of Technical Co-operation's budget for supporting scientific research gives the appearance of being quite considerable, but much of it is fully committed in advance to subsidising overseas institutions which developing countries themselves cannot or will not finance on their own. What is needed is to have more free resources available each year so that a far more positive approach can be adopted in using British brains

and ingenuity to tackle some of the technical problems of developing countries.

Research is a field where one cannot simply wait for requests. Developing countries are often not in a position to identify problems on which work needs to be done, and cannot be expected to be familiar with the latest scientific developments and techniques. This freedom from the constraint of the request principle has disadvantages in that aid funds could be whittled away researching into matters of no practical value to developing countries. It is therefore important to ensure that activities are directed towards solving practical problems and that once found solutions are widely disseminated and applied. Subject to this qualification, the Treasury's red light pointed at DTC's research budget for the next two years should rapidly be turned to green.

The amount of work to be undertaken is immense. At present, for example, DTC's research budget has derisory allocations for economics, education and the social sciences. These are crucial to development and are worthy of much greater study. Research into birth control, which holds the key to the future of many developing countries, has as yet received no support from DTC. Even in the fields where money is given most generously, such as agriculture and medical research, there are scores of problems to which solutions could be found if resources were allocated to them. The geographical distribution of research support is equally skewed. To have achieved independence before 1957 seems to disqualify a country for research help. If expenditure by DTC reflects its research priorities, then research on problems of Indian development appears to have nil priority.

How should the effort be organised? The contacts which the existing research institutions supported from the DTC vote have with their parent bodies are too valuable to lose. There would be little point in DTC duplicating for overseas use all the facilities which were available for home-based research. The policy of housing the units specialising in developing countries' problems inside bigger home organisations is sensible. Nevertheless, it does lead to the research effort on behalf of developing countries seeming rather piecemeal, and the complete ineffectiveness of the Overseas Research Council in recent years has aggravated this problem. There might well be advantage in establishing a special scientific bureau staffed largely by scientists (including social scientists) and technologists which would be responsible for drawing together and co-ordinating the somewhat dispersed UK effort in this field. It would be a point of contact for those in developing countries with particular problems to solve, and would symbolise the importance Britain attaches to putting scientific and technological invention at the disposal of the poorer nations. It would be responsible, with the aid of professional outside advice, for determining priorities within the DTC research budget and for commissioning new research where this seemed desirable. In particular, it would give a sense of direction to the whole research effort, which at present seems lacking.

Within an expanded programme, more emphasis should be given to the application of research findings and of other existing knowledge. Solutions which for social, economic or technical reasons cannot be

applied on the ground are no help. More of the research work should be concerned with the day to day problems of ordinary farmers, peasants and factory workers overseas and should seek answers which can be applied by the rural populations. There should be no place in DTC's budget for research which is not directed to fairly short-term economic and social progress in developing countries. Work which cannot be related closely to these objectives should be financed from other funds. One example of the type of activity already sponsored by DTC which needs more support is the work being sponsored by the National Institute of Agricultural Engineering and the Tropical Products Institute on designing equipment for special use in developing countries; and further encouragement should be given to others, like the Electrical Research Association for example, engaged on similar work. There seems little doubt that British engineers acquainted with the nature of the problems could produce a whole range of cheap, unsophisticated but serviceable, technical devices specially made for use in under-developed areas.

Communications techniques deserve particularly close investigation. In development generally and technical assistance in particular, attention is largely concentrated on the modern sectors of developing societies and on the elites. But, as the Secretary for Technical Co-operation has recently said, 'the success of aid is not to be measured by the creation of impressive monuments but by whether it results in an improvement in the life of the vast masses of poverty-stricken people throughout the world. One cannot help coming to the conclusion that the top priorities should be concerned with the problems of population and rural development. It is on the land and in the villages that the great majority of the impoverished people of the world live and it is here that we can make the greatest impact of raising the life of men and women to something better than mere existence.' It is in the nature of things that this raising of the standards of the masses cannot be achieved through the types of technical assistance from advanced countries which involve moving people. Against the hundreds of millions of poverty-ridden people in the world, our experts and training are a drop in the ocean, even though for some small countries they are all-important. It therefore becomes urgent to devise those mechanisms for transferring technology, for transmitting new knowledge and skills, and for communicating a desire for progress, which are least costly in terms of skilled people. Formal education is necessary but is too slow a process on its own, and the expansion of teacher cadres too slow to meet current needs. If the millions of people in rural villages are to be reached, radio and television (including educational broadcasting), cheap literature, teaching machines, cheap transport, must have high priority. Research and development in this field and capital aid to back it up would perhaps, after birth control, provide the best hope for rapid transformation of backward areas.

Integration of Technical and Capital Aid

Although the various aspects of technical assistance have been discussed separately above, there is a real need to integrate the different forms of it and to combine technical with capital aid. Britain has perhaps been less

guilty than some other donors of 'scatter' in her technical assistance; but this is at least partly because of the limited extent of the assistance she provides on an *ad hoc* basis under Regional Programmes. Nevertheless, if more assistance is to be given through the Regional Programmes in future, as seems likely, there is some danger that a growing proportion of our assistance will be in response to large numbers of individual requests and it may be more difficult to ensure that these are part of a wider framework of action designed to promote development. One way of offsetting this is to work so far as possible through institutions at each end. The use of specialised organisations in Britain to supply advice, carry out surveys, etc., makes for cohesion and continuity. Similarly, the various forms of technical assistance can be used to build up institutions at the receiving end, as is already being done in the case of the Delhi Institute of Technology. In these cases, supply of personnel, training, equipment and materials and research can all be effectively combined. Sometimes help for an overseas institution can be channelled through an institutional partner in Britain and, so long as one avoids making partnerships of this type restrictive, this can prove an ideal arrangement. The co-operation between the Directorate of Overseas Surveys and overseas survey departments, between the Anti-Locust Research Centre and the East African Locust Control Organisation, or the individual links between British universities and overseas universities and colleges, are of this type and could well be extended elsewhere.

The need for integrated administration and operation of capital and technical aid is also a matter of high priority. It is true, but relatively unimportant, that some of the items Britain classifies as technical aid are so similar to some of those classified as financial aid that it is rather illogical to administer them separately. But there are far more compelling reasons for reform of the present system. They mostly arise in respect of capital aid and the need to ensure that capital aid projects are wisely chosen and sensibly managed. At present, arrangements seem hardly satisfactory in this respect and one can cite few examples of technical assistance in the form of feasibility studies or economic appraisals being used in connection with capital help. Similarly, cases of management being provided in connection with capital projects are few – chiefly because Britain has only rarely channelled her capital goods aid into 'projects' in the sense of complete installations. On the technical assistance side, there are probably fewer examples of technical assistance being ineffective through lack of capital follow up, and as pointed out in Chapter 1 a major reason for this is the form in which much technical assistance is given. Special arrangements have been made this year to ensure that Regional Programme experts can readily obtain small capital items needed in connection with their work.

Where the present system undoubtedly does miss out is its failure to use technical assistance in a positive way on a pre-investment basis to work out schemes which can be supported with financial help. These need not be schemes like a factory or hospital, but could be a development plan or arrangements to improve rural health, or science teaching in schools. Such an approach would, of course, involve a good deal more initiative on the part of Britain than has sometimes been thought proper in the past.

Also it would almost certainly involve setting up a unified aid administration, either as a separate Ministry or as an agency within a unified external affairs office, with a Minister of Overseas Development in charge.

Mobilising the National Effort

Technical assistance can play only a very limited role by the side of other channels in encouraging the flow of new ideas, discoveries and attitudes to developing countries. It will certainly be the case, for instance, that the international flow of knowledge and ideas through radio, television, books and journals, through British firms investing overseas, and students returning home from Britain, will do far more to bring the benefits of modern productive techniques to less developed countries than official programmes of technical assistance could ever do. Indeed, one of the main tasks of a Government body like DTC is to ensure that other channels for information, ideas and skills are kept as wide open as possible. This means that DTC must not confine itself to any narrow interpretation of its responsibilities in respect of Britain's contribution to overseas development. It should also be actively interested in ways in which the education system, professional institutions, international publishers, private industry and commerce, the voluntary societies, etc., contribute to overseas development.

Perhaps the most obvious area outside the formal technical assistance programme where greater DTC involvement is called for is in the general provision of education and training facilities in Britain. Arrangements for the 2,000-3,000 sponsored (under technical assistance) trainees are fairly well worked out, but these account for only a tiny proportion of the resources Britain devotes to helping developing countries with educational facilities. The Government should accept much greater responsibility than it does at present in relation to all the other overseas students and trainees. This would not involve new public interference in an entirely private domain. Many of these services are already carried out by the British Council - but on an inadequate scale. But what is coming to be increasingly recognised is that even private overseas students are extremely costly to the UK both in terms of finance and the places they occupy. We should be satisfied that these resources are being properly used and not wasted. First, through DTC or the British Council, the Government should strengthen advisory services both in the developing countries themselves for students before they come here, and in Britain once they have arrived. Second, it should be a national responsibility to provide, where necessary, orientation and English-language courses to those intending to take courses in our education system. Third, there should be a greatly expanded official programme to provide accommodation for overseas students - this will become a desperate problem in the post-Robbins era. Fourth, the public authorities should take the initiative in helping to find sufficient practical training opportunities in industry and the professions, especially where this is a necessary part of academic courses (like engineering, for example). Moreover, the DTC, the British Council, the Foreign Office and the Commonwealth Relations Office should assign responsibility to some central point for taking up with the Treasury, Department of

Education and Science, University Grants Committee, University Central Council for Admissions, etc., the needs and requirements of overseas students. Otherwise decisions unfavourable to overseas students, as for instance the UGC advice on the implementation of the Robbins Report or elements of discrimination against overseas students in the UCCA current admissions procedure, will not be properly contested.

DTC should also further develop its policy of building up non-governmental organisations and institutions as centres of help and advice for developing countries. Already, for instance, the City and Guilds of London Institute and the British Institute of Management are receiving grants to enable them to provide help to developing countries in the way of advice and training. Other organisations, whether universities, voluntary bodies, professional associations, nationalised industries, or even private commerce and industry should be encouraged to come forward with similar proposals for developing services of this kind. The advantages of institutionalising our help in this way are the creation of permanent centres which have a committed and continuing interest in, and contacts with, developing countries.

Technical Assistance and Industry

Relations with industry and commerce are of the greatest importance since it is here that such a high proportion of the brains, talent and ingenuity in the British labour force is located. It often seems as if the tie up between industry and technical assistance has not progressed much beyond the stage of exhortation to firms to release staff and to provide training without the provision of any very clear or tangible incentive for them to do these things. This sort of relationship must, of course, be put on a sound financial footing (whereby firms are paid for any services they are asked to render) if it is to be successful and on such a basis firms might be willing to provide more training places at home, and possibly overseas as well, and might increasingly loan their overseas staff to help with such tasks as lecturing at local universities, colleges and business schools.

There are also opportunities for an extended use of private firms in other ways including, as already discussed, consultancy services. Arrangements might be developed whereby industrial firms could be helped with the cost of pre-investment surveys overseas. British companies are often approached by overseas governments about the possibility of starting local manufacture. But the actual cost of investigation may be a deterrent. There might be merit in a scheme under which DTC would guarantee to pay part or all the costs of any investigations requested by developing countries which proved negative in the sense of the firm deciding not to follow up by investing. In cases where the guarantee was taken up, firms would be obliged to provide a full report setting out the facts and the reason for their negative conclusion. This report would become the property of the overseas government (as with a straightforward consultancy financed by DTC). If the firm itself decided to invest, it would be expected to bear the cost of the survey work and DTC's guarantee would not be taken up.

Potential for co-operation in technical assistance between Government and industry exists in other forms. Technical know-how may be provided by British firms not only through direct overseas investment but also through advice and know-how on a royalty basis; and there may be occasions where, on request from overseas, finance for this could appropriately come from DTC. It may be that British industry will look for support and encouragement from the Government in any scheme it may develop to emulate the United States with its new International Executive Service Corps for businessmen. A further possibility is to try and marry up the brains and skill in the research and development departments of British engineering, chemical and other firms with the knowledge of local problems available to DTC, so as to push forward investigation of technical problems in developing countries.

Efforts to harness the potential of voluntary organisations for the benefit of developing countries should also be increased. This need not, as the example of the volunteer-sending bodies has shown, involve jeopardising their independence. There are many ways in which Government is able to help the voluntary organisations working in the development field, not only with financial support, but with facilities, technical advice, centralised services, information and so on. This can be a fruitful partnership for non-governmental organisations are not only able to operate overseas in circumstances where governments find it difficult, but also have 'grass roots' contact with people in Britain of a sort that Government itself rarely has. With their help, DTC can project a much clearer image of what it is trying to do and can mobilise public support and effort in the technical assistance field.

The Need for Expansion

The task facing the Department of Technical Co-operation and others concerned in the same field is indeed a complex one. Britain is a comparatively rich country with a large educated population and her people are well-endowed with skills, brains and ingenuity. Her way of life is based on a complex technology which has taken centuries to build up. The problem is how to transfer and adapt such parts of this knowledge and of these skills as are appropriate to developing countries in the shortest time possible; and this will depend for success on attitudes and motivation in the developing countries themselves. In the contemporary world, two of the oldest solutions to the transfer of superior technologies are virtually denied to modern man. These were mass migration and conquest. Today we have to devise new ways of helping overseas countries to close the scientific and technological gap and nobody really knows how this should be done. Stated thus, the problem assumes frightening proportions.

We are already doing much, but it is nowhere near enough and we could do far more. In this chapter a few ideas as to how have been put forward. Even these suggestions are limited in scope and others may have bigger, sounder and better ones. Clearly to implement even a few of them would need a far bigger technical assistance budget than we have at present. This may shock people who are conscious that Britain's technical

assistance budget has already gone up six times since 1957/8, but they should reflect that it is not bringing the developing countries six times as much knowledge and technical skills as they had before. There are now **fewer** British technical personnel overseas under official arrangements than there were seven years ago. This higher spending has not, then, meant the transfer of any more skills overall, though there have, of course, been striking increases in some individual programmes. The real measure of technical assistance is not so much the money one spends as the number and quality of people who can be found for service abroad and of training places made available, and the rate at which new and valuable technical information and discoveries are provided to developing countries. This is a matter of sheer hard work in the recruiting and training field and in building up institutions and channels for providing help. But whilst our ability to recruit more personnel, to train more people from developing countries, or to commission more research, consultancy and development work are more important in technical assistance than simply voting funds, none of these things can be done without money. Only a really substantial increase in the budgetary allocation for technical assistance will enable Britain to respond in an appropriate manner to the challenge of the second half of the Development Decade.

Appendices

- I British Technical Assistance: Allocation by Countries 1961-3**
- II British Technical Assistance through DTC and its Predecessors 1959-65**
- III DTC Advisers and Advisory Committees**
- IV Some Courses in Britain specially designed for Overseas Students and Trainees**
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Appendix I

British Technical Assistance: Allocation by Countries 1961-3*

Country	Calendar Years			£'000
	1961	1962	1963	
Europe	123.1	244.1	397.9	
Cyprus	—	12.0	33.2	
Gibraltar	3.5	7.7	10.6	
Malta	119.6	93.0	67.1	
Turkey	n.a.	131.4	287.0	
Africa (North of Sahara)	—	2.0	3.1	
Algeria	—	1.9	2.9	
Libya	—	0.1	—	
Morocco	—	—	0.2	
Tunisia	—	—	—	
Africa (South of Sahara)	9,630.3	14,498.1	15,227.3	
Basutoland	}	66.7	330.6	240.1
Bechuanaland				
Swaziland				
Burundi	—	—	1.1	
Congo (Brazzaville)	0.1	—	0.3	
Cameroon	—	4.2	17.0	
Ethiopia and Eritrea	1.6	2.3	5.2	
Northern Rhodesia (Zambia)	}	81.4	1,270.3	1,825.6
Nyasaland (Malawi)				
Southern Rhodesia				
Gambia	63.3	79.8	168.2	
Ghana	82.2	159.9	222.4	
Guinea	5.0	9.9	1.8	
Ivory Coast	1.0	3.5	4.7	
East Africa (Common Services)	2,081.9	4,156.8	3,124.0	
Kenya	2,753.5	2,062.8	3,960.1	
Tanganyika	2,686.0	2,470.9	2,569.3	
Uganda	1,480.5	1,907.1	2,114.0	
Liberia	2.4	5.1	9.0	
Mali	0.8	3.3	2.2	
Mauritania	—	—	0.3	
Mauritius	2.6	62.5	90.8	
Nigeria**	127.5	1,709.3	495.9	
Ruanda	—	—	0.8	
Senegal	—	1.9	0.8	
Seychelles	20.2	26.1	47.6	
Sierra Leone	46.3	108.1	111.3	
Somalia	0.2	2.6	11.3	
St. Helena	0.9	18.3	12.1	
Sudan	3.9	2.8	4.5	
Togo	0.4	8.5	3.0	
Zanzibar	121.9	91.5	183.9	

Country	Calendar Years			£'000
	1961	1962	1963	
America (North and Central)	416.4	664.9	713.5	
Bahamas	1.3	10.5	7.6	
Barbados	37.9	65.7	52.2	
Cayman Islands	—	4.6	2.9	
Honduras (Br.)	32.7	46.5	91.1	
Jamaica	3.7	90.8	87.7	
Panama	—	—	0.3	
Trinidad and Tobago	10.6	57.4	102.5	
Turks and Caicos	1.0	2.2	6.1	
Antigua, St. Kitts Nevis, Montserrat and Virgin Islands	19.6	33.4	54.8	
Grenada, St. Lucia, St. Vincent and Dominica	43.6	66.4	83.7	
West Indies (Federal and General)	266.0	287.4	224.6	
America (South)	60.5	80.8	94.6	
Argentina	—	—	2.6	
Bolivia	—	0.6	15.1	
Brazil	—	—	1.2	
Chile	—	—	—	
Falkland Islands	3.7	6.3	6.6	
Guiana (Br.)	56.8	73.9	67.6	
Peru	—	—	1.1	
Uruguay	—	—	0.4	
Venezuela	—	—	—	
Asia (Middle East)	195.7	527.0	787.5	
Aden	130.2	258.8	388.9	
Iran	65.5	263.7	344.5	
Iraq	—	1.3	2.5	
Israel	—	0.5	—	
Jordan	—	1.7	33.0	
Lebanon	—	0.2	6.1	
Syrian Arab Republic	—	0.8	12.5	
Asia (South)	949.0	1,402.3	1,726.8	
Afghanistan	—	—	3.1	
Burma	75.6	114.8	96.2	
Ceylon	76.3	133.9	138.6	
India	382.6	572.0	605.8	
Nepal	14.6	31.7	38.7	
Pakistan	399.9	549.9	844.4	
Asia (Far East)	717.7	1,196.8	1,815.3	
Brunei	—	—	0.5	
Sabah	163.0	369.9	519.9	
Sarawak	213.0	115.4	650.1	
Cambodia	7.1	15.0	28.2	
Hong Kong	3.1	33.4	24.5	
Indonesia	64.5	63.9	54.5	
Korea (South)	—	0.6	9.2	
Laos	16.2	41.1	46.7	
Malaya (Federation)	104.1	178.7	254.5	
Philippines	45.3	65.6	60.0	
Singapore	1.1	118.9	17.4	
Thailand	79.8	136.7	123.4	
Vietnam	20.5	57.6	26.4	

Country	Calendar Years		£'000
	1961	1962	1963
Oceania	189.7	633.2	856.8
Fiji Islands	30.7	338.4	402.3
Gilbert and Ellice Islands	17.1	77.2	62.9
New Hebrides (Br. Fr.)	4.9	25.5	70.0
Pitcairn	0.3	0.1	—
Solomon Islands	136.7	192.0	320.9
Tonga	—	—	0.7
	1960	1961	1962
Other Bilateral (Net)	3,145.8	2,525.2	2,574.9
Total Bilateral (Net)	15,428.0	21,786.8	24,199.2
Multilateral	2,874.5	2,889.7	3,939.7
Grand Total	18,302.5	24,676.5	28,138.9

n.a. not available

* This table includes the whole of the Department of Technical Co-operation's budget except for (1) administrative costs; (2) capital aid to higher education in the colonies under CD & W; (3) loans to Nigeria to help cover the cost of compensating British officers. In addition to DTC expenditure, it includes outlays on training in the country of origin under CD & W (Colonial Office vote) of £466,000 1961, £529,600 1962, and £562,100 in 1963.

** The Nigerian figures are distorted by advances and grants, or reimbursements by Nigeria for these, to Nigerian Special List Officers (see Chs. II and V). Without these, the figures would be (£'000) 256.3 in 1961, 658.3 in 1962, 764.1 in 1963.

Note: The wild fluctuations in totals from year to year for some individual countries are due partly to accounting technicalities, one of these being that the figures in this table are on a calendar year basis (prepared for OECD purposes) whereas the UK Departments of Government operate on a financial year running from April to March. In the case of countries receiving help under the Overseas Service Aid Scheme, the totals in some years are unnaturally swollen by compensation payments to retiring civil servants. In a few cases, countries eligible for OSAS since April 1961 did not receive any actual payments from Britain until 1962.

Source: DTC (not previously published)

Appendix II

UK Technical Assistance expenditure through the Department of Technical Co-operation and its predecessors

<i>Head or Sub-Head in Civil Estimates (Class II Vote 9) 1964/5</i>	<i>Description of Programme</i>	<i>Expenditures</i>				<i>Final Estimates of Expenditure</i>	<i>Original Estimates</i>	<i>General Remarks referenced as below at end of Appendix</i>
		1959/60	1960/61	1961/62	1962/63	1963/64	1964/65	
		£	£	£	£	£	£	
Headquarters' Salaries and Expenses								
A	Salaries	n.a.	n.a.	557,518*	955,260	1,060,605	1,194,000	1
B	General Administrative Expenses	n.a.	n.a.	77,860*	159,473	215,000	258,295	2
Special Units								
C1	Directorate of Overseas Surveys	597,740	763,876	624,206	496,372	12,010	15,000	3
C2	Overseas Geological Surveys	240,349	201,714	208,718	209,356	263,000	290,000	4
C3	Anti-Locust Research Centre	60,954	62,622	77,465	113,049	247,000	141,000	5
Multilateral Assistance								
D1	United Nations (Grants in Aid)	800,000	1,071,500	1,071,500	1,071,500	1,339,375	1,339,375	6
	1 Expanded Programme of Technical Assistance	357,143	1,785,800	1,785,800	1,785,800	2,232,250	2,232,250	7
	2 Special Fund							

<i>Head or Sub-Head in Civil Estimates (Class II Vote 9) 1964/5</i>	<i>Description of Programme</i>	<i>Expenditures</i>				<i>Final Estimates of Expenditure</i>	<i>Original Estimates</i>	<i>General Remarks referenced as below at end of Appendix</i>
		1959/60	1960/61	1961/62	1962/63	1963/64	1964/65	
		£	£	£	£	£	£	
D2	UN Children's Fund (UNICEF) (Grant in Aid)	235,000	335,000	335,000	335,000	335,000	335,000	8
E	Subscriptions to International Organisations Colombo Plan Bureau	2,250	1,875	2,081	1,688	1,900	2,315	9
F1	Bilateral Assistance—Regional Programmes South and South-East: Technical Assistance 1 Technical Assistance to Colombo Plan Countries	1,229,993	1,324,457	1,472,938	1,715,628	2,235,000	2,900,000	10 11
F2	2 Technical Assistance to organisations sponsored by SEATO	{				20,000	10,000	12
F3	SEATO: Graduate School of Engineering SEATO: Cholera Research Laboratory					11,915	19,736	
		{				17,500	30,000	
		{				12,500	10,000	

G	Africa: Technical Assistance 1 Commonwealth (SCAAP)	59,469	161,470	556,931	1,114,722	2,281,000	2,870,000	13
H	2 Non-Commonwealth	10,329	23,514	31,201	49,603	215,000	300,000	14
H1	Middle East Countries							
H2	1 Economic Assistance to CENTO countries	411,612	449,956	724,965	768,276	823,500	850,000	15
H3	Central Treaty Organisation: Institute of Nuclear Science (Grant in Aid)	68,610	64,629	63,539		20,000	22,000	
H4	CENTO: Multilateral Technical Assistance Fund (Grant in Aid) CENTO: Agricultural Machinery and Soil Conservation Training Centre (Grant in Aid)	17,837	17,860	—	112,760	17,860	25,790	
H1	2 Technical Assistance to non-CENTO countries in the Middle East	—	—	31,186		6,500	6,250	
I	Latin America: Technical Assistance	—	—	—		125,000	200,000	
K	Other Countries: (excl. F, G, H, I, J) Technical Assistance	—	—	—	49,182	150,000	530,000	
J	Commonwealth Caribbean: Technical Assistance	—	—	—		125,000	167,000	16
L	Small Capital Grants	—	—	—	25,912	337,000	366,000	17
		—	—	—	—	—	150,000	18

<i>Head or Sub-Head in Civil Estimates (Class II Vote 9) 1964/5</i>	<i>Description of Programme</i>	<i>Expenditures</i>				<i>Final Estimates of Expenditure</i>	<i>Original Estimates</i>	<i>General Remarks referenced as below at end of Appendix</i>
		1959/60	1960/61	1961/62	1962/63	1963/64	1964/65	
		£	£	£	£	£	£	£
Bilateral Assistance— Functional								
M	Commonwealth Educational Co-operation	2,750	333,672	666,719	918,286	1,429,000	1,953,000	19
N	Colonial Development and Welfare Schemes	1,867,033	2,467,300	2,883,908	1,820,652	1,400,000	1,290,000	20
O	Research	1,422,238	1,302,014	1,382,227	1,637,422	1,961,000	1,961,000	21
P1	Overseas Service Aid Scheme	—	—	13,067,823	12,458,593	15,385,000	14,716,000	22
P2	H.M. Overseas Civil Service (Federation of Nigeria) Pensions	—	395,397	1,635,055	1,799,179	1,700,000	1,590,000	23
P3	H.M. Overseas Civil Service (Federation of Nigeria) Loans	1,198,434	1,691,792	335,072	303,932	200,000	120,000	24
P4	H.M. Overseas Civil Service: Miscellaneous Expenses	8,569	244,175	3,574	4,321	10,000	15,000	25
P5	H.M. Overseas Civil Service (Federation of Nigeria) Resettlement Grants	—	—	—	—	47,000	20,000	26

P6	Tropical Pesticides Research Unit (Arusha) Compensation	—	—	—	—	27,200	16,000	27
P7	West African Research Organisations: Compensation, etc.	—	—	—	—	139,940	45,000	28
Q	Other Home-based Activities:							
1	Inter-University Council	(25,234)**	(26,127)**	(41,033)†**	{			29
2	Council for Technical Education and Training for Overseas Countries	(14,080)**	(13,789)**	(17,100)†**	{			30
3	Service Overseas by Volunteers	—	—	—	{			31
4	Other activities	—	—	—	{			32
					76,454	24,000	32,500	
						76,000	137,500	
						120,000	184,500	
	Minor Services							33
R1	Bureau of Hygiene and Tropical Diseases (Grant in Aid)	750	750	750	750	750	750	34
R2	Faculty of Agriculture, University of the West Indies (Grant in Aid)	35,000	35,000	35,000	35,000	49,250	52,000	35
R3	Hong Kong University	300	300	300	300	300	300	36
R4	National Institute of Oceanography	10,000	10,000	10,000	10,000	10,000	10,000	37
R5	International African Institute (Grant in Aid)	1,500	1,500	1,500	1,500	1,500	1,500	38
R6	Desert Locust Control	77,500	77,500	27,497	171,605	46,550	175	39

R7	British Institute of Management (Grant in Aid)	—	—	—	5,000	5,000	40
R8	Commonwealth Forestry Institute, Oxford (Grant in Aid)	—	—	—	8,000	8,000	41
R9	City and Guilds of London Institute (Grant in Aid)	—	—	—	—	10,000	42
Items from Previous Years not Repeated in 1964/65							
	Commission for Technical Co-operation in Africa	(20,348)	(30,401)	n.s.	13,500	—	43
	Central Fund of FAMA	500	—	—	10	—	
	Gross Totals	(7,715,860)	(12,835,588)	(19,350,243)*	34,792,000	36,479,000	
	Deduct: Appropriations in Aid (i.e., receipts)	n.s.	n.s.	(521,419)*	1,696,000	1,751,000	44
	Net Totals	—	—	(18,828,824)*	33,092,000	34,728,000	

* DTC element only (24 July 1961–31 March 1962).

** Bracketed items were financed from CID & W up to March 1963 and are therefore included in totals shown against sub-head 'N'.

† Estimates only, not actual expenditures.

n.a. — not available.

n.s. — not specified.

Sources: Civil Appropriation Accounts (Class II) 1959/60, 1960/61, 1961/2, 1962/3
Civil Estimates (Class II) 1963/4, 1964/5.

Note: Before DTC was set up the items under its vote came under Foreign Office, Commonwealth Relations Office and Colonial Office, according to the status of the recipient of technical assistance. Some items (e.g. Commonwealth Educational Co-operation) fell on the votes of both CRO and CO. In 1961/2 to arrive at expenditure for a full year, one must search not only the DTC accounts for the period 24 July 1961–31 March 1962, but also the accounts of the three other above-named departments for expenditures in the period 1 April–23 July 1961.

1. Not officially counted as aid. Includes salaries of Minister, home staff, overseas staff (Middle East Development Division).

2. Not officially counted as aid. Mostly travel at home and overseas and cost of post office services. *Excludes* £376,000 of expenditure borne on the votes of the 'Common Services' Departments to cover maintenance, rent, rates, stationery and superannuation.

3. The erratic variation in these figures is due almost entirely to accounting procedures which it is unnecessary to go into in detail here. The Directorate of Overseas Surveys was originally financed entirely from Colonial Development and Welfare Funds. Its work is now financed almost entirely from Regional Programme Funds. The important comparisons are gross expenditures of DOS, which rose from £705,000 in 1959/60 and £932,000 in 1960/61 to £1,079,000 in 1963/64.

4. Originally financed from CD & W funds and restricted to colonies. Accounted for differently from DOS, above, because its work is less easily chargeable to individual countries. This series of figures underestimates expenditure in earlier years on overseas geological surveys, since some of this was 'concealed' in CD & W expenditure.

5. Originally financed from CD & W. High estimate in 1963/64 due to capital cost of lease for new accommodation.

6. UK's contribution to the EPTA was raised by a quarter from \$3m to \$3½m in 1963.

7. First contributions to the Special Fund were made in 1960. UK raised its contribution from \$5m to \$6.25m in 1963.

8. UK has contributed over £3m in total since 1946.

9. Not counted as aid.

10. In 1963/64 colonies ceased to draw their technical assistance from Britain out of CD & W and were brought within the scope of Regional Programmes. This accounts for the rather steep rise in some programmes in 1963/64.

11. During the period 1956-63, the UK had a Colombo Plan technical assistance commitment of £9m over 7 years. A further £5m was committed for the three financial years 1963-66, but present rates of expenditure are in excess of this.

12. Starting in 1960/61, Britain has offered up to £40,000 a year in technical assistance under SEATO, and £50,000 a year in 1963/64 and 1964/65. The aid to the Graduate School of Engineering and the Cholera Research Laboratory is really a straightforward financial subsidy.

13. Until 1963/64 it was only Commonwealth African countries who needed technical assistance provision separate from CD & W. Ghana alone is included in these totals until December 1960; then Ghana and Nigeria until April 1961; Ghana, Nigeria and Sierra Leone until December 1961; Ghana, Nigeria, Sierra Leone and Tanganyika until October 1962 when Uganda became independent. From 1 April 1963 all Commonwealth African independent countries and colonies are included in this heading.

14. The large increase in 1963/64 and again in 1964/65 is not due to any special cause but results from the steady expansion of the programme. Much of the expenditure is in Sudan, Ethiopia and the Cameroons.

15. In January 1959 Britain pledged £850,000 a year in economic assistance to CENTO developing countries (Turkey, Iran and Pakistan).

£450,000 of this is capital assistance for joint communications projects and £400,000 for technical assistance. The UK has announced it will raise its annual commitment to £900,000 in 1964 and £1m in 1965. (It is intended that the £1m should cover not H1 only, but also H2, H3 and H4.)

16. 'Other Countries' basically consist of dependent territories, mainly in the Pacific and Indian Oceans, not covered by any of the genuinely regional technical assistance programmes.

17. Expenditure in 1962/63 was incurred in Jamaica and Trinidad between August 1962, when they became independent, and end of March 1963. In 1963/64 and 1964/65 British colonies in the Caribbean are also included in the totals.

18. A new item to provide small amounts of capital (for buildings, etc.) required in support of certain Regional Programme projects.

19. Parliament voted £6m over the first five years (up to 31 March 1965) for Commonwealth Educational Co-operation. Apart from Commonwealth Scholarships awarded to Canada, Australia and New Zealand, all the funds are for developing countries. Apart from the sums shown here, the £6m also covers subscriptions to the Commonwealth Education Liaison Unit of £33,537 (1960-65). These subscriptions are not counted as aid, and are on the CRO vote. Certain small sums in connection with the exchange of teachers are also met from the Ministry of Education and Scottish Education Department votes.

20. This is the only item on DTC's vote confined to colonies alone. The fall in amounts in recent years is due to independence of former colonies. In 1963/64 and 1964/65, the money voted was entirely capital aid for universities and higher technical colleges in the colonies. The amounts in earlier years include technical assistance items now provided under Regional Programmes.

21. This was originally part of Colonial Development and Welfare funds. In 1962/63, a change was made to make possible research expenditure for independent countries.

22. Despite a general long-term tendency for payments on this sub-head to fall, the movement is irregular because the volume of compensation payments depends largely on the the timing of independence.

23. These are *gross* figures. In fact, reimbursement is received from Nigeria each year and the *net* outlay by UK over the five years will only have been about £665,000.

24. The only loan item on DTC's vote. Nigeria repays these loans, and repayments of £1.6m have been made in the past three years. The loans are interest-free and are to help the Nigerian Government to make advances of compensation to certain British civil servants in Nigeria.

25. Part of this expenditure is repayable.

26. Some HMOCS officers were appointed to Nigeria on permanent and pensionable terms after the final date for entry on to lists for compensation eligibility had passed. The expectation at that time of careers being available for these people has not in the event been borne out, both because of more rapid Nigerianisation and because of contracting opportunities elsewhere overseas. HMG has thus agreed to pay them resettlement grants, though not on the same scale as full compensation.

27. The Tropical Pesticides Research Institute, Arusha (Tanganyika), was formerly administered by the Government of Tanganyika, even though it was regarded as an East African organisation. Later it was transferred to the East African Common Service Organisation. These peculiar historical circumstances make it a special case—otherwise its compensation arrangements would have fallen under OSAS.

28. On 1 October 1960 responsibility for conditions of service of pensionable overseas officers serving with West African research organisations was transferred to West African governments. These governments felt unable to pay compensation to British officials being replaced by local nationals. The British Government has therefore accepted the obligation to pay compensation direct to the officials concerned and is meeting the full cost. (This is the only instance where Britain herself has assumed the obligation of compensating her own people. Normally she has insisted that this is the overseas authorities' responsibility.)

29. The Inter-University Council was formerly financed from CD & W. The support is for its general operational expenses.

30. Formerly supported from CD & W funds and known then as Council for Overseas Colleges of Arts, Science and Technology.

31. This item pays the Government share of (1) school leavers and apprentice volunteers, (2) graduate volunteers going to foreign countries. Graduates going to Commonwealth countries are met from sub-head M and will cost an additional £161,000 in 1964/65, bringing the Government total contribution to the volunteer schemes to £288,500 for 1964/65.

32. In 1964/65 these 'other home-based activities' fell into three main groups: (1) Grants to universities and other institutions to cover overheads of training courses for overseas trainees, and orientation or training for British experts; (2) Financing posts at British institutions, the occupants of which are to be available for secondment overseas on technical assistance work when requested; (3) Support of conferences.

About 25 separate payments are envisaged under this heading, of which the biggest, accounting for a quarter of the total vote, is to the London and Liverpool Schools of Tropical Medicine to finance posts there.

33. In some cases these 'minor services' are of the same kind as 'other activities' listed above. However, all grants in aid of general administrative expenditure (rather than specific services) have, under British constitutional procedure, to be listed separately.

34. Grant in aid of the expenses of the Bureau.

35. This Institution was formerly known as the Imperial College of Tropical Agriculture, Trinidad. For a long time it had support from UK funds, as it offered training facilities in tropical agriculture to the Commonwealth as a whole (including British agricultural officers joining the Colonial Service). The grant ran at £35,000 a year for several years up to July 1963, when a figure of £52,000 p.a. was agreed up to July 1966.

36. Provision for scholarships tenable by British subjects.

37. The Institute is assisted from the Defence (Navy) vote. The Colonial Office used to make a contribution in respect of the colonial interest in the Institute's work, and under DTC this has been continued.

38. Grant in aid of the cost of maintenance.

39. The 1964/65 sum is HMG's contribution to the UN Special Fund

Desert Locust Project on behalf of the colonial territories concerned up to 31 December 1964. Previously the UK was in addition contributing to the Desert Locust Control Organisation for Eastern Africa and to the Desert Locust Survey in East Africa (which accounts for the large payment in 1962/63).

40. Grant towards the cost of organising management training programmes for overseas countries.

41. The Government will contribute £8,000 p.a. up to 31 March 1969 for aid to tropical forestry. The Institute also receives modest support from research funds (sub-head O).

42. Grant towards costs of Institute's services on behalf of developing countries. These are rendered in the field of technical education and training and involve running examinations, advising on syllabi, etc.

43. Subscriptions to the CCTA ceased after 1963 since it was generally agreed that the constitution be revised and that Britain, France and Belgium should withdraw from membership. With regard to the FAMA Central Fund, although a nominal £10 was put in the Estimates each year until 1963/64 in fact no contributions proved necessary after 1959/60. Britain has, however, contributed to the joint projects organised by FAMA for CCTA but the money for these has been drawn from bilateral technical assistance funds (sub-head G2). Following Britain's withdrawal from CCTA, no further contributions to the Central Fund of FAMA will be made.

44. Mostly recoveries from Nigeria in respect of pensions, etc. 1964/65 appropriations in aid are expected to include £1,534,000 on this account; £20,000 in respect of sales and receipts by Special Units; £179,000 in contributions from recipient governments in respect of experts, consultancies and surveys; £18,000 in miscellaneous receipts. *In addition* (to the £1,751,000) £450,000 more will be paid by Nigeria to the Exchequer in respect of loans (sub-head P3). This is not deducted here, purely for Government accounting reasons.

Appendix III—DTC Advisers and Advisory Committees

Advisers

- 1 Advisers based at the Department of Technical Co-operation, Eland House, London, SW1**
Total 28 (or whom 5 part-time)

Education

Education Adviser
Deputy Education Adviser
Woman Education Adviser
Assistant Education Adviser
Adviser on Technical Education (part-time)
Assistant Adviser on Technical Education (vacant at present)

Medicine

Medical Adviser
Deputy Medical Adviser
Nursing Adviser

Natural Resources

Agricultural Adviser
Deputy Agricultural Adviser
Animal Health Adviser
Fisheries Adviser (vacant at present)
Forestry Adviser
Land Drainage and Irrigation Adviser (part-time)

Research

Agricultural Research Adviser
Adviser on Medical Research

Other

Adviser on Co-operatives (part-time)
Adviser on Engineering Appointments
Adviser on Films (part-time)
Labour Adviser
Assistant Labour Adviser
Land Tenure Adviser
Local Government Adviser
Adviser on Marketing (part-time)
Scientific Advisers (2)
Adviser on Social Development

2 Advisers based on the Department of Technical Co-operation's Special Units

Total 3

Geological Adviser and Director of Overseas Geological Surveys
 Surveys Adviser and Director of Overseas (Geodetic and Topographic) Surveys
 Anti-Locust Research Adviser and Director of the Anti-Locust Research Centre

3 Advisers at the Middle East Development Division, Beirut

Total 6

Adviser on Agriculture
 Veterinary and Animal Husbandry Adviser
 Forestry and Soil Conservation Adviser
 Engineering and Industrial Advisers (2)
 Statistical and Economic Adviser

4 Subjects covered by 'Outside' Advisers in Britain based on other Organisations and Establishments

<i>Subject</i>				<i>Organisation</i>
Agricultural Engineering	...			Overseas Liaison Unit,* National Institute of Agricultural Engineering
Building Research and Housing				Tropical Division,* Building Research Station
Engineering	Crown Agents
Pests	Tropical Stored Products Centre*
Pesticides	Tropical Pesticides Research Headquarters Organisation*
Police Training...	Colonial Office
Roads	Tropical Section,* Road Research Laboratory
Tropical Products	Tropical Products Institute*
Tropical Soils	Rothamsted Experimental Station
Tuberculosis	Ministry of Health

* In these cases, the establishments or posts concerned are ones financed by the Department of Technical Co-operation.

Advisory Councils and Committees

Education and Training

Advisory Panel on Education
 Colonial University Grants Advisory Committee
 Committee for University Secondment
 Council for Technical Education and Training for Overseas Countries (TETOC)
 Council for Training in Public Administration
 Inter-University Council for Higher Education Overseas (IUC)

Medicine

- Medical Advisory Committee
 - Postgraduate Medical Education Panel
 - Undergraduate Medical Education Panel
 - Overseas Visitors and Consultants Panel
 - Recruitment of Medical Staff Panel
 - Nursing Services Panel
 - Ancillary Medical Services and Medical Equipment Panel
 - Preventive Medicine and Pathology Panel
 - Dental Services Panel

Natural Resources

- Advisory Committee on Agriculture, Animal Health, Forestry and Fisheries
 - Advisory Panel for Agriculture
 - Advisory Panel for Animal Health
 - Advisory Panel for Forestry
 - Advisory Panel for Fisheries

Research

- Advisory Committee on Anti-Locust Research
- Road Research Board Committee on Overseas Road Research
- Tropical Building Advisory Committee
- Tropical Medicine Research Board
- Tropical Pesticides Research Committee
- Tropical Products Institute Committee
- Trypanosomiasis Panel

Other

- Advisory Committee on Co-operatives
- British Academy Archaeological and Historical Advisory Committee for Overseas Co-operation
- Local Government Advisory Panel

Note: Other councils and committees mentioned in the text are not appointed specifically to advise the Secretary for Technical Co-operation, and are thus excluded from the above list. Examples include the Overseas Research Council (under the Privy Council) and the Council for Volunteers Overseas (to advise voluntary bodies).

Appendix IV

Some Courses in Britain Specially Designed for Overseas Students and Trainees

Note: Entry to Courses 1-8 listed below is generally through the Department of Technical Co-operation. Courses 9-55 are taken from the British Council's 'Training in Britain: Schedule of Special Courses Designed for Overseas Candidates 1965/6', and they are attended by, amongst others, those under DTC and British Council schemes.

	<i>Place</i>	<i>Name of Course</i>	<i>Length</i>
1	Cambridge University	Cambridge Course on Development	1 academic year
2	Oxford University	Overseas Course in Government and Development	1 academic year
3	London University	Special Course for Administrators Overseas	1 academic year
4	Department of Technical Co-operation	Local Government Officers Course	4 months
5	School of Military Survey, Newbury	Survey Course	1 year
6	Police Training College, Hendon	Police Course	4½ months
7	British Broadcasting Corporation	Overseas Broadcasters Course	3 months
8	Department of Technical Co-operation	Government Legal Officers Course	3 months
9	Birmingham University Institute of Local Studies	Local Administration	4 months
10	Birmingham University Department of Education	Course for Heads of Schools and Administrators	(twice yearly)
11	Bristol University Institute of Education	Course for Teacher Trainees	1 academic year
12	Bristol University Institute of Education	Education for Experienced Teachers	1 academic year
13	Leeds University Institute of Education	Professional Certificate (or Graduate Professional Certificate) for Overseas Teachers: (1) Head Teachers' Course (2) Administrators' Course	1 academic year
14	Leeds University	Development Administration	9 months
15	Leeds University	Diploma for Overseas Teachers	1 academic year
16	Leeds University	Certificate (or Graduate Certificate) in the Teaching of English as a second language	1 academic year
17	London School of Economics	Development Administration (Diploma)	1 academic year
18	London School of Economics	Foreign Service Course	8 months
19	London School of Economics	Social Administration for Graduates (One-year Diploma)	8 months
20	London School of Economics	Social Administration for Non-Graduates (Two-year Diploma)	2 years
21	London University Institute of Education	Community Development and Extension Work	1 calendar year

22	London University	Institute of Education	...	Diploma in Theory and Practice of Audio-Visual Aids	...	8 months
23	London University	Institute of Education	...	Writing, Production and Distribution of Textbooks	...	1 academic year
24	Manchester University	Department of Government	...	Diploma in Public Administration	...	1 calendar year
25	Manchester University	Economic Development (Two-year Diploma)	...	8 months
26	Manchester University	Adult Education (Diploma of Postgraduate Status)	...	8 months
27	Reading University	Institute of Education	...	Educational Administration (One-year Diploma)	...	10 months
28	Reading University	Institute of Education	...	Education in a Rural Environment (One-year Diploma)	...	10 months
29	Reading University	Institute of Education	...	Educational Guidance	...	1 academic year
30	University College, Swansea	Social Policy and Administration (Diploma)	...	11 months
31	University College, Swansea	Social Development and Social Administration (Two-year Diploma)	...	2 years
32	International Hospital Federation	Hospital Administration	...	3 months
33	Architectural Association School of Architecture	Tropical Architecture	...	1 academic year
34	Architectural Association School of Architecture	Educational Building in the Tropics	...	6 months
35	School of Librarianship, North Western Polytechnic	Librarianship	...	3 years
36	City of Westminster College, London	Hospital Administration (Diploma)	...	(non-graduates) 2 years
37	Ministry of Labour	Industrial Relations for Trade Unionists	...	3 courses, of 3 months each, annually
38	Ministry of Labour	Labour Administration	...	3 courses, of 3 months each, annually
39	Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food	Technology of Stored Products' Entomology and the Control of Rodents	...	3 months
40	Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food	Control of Rodent Pests	...	2 courses, of 2-12 days, annually
41	Central Office of Information	Organisation of Government Information Services	...	3 months (twice yearly)
42	British Council	Taxation	...	3 months every other year
43	British Council	Central Government Finance	...	2 months
44	British Council	Problems of Economic Development	...	3 months
45	British Council	Government Accounting and Auditing	...	3 months every other year
46	British Council	Bookselling and Book Distribution	...	3 months
47	British Council	Stagecraft and Acting	...	3 months

	<i>Place</i>	<i>Name of Course</i>			<i>Length</i>
48	Industrial Welfare Society	Personnel Management and Industrial Relations	...	3 months
49	Royal Institute of Public Administration	Practice of Administration in Central Government	...	2 months
50	Royal Institute of Public Administration	Administrative Management	...	4 weeks
51	Pitmans College	Course for Overseas Teachers and Administrators of Commercial Education	...	15 months
52	Messrs. Fisons Pest Control Ltd.	Principles and Methods of Crop Protection	...	5 months
53	Messrs. Fisons Pest Control Ltd.	Principles and Practice of Crop Protection	...	8-9 days
54	Overseas Film Training School	Film Production	...	1 calendar year
55	Overseas Film Training School	Sound Recording, Maintenance of Equipment, Laboratory Processing, Editing	...	6 months
56	Thomson Foundation...	General Television Courses	...	3 per annum, each lasting 11 weeks
57	Thomson Foundation...	General Course for Journalists	...	3 per annum, each lasting 12 weeks

Appendix V

Official Publications dealing with British Technical Assistance

1 General White Papers on Aid

- Cmnd. 237 July 1957 (1s.) The United Kingdom's Role in Commonwealth Development
 Cmnd. 974 March 1960 (1s.) Assistance from the United Kingdom for Overseas Development
 Cmnd. 2147 September 1963 (3s.) Aid to Developing Countries

2 Publications on Technical Assistance Programmes as a Whole

- Cmnd. 1308 March 1961 (2s.) Technical Assistance from the United Kingdom for Overseas Development
 Cmnd. 1698 April 1962 (1s. 3d.) Technical Co-operation: A Progress Report by the New Department
 Tenth Report of the Select Committee on Estimates Session 1963/4: Department of Technical Co-operation, House of Commons Paper No. 303, September 1964, (16s. 6d.).

3 Policy on UK Personnel Overseas

- Colonial 197 1946 Organisation of the Colonial Service
 Colonial 306 1954 Reorganisation of the Colonial Service
 Cmd. 9768 May 1956 HM Overseas Civil Service: Statement of Policy regarding Organisation
 Cmnd. 497 July 1958 HM Overseas Civil Service: Statement of Policy regarding Overseas Officers serving in Nigeria
 Cmnd. 1193 October 1960 Service with Overseas Governments
 Cmnd. 1740 May 1962 Recruitment for Service Overseas: Future Policy (DTC)

4 Research

- Cmnd. 2433 July 1964 Research Assistance for the Developing Countries (2s.)

5 'Subject' reports to the Department of Technical Co-operation

	<i>Date</i>	<i>Cost</i>
Medicine		
Medical Aid to the Developing Countries: Report by a Working Party (Porritt Report)	1962	2s.
Medical Aid to the Developing Countries: Observations by HMG on the Report by a Working Party under the Chairmanship of Sir Arthur Porritt	1963	8d.
Public Administration Training		
Report of the Committee on Training in Public Administration for Overseas Countries (Bridges Report)	1963	3s.

	<i>Date</i>	<i>Cos</i>
Government Policy on the Recommendations of the Committee on Training in Public Administration for Overseas Countries (Cmnd. 2099)	1963	8d.
Co-operatives		
Co-operatives Overseas: Report of the Advisory Committee on Co-operatives (Peddie Report: Cmnd. 2257)	1964	2s.
Co-operatives Overseas: Policy on the Recommendations of the Advisory Committee (Cmnd. 2258)	1964	8d.
Natural Resources		
Technical Assistance from Britain in Agriculture, Animal Health, Forestry and Fisheries, Overseas: Report of the Advisory Committee (Bawden Report: Cmnd. 2286)	1964	2s.3d.
Technical Assistance for the Development of Natural Resources Overseas (Cmnd. 2287)	1964	1s.
Overseas Geology and Mining		
Report of the Committee on Technical Assistance for Overseas Geology and Mining (Brundrett Report: Cmnd. 2351)	1964	2s.
Technical Assistance for Overseas Geology and Mining: Policy on the Recommendations of the Committee (Cmnd. 2352)	1964	8d.
Recruitment of Local Government Officers		
Report of the Working Party on the Recruitment of Local Government Officers from Great Britain for Service Overseas	1964	Free

6 Annual Reports (available through HMSO)

Programmes

Colombo Plan

Annual Reports of the Consultative Committee. (Most recent* is Cmnd. 2247, January 1964)

Technical Co-operation under the Colombo Plan –

Annual Reports of the Council for Technical Co-operation in South and South East Asia (Most recent* October 1963, HMSO)

Special Commonwealth African Assistance Plan

Reports (published annually for Commonwealth Economic Committee by HMSO. Most recent, for year ending 31 March 1963, published in March 1964)

Commonwealth Scholarship and Fellowship Plan

Annual Report issued by the Commonwealth Education Liaison Committee (describes operation of Plan throughout the Commonwealth)

Annual Report of the Commonwealth Scholarship Commission in the United Kingdom (covers UK only, but on this contains later and more detailed figures than first item)

* As at August 1964

United Nations

- UN Special Fund: Annual Report of the Governing Council
- UN Expanded Programme of Technical Assistance: Annual Report of the Technical Assistance Board
- UN Children's Fund: Report of the Executive Board to the Economic and Social Council (of the UN)
published as Supplements to the official records of the Economic and Social Council.

OECD

- Flow of Financial Resources to Developing Countries (annually)
- Development Assistance: Efforts and Policies (annually)

Organisations

- British Council
- Building Research Station (including the work of its Tropical Division)
- Commonwealth Agricultural Bureaux
- Commonwealth Development Corporation
- Crown Agents
- Directorate of Overseas Surveys
- Overseas Geological Surveys
- Pest Infestation Laboratory (including the work of the Tropical Stored Products Centre)
- Road Research Laboratory (including the work of its Tropical Section)
- Tropical Products Institute

The DTC itself issued its 'Progress Report' (see above) in 1962 after 10 months existence, but does not publish an annual report. Nor is there at present any other annual Government publication on official aid. General surveys have appeared in 1957, 1960 and 1963 (see above).

The Council for Technical Education and Training for Overseas Countries has never issued an annual report.

The Inter-University Council issued a report for 1946-54 (Cmd. 9515), but has not done so since.

The Anti-Locust Research Centre and Tropical Pesticides Research was 'Colonial Research 1960/1' (Cmnd. 1584), but have not yet published any reports since.

7 Government Accounts

For details of British official expenditure on technical assistance to the developing countries the Civil Estimates and Civil Appropriation Accounts for the relevant financial year may be consulted. The Civil Estimates are published in the early spring and give projected expenditures for the coming financial year (April-March). The Civil Appropriation Accounts appear some months after the end of the financial year in question and give details of actual expenditures. In the case of each of these two publications Class II (Two) is the relevant section dealing with overseas expenditure, including the Department of Technical Co-operation's vote. Both are published annually and are available from HMSO.

Appendix VI

Technical Assistance in British Aid: A Note on the Problem of Definitions

In Chapter 1 reference was made to the problem of adequately defining British official technical assistance. The official definition used by the Treasury counts as technical assistance the whole of the DTC vote, except for administrative expenses and subscriptions to international organisations, and excludes everything else. It could plausibly be argued that some of the administrative expenses omitted are in fact very valuable forms of technical assistance, namely DTC services in recruiting personnel for work abroad and in placing overseas students and trainees in British institutions; and the scale of this work is illustrated by the fact that DTC spends over £1m a year on recruitment services alone. Quite apart from this, however, the official Treasury definition can be criticised on three main grounds. First, the DTC vote includes some items which involve transfers of money rather than of skills and which would therefore be better described as financial rather than technical aid. Second, the items classified by the Treasury as financial aid involve, to a limited extent, the provision of services by Britain. Third, certain public expenditures on technical assistance by bodies other than DTC are omitted altogether. These points need briefly elaborating.

1 Non-technical Assistance Items on the DTC Vote

The clearest-cut cases are as follows:

- (a) capital expenditures on higher education in the colonies (Appendix II, sub-head N);
- (b) capital equipment supplied under CENTO. In recent years Britain has made available equipment valued at nearly half a million pounds a year for construction purposes. This has been given alongside training equipment. Some donor countries did not even count training equipment as technical assistance but whatever one's views on this the CENTO constructional equipment is certainly not 'technical' aid;
- (c) financial subsidies to the budgets of research and training institutions overseas, for example to the CENTO Institute of Nuclear Science and to certain research institutions in the Commonwealth (sub-head H2 and O respectively);
- (d) expenditure under Commonwealth Educational Co-operation on scholarships for developed Commonwealth countries. About a third of the Commonwealth scholarships go to Australia, Canada, New Zealand and South Africa;
- (e) compensation payments (for loss of career) under the Overseas Service Aid Scheme to experts retiring from the service of overseas governments. Basically these are payments in respect of the termination of services by the civil servants concerned. Such expenditure by Britain is undoubtedly 'aid' since it relieves overseas governments of a definite financial obligation but it is not technical assistance. Such an interpretation is borne out by the fact that

loans to overseas governments to pay their share of compensation and pensions of these expatriate officers appear elsewhere in the Government accounts and are counted as financial aid;

- (f) some would say that Britain's financial contributions to the UN Special Fund and Expanded Programme of Technical Assistance are not genuine technical aid. This is a moot point, but since in Britain's case the financial contribution is accompanied by (though not conditional on) the recruitment of many British experts and the placement in Britain for training of many UN and Specialised Agency Fellows, it can be claimed that Britain is making a genuine technical assistance contribution to these bodies.

2 Technical Assistance Elements in Items classified as Financial Aid

Instances include:

- (a) minor items on Foreign Office and CRO votes. The Foreign Office vote in 1964/5 (Class II 2) includes assistance in the form of services for Muscat and Oman (B6), technical training in civil trades for Nepalese civilians under the auspices of British forces in Malaysia (B8), the mission to Vietnam to give assistance and advice on administrative co-ordination and police training (B13). The CRO vote includes a scholarship for Malaysia;
- (b) Commonwealth Development Corporation. The CDC has derived the bulk of its resources from the UK Exchequer, and new Treasury advances to the Corporation are counted as part of aid funds. As described in Chapter 13, the CDC's activities in developing countries include a substantial element of technical assistance, though it is not possible to set any figure on this.

In addition to these rather minor examples, it is worth noting that British financial aid frequently pays for the performance of services as well as for the provision of goods. Under CD & W, for example, Britain is financing local training to the extent of about £ $\frac{1}{2}$ m p.a. in the colonies. Moreover, project aid to the colonies under CD & W finances local building costs and, even where aid is tied to the provision of British equipment, as for instance in the case of ECGD loans, services such as transport and installation of plant are also covered. When British aid takes the form of budgetary support, it may be financing a whole range of government services such as education, health, customs and police.

However, aid does not, simply because it pays for the performance of services, automatically merit the description of technical assistance; an essential condition in technical assistance is that specific technical services and resources are made available by the donor country concurrently with the money to finance them. Paying the costs of a training course run by local people in developing countries, or of a job done by a locally-based construction firm, is properly speaking a form of financial aid rather than technical aid.

3 Technical Assistance provided by Public Bodies other than DTC

Board of Trade. The Board of Trade makes a small contribution each year to the Federation of British Industries' Overseas Scholarship Scheme

for postgraduate technical training in British industry of trainees from overseas. Most of these come from developing countries. The Board of Trade's contribution amounts to about £25,000 a year. This contribution is not counted in British aid totals.

Central Office of Information. The COI handles the British Government's Low-Priced Book Scheme. This was first announced in 1959 and was launched in 1961 in Asia; but the university textbooks series under the Scheme has since been extended to West and East Africa. The essence of the Scheme is that the Government gives a subsidy and/or guarantee to take up any unsold copies at the end of a specified period, which enables the publishers to undertake an unusually large print order and to sell all these at prices well below the normal publishing price in Britain. The amount of the Government subsidy averages a few shillings per copy and at present expenditure by the British Government is running at about £100,000 per year. The Low-Priced Book Scheme falls within 'Overseas Books and Services' on the COI vote and is not counted as part of British aid to developing countries.

Subscriptions through Government Departments to International Organisations. Reference is made in Chapter 11 to British contributions to the UN, international Specialised Agencies, and to OECD. In each of these cases the international body concerned is financing some technical assistance from its regular budget and a proportion, therefore, of the British contributions could properly be described as technical assistance. These subscriptions are not in fact, however, counted by Britain as part of official aid. Subscriptions are distinguished from voluntary contributions (as for example to EPTA and the Special Fund); the latter are counted as aid.

A similar type of contribution is that made through the Commonwealth Relations Office to certain Commonwealth co-operative organisations. Thus the CRO pays about £150,000 a year in total in subscriptions to the Commonwealth Education Liaison Unit, the Commonwealth Economic Committee, and the Commonwealth Agricultural Bureaux. These organisations are jointly financed by Commonwealth governments and make available a wide range of services to their members. The Commonwealth Education Liaison Unit is the executive organ of the Commonwealth Education Liaison Committee and acts as a reference and information point and liaison mechanism for Commonwealth governments on Commonwealth educational co-operation matters. The Commonwealth Economic Committee publishes reports on economic matters affecting the Commonwealth. The Commonwealth Agricultural Bureaux comprises 3 Institutes and 10 Bureaux, which are situated in Britain (apart from the Commonwealth Institute of Biological Control in Trinidad), and act as clearing houses for scientists and research workers on various specialised agricultural and horticultural subjects. All these subscriptions paid by the CRO are not counted as part of the aid programme.

British Council. Apart from acting as an agent of the DTC in relation to many parts of the official aid programme, the British Council itself offers a wide range of technical assistance services to developing countries

especially in the field of education. This work is briefly described in Chapter 12. The British Council is not a Government Department and the assistance it offers is not normally included within totals for the Government aid programme. Recently, however, DTC submissions to the OECD on British technical assistance have, rather confusingly, included some British Council figures.

Crown Agents. The Crown Agents offer a wide range of services to developing countries on a fee-paying (but non-profit-making) basis. These services are referred to in Chapter 13. The Crown Agents frequently act as agents for the DTC and other Government Departments in connection with aid schemes, but their activities as a whole are not usually counted as part of the aid programme.

Appendix VII

Comparative Figures for International Technical Assistance 1962

(a) Experts Working in Developing Countries in 1962 (by supplying country)

France (inc. Algeria)	53,887*	Germany	336
United Kingdom	17,500	Canada	237
United States	8,529	India	234
USSR and other Sino-Soviet bloc	8,475	Yugoslavia	88
United Nations	4,542	Netherlands	74
Egypt	3,700*	Sweden	59
Belgium	3,336	Norway	41
EEC	457	Switzerland	29
Japan	446	Denmark	15
Israel	380	Spain	} not available
Italy	376	Portugal	

Total DAC† members 85,000

World Total: 102,500 (of which 40,000 teachers)

(b) Students and Trainees from Developing Countries in 1962

<i>Host Country</i>	<i>Students and Trainees Receiving bilateral grants</i>	<i>Receiving UN grants</i>	<i>Total Students received (inc. self-financed)</i>
Belgium	1,996	146	1,329
Canada	1,043	93	2,500*
Denmark	58	516	500
France	9,522	941	25,000
Germany	2,805	325	15,000
Italy	2,073	277	2,073
Japan	771	216	4,470
Netherlands	179	212	506*
Norway	20*	72	187*
Portugal	2,000	5	1,000*
UK	4,644	948	40,000
USA	10,388	785	40,000
EEC	514	—	—
Total DAC† Members	36,500	5,012	135,000
Egypt	2,000	296	13,500
India	319	266	1,000*
Israel... ..	1,621	112	2,000*
Spain	n.a.	42	7,000*
Sweden	40	178	250
Switzerland	526	476	2,248*
Yugoslavia	133	158	359
USSR and other Sino-Soviet bloc	12,000	805	12,000*
All Other	n.a.	3,040	n.a.
United Nations	6,484	—	—
Total	60,000	—	170,000

* OECD Secretariat Estimates

† Development Assistance Committee of OECD

Source: 'The Role of Technical Assistance in Economic Development' by Angus Maddison, Article in OECD Observer, December 1963.

Appendix VIII

Post-War Independence Dates of Commonwealth Countries

<i>Territory</i>	<i>Date of Independence</i>
India } Pakistan } Ceylon } Ghana } Federation of Malaya } British Somaliland } (became part of Somalia 1 July 1960)	15 August 1947 4 February 1948 6 March 1957 31 August 1957 26 June 1960
Cyprus Nigeria Sierra Leone South Cameroons (became part of Cameroun)	16 August 1960 1 October 1960 27 April 1961 1 October 1961
Tanganyika Jamaica Trinidad and Tobago Uganda	9 December 1961 5 August 1962 31 August 1962 9 October 1962
North Borneo } Sarawak } on independence joined Singapore } Malaya to form the Zanzibar } Malaysian Federation	} 16 September 1963 10 December 1963
(subsequently united with Tanganyika, 27 April 1964)	
Kenya Malawi (formerly Nyasaland) Malta Zambia (Northern Rhodesia) Gambia	12 December 1963 6 July 1964 21 September 1964 24 October 1964 18 February 1965

Appendix IX

List of Abbreviations used in Text

AID	Agency for International Development (United States Government)
A-LRC	Anti-Locust Research Centre
BBC	British Broadcasting Corporation
BRS	Building Research Station
CCTA	Commission for Technical Co-operation in Africa South of the Sahara
CDC	Commonwealth Development Corporation
CD & W	Colonial Development and Welfare
CEC	Commonwealth Educational Co-operation
CECC	Commonwealth Economic Consultative Council
CELU	Commonwealth Education Liaison Unit
CENTO	Central Treaty Organisation
Cmd.	Command Paper
Cmdnd.	
CO	Colonial Office
COI	Central Office of Information
CRO	Commonwealth Relations Office
DAC	Development Assistance Committee (of OECD)
DOS	Directorate of Overseas Surveys
DSIR	Department of Scientific and Industrial Research
DTIC	Department of Technical Co-operation
ECGD	Export Credits Guarantee Department
ECA	Economic Commission for Africa
ECAFE	Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East
ECLA	Economic Commission for Latin America
(UN)EPTA	(United Nations) Expanded Programme of Technical Assistance
FAMA	Foundation for Mutual Assistance to Africa South of the Sahara
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organisation
FBI	Federation of British Industries
FO	Foreign Office
GPO	General Post Office
HMG	Her Majesty's Government (British Government)
HMOCS	Her Majesty's Overseas Civil Service
HMSO	Her Majesty's Stationery Office
IAEA	International Atomic Energy Agency
IBRD	International Bank for Reconstruction and Development
IDA	International Development Association
IFC	International Finance Corporation
ILO	International Labour Organisation
ITU	International Telecommunication Union
IUC	Inter-University Council for Higher Education Overseas
MEDD	Middle East Development Division
MRC	Medical Research Council
NIAE	National Institute of Agricultural Engineering
NRDC	National Research Development Corporation
OAU	Organisation for African Unity

ODI	Overseas Development Institute
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OEEC	Organisation for European Economic Co-operation
OGS	Overseas Geological Surveys
ONA	Overseas Nursing Association
ONUC	United Nations Force in the Congo
OPEX	UN Scheme for Provision of Operational, Executive and Administrative Personnel
ORC	Overseas Research Council
OSAS	Overseas Service Aid Scheme
OSRB	Overseas Services Resettlement Bureau
PIL	Pest Infestation Laboratory
RAF	Royal Air Force
SCAAP	Special Commonwealth African Assistance Plan
SEATO	South East Asia Treaty Organisation
SUNFED	Special United Nations Fund for Economic Development
TA	Technical Assistance
TAB	Technical Assistance Board
TEA	Teachers for East Africa Scheme
TETOC	Council for Technical Education and Training for Overseas Countries
TPI	Tropical Products Institute
TPRC	Tropical Pesticides Research Committee
TSPC	Tropical Stored Products Centre
UCCA	University Central Council for Admissions
UGC	University Grants Committee
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nations
UNEF	United Nations Emergency Force
UNEPTA	see EPTA
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNRWA	United Nations Relief and Works Agency
VSO	Voluntary Service Overseas
WHO	World Health Organisation
WMO	World Meteorological Organisation

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