British Aid - 3

Educational Assistance

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Overseas Development Institute

Educational Assistance

The British Government spends at least £25m a year on education and training for developing countries; commercial firms, the churches and private trusts spend millions more. There are some 5,000 British teachers in developing countries today and 45,000 men and women from these countries are studying in Britain. One in twelve of the students at British universities comes from Asia, Africa or Latin America.

These are some of the most important ways in which Britain is helping to promote development in the poor countries of the world; for education and training is one of the keys to their progress. Britain's contribution is small in relation to the needs but it represents a considerable cost to the British economy.

In this pamphlet, which consists very largely of previously unpublished material, the facts are brought together for the first time. The contributions of Government, the British Council, churches and missionary societies, private enterprise, charitable trusts and many others are closely analysed. The pamphlet describes, with detailed statistical material, the historical origins of British educational aid, present-day expenditures, the recruitment of British teachers for service overseas and the different kinds of study and training made available in Britain. The organisation of aid — with the eight different Government Departments involved and the nineteen bodies concerned with recruiting teachers — is fully explored.

This study is part of the ODI's factual survey of British Aid (for full details see back cover) financed by the Nuffield Foundation. It has been written by Peter Williams, a member of the ODI's staff.

The total British outlays on educational aid to developing countries are considerable. Is the British programme the best that could be devised? The author believes improvements could be made, and at the end of the survey he outlines his ideas about the directions which change might usefully take.

EDUCATIONAL ASSISTANCE

British Aid - 3

Educational Assistance

a factual survey of the Government and private contribution to overseas development through education and training.

published by

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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 1960's 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 has 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 held in March 1963 and attended by British and American experts in this field.

These papers, revised in the light of discussion, are being published as a factual survey of British aid to developing countries — including contributions from non-governmental bodies

such as commercial firms, universities and missionary societies.

The papers cover five, somewhat arbitrarily defined, areas: Government aid (including total and capital assistance, but not educational and technical assistance in detail); educational assistance; colonial background history; technical assistance; and the private sector. These papers are factual; an additional comment paper is also being published, to underline some of the implications of the factual survey and point to some of the questions that need answering.

This paper, Educational Assistance, covers the British contribution to overseas development through education and training. The author is Peter Williams, a member of the ODI's staff.

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Notes and Abbreviations

In this study, "developing countries" have been taken to include Central and South America, Asia (including Turkey but excluding Japan and the Communist bloc), Africa excluding the Republic of South Africa, Oceania, Gibraltar and Malta; "developed countries" is used in respect of Canada, USA, Europe, the Soviet bloc, Australia, Japan and South Africa.

Where calendar years are not used but 1960/1, 1961/2, 1962/3 etc, these generally refer to the UK financial year (April to March) in respect of Government accounts; and elsewhere to the academic year beginning in September or October.

The following abbreviations have been used in the text:-

ACE	Aid for Commonwealth English Scheme
AUBC	Association of Universities of the British Commonwealth
BBC	British Broadcasting Corporation
CAO	Central African Office
CD & W	Colonial Development and Welfare
CEC	Commonwealth Educational Co-operation
CELC	Commonwealth Education Liaison Committee
CELU	Commonwealth Education Liaison Unit
CENTO	Central Treaty Organisation
CETO	Centre for Educational Television Overseas
COA	Catholic Overseas Appointments
COCAST	Council for Overseas Colleges of Arts, Sciences and Technology
COI	Central Office of Information
CRO	Commonwealth Relations Office
CUGAC	Colonial University Grants Advisory Committee
DTC	Department of Technical Co-operation
FAMA	Foundation for Mutual Assistance in Africa South of the Sahara
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organisation (of the United Nations)
FBI	Federation of British Industries
GCE	General Certificate of Education
HMSO	Her Majesty's Stationery Office
IUC	Inter-University Council for Higher Education Overseas
IVS	International Voluntary Service
NCSTO	National Council for the Supply of Teachers Overseas
NUS	National Union of Students
OAB	Overseas Appointment Bureau
ODI	Overseas Development Institute
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

OSAS	Overseas Service Aid Scheme
OVAC	Oversea Visual Aids Centre
SCAAP	Special Commonwealth African Assistance Plan
SEATO	South East Asia Treaty Organisation
SUS	Scottish Union of Students
TETOC	Council for Technical Education and Training for Overseas Countries
UGC	University Grants Committee
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nations
UNA	United Nations Association of Great Britain and Northern Ireland
UNESCO	United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation
USA	United States of America
VSO	Voluntary Service Overseas
WMOAS	Women's Migration and Oversea Appointments Society

Author's Acknowledgements

I should like to record my thanks to all the busy officials and officers in Government departments and other organisations who assisted with the preparation of this study. I am particularly grateful to those in the Department of Technical Co-operation, Ministry of Education and British Council for their co-operation, and for permission to publish so much of the material they provided. Among the many others I wish to thank, I should like to single out the many patient men and women from private firms, missionary societies, and scholarship-awarding bodies, who completed the special questionnaires sent to them and provided much valuable information on their activities.

I Introduction

This study is an attempt to describe Britain's contribution, both public and private, to the education and training programmes of developing countries. Section II describes the historical background to the involvement of the British Government in schemes of educational aid; and Section III covers the present official effort in terms of policies and organization, the overall cost, and the supply of teachers, books and equipment, advice and research. The subject of Section IV is the contribution in these same fields by private organisations, such as teacher recruiting agencies, the churches and missionary societies, foundations and trusts, industrial and commercial firms and the universities. Section V deals with trainees and students in Britain, analysing the type of education or training being given to them, whether they are sponsored privately or by Government. Finally some general personal observations are appended, based on the situation which this Report has disclosed.

Problems of definition loom large in any attempt to assess quantitatively what the British effort amounts to. In Section III some tentative estimates of the British Government's contribution are given, but even here the figures are subject to a wide range of error. This is partly because full and up to date data are not available, as for instance on educational expenditures under Colonial Development and Welfare schemes. But a greater difficulty arises in trying to determine, for instance, how much of British Council expenditure should be included, or whether and to what extent to take account of the fact that many overseas students in Britain, particularly at universities and technical colleges, have their education subsidised from public funds in the same way as British students do.

For the private sector it is quite impossible to add up what is done in monetary terms. The difficulties arise partly from the sheer paucity of information — for instance about the number of overseas students at private institutions in Britain, the numbers of British teachers privately recruited for service in developing countries, and the extent of the training facilities provided at home and overseas by British commercial and industrial firms; and partly because it is not known to what extent such activities are subsidised. But there is also the problem that much of the education provided privately is bought and sold commercially for fees. Activities that may well be "contributions to development", and

so merit mention in this study, are not necessarily "assistance" The same point might be made about British firms' provision of training for those nationals of developing countries who are their own employees.

Even if sufficient information were available to assess the value of all this and compile a meaningful total, the resultant figure would still not completely reflect Britain's contribution to education in the developing countries. There would still have to be taken into account such imponderables as the reservation of places for overseas students in British institutions (which British students themselves might have occupied), or the prestige which African University Colleges have derived from their special relationship with London University.

This study of educational assistance is for the most part a factual account of what is going on at the donors' end. The description of all the different schemes and activities may well induce the complacent feeling that they go a very long way towards meeting the educational requirements of the developing countries. In fact even a superficial examination of the situation in those countries would suggest that our present programmes, valuable as they are, are only a very small part of what needs to be done.

II Historical Background

Until the coming of the Colonial Development and Welfare (CD & W) Acts in the 1940's, the British Government's direct financial contribution to education overseas was negligible. It is true that "as early as 1809 the parliamentary vote for the Civil Establishment of the Colony of Sierra Leone included an item of £300 for six teachers" *, and that in 1833, when Parliament first voted £20,000 to the voluntary societies for educational work at home, it simultaneously allocated £30,000 for work in the West Indies. Also, over the years a proportion of the British Treasury's grants-in-aid must certainly have been spent by the recipients on education; but by and large during the period up to 1940 the British Government's role in educational assistance was much more in the formulation of policy and the giving of advice than in actual financial contributions.

Interest in education in India was of comparatively long standing, but it was only at the beginning of this century, in the period following the consolidation of British influence in Africa, that the need for the formulation of a comprehensive policy on education throughout the dependent territories came to be recognised. Representatives from the churches and missionary societies, who had built up education in the colonies almost unaided, were largely behind the decision in 1923 to set up the Advisory Committee on Native Education in the British Tropical African Dependencies, which in 1929 became the Advisory Committee on Education in the Colonies. This body was purely advisory to the Secretary of State for the Colonies, and was composed of experienced representatives from the different colonial areas, educational experts in Britain, and representatives from among the missionary societies; Colonial Governors and Directors of Education could attend when in London. It met frequently (242 times) during the 32 years of its existence from 1929 to 1961. In its early years especially it discussed and made recommendations on broad questions of educational policy and administration in the colonies, and frequently set up specialist sub-committees to look at problems in detail.

* L. J. Lewis: "Educational Policy and Practice in British Tropical Areas", p. 6 (Nelson, 1954).

The Committee also examined and commented on the annual reports of colonial educational departments. In later years, especially with the assumption of a much greater degree of responsibility by colonial administrations themselves for policy matters, the Committee's role was less to survey general policy than to give specialist and technical advice.

In the field of financial assistance little was done at first, even though the memoranda of the Advisory Committee show that it considered the state of colonial education to have been in most respects deplorable and that the chief cause of this was lack of funds. At that time however, the Imperial Government thought of educational assistance as 'spending' rather than investment, and educational expenditure was not generally eligible for help under the Colonial Development Act of 1929, although a few vocational training schemes were assisted.

In 1940 the first Colonial Development and Welfare Act was passed. Undoubtedly an important factor behind the new emphasis on welfare, including education, was the recognition that self-government must be the eventual aim, and that the colonial peoples were ill-prepared for it. Hence education assumed a key role as the means of inculcating a sense of citizenship in the mass of the people and preparing the leaders for responsibility. The titles of three major documents of this period — "Memorandum on the Education of African Communities" (1935), "Mass Education in African Society" (1944), and "Education for Citizenship in Africa". (1948),*all bear witness to the dominance of this theme. The importance of the CD & W Act in the present context was that allocations could now be made on a regular basis to education, and in fact between 1940 and 1945, when a new Act was passed, £3.9m had thus been committed.** Also in 1940, an Adviser on Education to the Secretary of State for the Colonies was appointed — this was C.W.M. Cox, who, now as Sir Christopher Cox, still holds this same post. Applications from the colonies for CD & W funds for education have always been referred to the Adviser and his staff before being approved, and in the very early days the advice of the Advisory Committee too seems occasionally to have been sought.

The main principles which seem to have been followed in assessing requests for support in educational projects were (and still are): first, that in general (apart from a few overseas scholarships) only capital expenditure would be met and that there must be some prospect of the recurrent costs being found from the territory's own funds; and second, that any single project should form part of

*Colonial No.103. HMSO 1935; Colonial No.186. HMSO 1943; Colonial No.216. HMSO 1948.

**Spending however was well behind commitments under the 1940 Act. Out of a total commitment of £30m by March 1946, only £10.4m had been spent. No separate figure is available for educational expenditure out of the £3.9m commitment.

an overall balanced development plan. The Colonial Office also had to be satisfied that plans were realistic and that new schools would not be prevented from functioning effectively by, for instance, the impossibility of recruiting staff. These principles were apparent as early as 1941, when the Advisory Committee, in advising the partial rejection of an application from Tanganyika, made the point that support for teachers' salaries in schools already in existence was contrary to the intentions of the Act, and that in any case the territory's proposals should be presented within the framework of a comprehensive plan. In 1945, however, in connection with an application from Basutoland for CD & W funds to pay teachers' salaries, the Committee said: "If the Imperial Government is now unable to find the funds to rectify errors of omission and commission for which they cannot escape responsibility, the loss of British prestige.... may be disastrous... We are aware that the proposal to utilise funds from the CD & W vote for other than capital expenditure is open to objection, but the position in Basutoland is so serious that we urge strongly that an exception be made in this case as was done with Nyasaland and the Virgin Islands." Departures from the "capital expenditure only" rule have, however, always been exceptional.

In 1945 a new Colonial Development and Welfare Act was passed, allocating £120m over 10 years for colonial development. Even though this included for the first time funds specifically for higher education, the provision envisaged for education was clearly not going to allow all the expansion of programmes for education that the Committee thought adequate and desirable, and in fact the Advisory Committee was told that many of the specific educational development plans they had already approved in principle would in fact need to be cut back because the territory concerned was not allocated sufficient under the new Act to finance them.

The decision to embark on a programme of university development followed a series of reports on higher education by Commissions whose setting up had been recommended by the Advisory Committee. A sub-committee of the Advisory Committee itself had in 1943 remarked: "It is our opinion that a far greater return will be received on the relatively limited expenditure necessary to achieve these ends (the development of higher education) than would result from a similar outlay on any single project — for this will affect all other projects in a most creative way".

The most important of these Commissions was the Asquith Commission set up in 1943 "to consider the principles which should guide the promotion of higher education, learning and research, and the development of universities in the Colonies; and to explore means whereby universities and other appropriate bodies in Britain may be able to co-operate with institutions of higher education in the Colonies in order to give effect to these principles". Its report was published in 1945 and stated that "the main consideration in our minds is that HM Government has entered upon a

programme of social and economic development for the Colonies... designed to lead to the exercise of self-government by them. In the stage preparatory to self-government universities have an important part to play; indeed they may be said to be indispensable. To them we must look for the production of men and women with the standards of public service and capacity for leadership which self-rule requires." The Commission were, however, under no illusions as to the cost — "very substantial sums" would be required. Furthermore "the development of higher education in the Colonies must depend on the grant of substantial financial aid from Great Britain". "Since the development of higher education must entail substantial financial help from Britain over a considerable period... it may be justifiable to set aside an appropriate part of the funds under the Colonial Development and Welfare Act. A special provision should be assigned to university development, expenditure to be met from it including recurrent grants and capital sums".

Under the 1945 Act £4.5m was originally allocated to higher education for the 10 year period 1946-56; although it soon became clear that this was insufficient. In 1950 additional sums were allocated under the CD & W Act of that year, and in fact about £10m was eventually committed, and £6m spent, during the period. The allocation did not however, include anything for recurrent expenditure or to help build up endowment funds as had been recommended by the Asquith Commission — these outlays had to be borne by the territories concerned. Another interesting point is that the Gold Coast received hardly any of this money for its new university college, since the Colonial Secretary considered that one university college (Ibadan) was enough for West Africa, and made it a condition of his agreement to the setting up of a college in the Gold Coast that it should be locally supported.

For higher education in the colonies, new machinery was set up to deal with the granting of aid. The Colonial University Grants Advisory Committee (CUGAC) was established by the Secretary of State to advise him on the needs of colonial university institutions and the distribution between them of whatever overall sums he allocated. In all its operations, the CUGAC has worked in close co-operation with the Inter-University Council for Higher Education Overseas (IUC) an independent body set up by the universities in Britain themselves. The effectiveness of the IUC and the CUGAC in getting money for universities in the colonies may be judged from the fact that between 1945 and 1963 some £20m, or about 35% of the money devoted to education under CD & W, has been allocated to university institutions. Before 1945, apart from £100,000 given to Makerere College's endowment fund in 1938, the British Government had given little to higher education in the colonial empire, even though some universities, for example Malta and Hong Kong, had already been in existence for some time. In addition to the £20m given direct to colonial university institutions, the Sudanese Government made over to Gordon College, Khartoum (which later

became the University) a post-war gift from the British Government of £1m.

In the field of higher technical education, the Secretary of State used another advisory body — the Council for Overseas Colleges of Arts, Science and Technology (COCAST), which, in 1962, became the Council for Technical Education and Training for Overseas Countries (TETOC). Over the years however, only a small fraction of the CD & W allocation for higher technical education, totalling £4m (out of £21½m for higher education as a whole), has gone to higher technical colleges that have remained as such; the main beneficiaries — the three branches of the Nigerian College of Arts, Science and Technology, the Kumasi College of Technology, the Royal Technical College of East Africa and (in a special category) Fourah Bay College, Sierra Leone — have all become university institutions. This is as much a commentary on the structure of higher education in Britain, and the relative prestige attaching to university education compared with technical education, as it is a reflection of the needs of the colonies themselves.

As Tables 5 and 6 show, £58½m has been allocated to education since 1945 under the CD & W Acts, of which £27m is listed as for primary and secondary education, £10m for technical and vocational education and £21½m for higher education. There is an inevitable time lag between allocation and spending, but by 1958 £29m had been actually spent, which included £13m for primary and secondary education, £5½m for technical and vocational, and £10m for higher. Detailed figures for expenditure since 1958 are not available, but the trend towards bigger outlays undoubtedly continued up to 1962.

During the post-war period the Advisory Committee on Education in the Colonies continued to meet, although it was not now generally consulted on the granting of assistance under CD & W, and was much more concerned with tendering specialist advice at home, arrangements for specialist advisory visits overseas and participation in national and international educational conferences. The Committee was finally disbanded in 1961 when the Department of Technical Co-operation was formed, and although it was the stated intention to replace it with a new committee with wider geographical terms of reference than the old, this has not in fact yet (May 1963) been done.

Meanwhile the early post-war years saw a broadening of scope in the British Government's interest in education in the developing countries, which had hitherto been concentrated almost exclusively on the colonies. The United Kingdom was a founder member in 1946 of the United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO), whose programme has become increasingly concentrated on promoting educational development and the rendering of assistance in this field. Then in 1950 the Colombo Plan was inaugurated, and Britain, along with other countries, began to accept a flow of trainees from independent Asian countries. The 1950's saw significant changes in the direction of

the British Council's work, especially following the recommendations of the Drogheda Committee in 1954 that it should concentrate in future on educational work particularly for the developing countries; and in 1957 the Government agreed to give the Council more funds for the provision of teachers overseas. Throughout the decade the numbers of overseas students in Britain, the majority of them from the developing countries, steadily increased. According to British Council estimates the total number of overseas students (including those from developed countries) rose from 12,500 in 1950/1 to about 60,000 in 1961/2.

The fundamental changes in the structure of the Commonwealth entailed by the achievement of independence by, first Ghana and Malaya, and later other African territories, Cyprus, Jamaica and Trinidad, were reflected in the educational field too. Britain's help to the colonies through the CD & W scheme had been largely built on the recognition that they were destined for self-government, and that independence could only be met if solid economic and educational foundations were laid. Political independence in the event came faster than most people had expected and far in advance of the time when the countries concerned could meet their needs for capital and skilled manpower from their own resources. It was in recognition of this fact that at the Commonwealth Trade and Economic Conference at Montreal in 1958 Britain announced new forms of financial help to independent Commonwealth countries, and the decision was taken to hold a Commonwealth Conference to discuss educational co-operation.

There had been Imperial Education Conferences in 1911, 1923 and 1927, and also an important and fruitful Conference on African Education at Cambridge in 1952, but the Commonwealth Education Conference at Oxford in July 1959 was the first since then, and broke new ground by working out schemes of mutual assistance. The British Government came forward with offers of up to 500 Commonwealth scholarships a year tenable in Britain, and 500 (later reduced to 400) teacher-training bursaries a year; and also undertook to try to provide an additional 400 teachers for service overseas in Commonwealth countries by 1964. Shortly afterwards, a bill was introduced in Parliament providing for expenditure of up to £6m over five years on Commonwealth Educational Co-operation Schemes, starting in 1960/1. At the Second Commonwealth Educational Conference at New Delhi in January 1962, the United Kingdom agreed to provide an additional 45 bursaries for technical teacher-training, and 10-12 bursaries for training in the writing of text books, and to recruit and train 20-30 English-language teacher-training experts for service in the Commonwealth, all to be paid for out of the £6m already allocated.

The decision to allocate funds to Commonwealth Educational Co-operation was followed in 1960 by a loan of £5m (later converted to a grant) to Nigeria on independence, to assist with the implementation of the recommendations of the Ashby Commission (an

Anglo-American-Nigerian Commission) on higher education. This is to be spent over seven years. Then in 1961, the Overseas Service Aid Scheme was introduced, providing for the payment by Britain of the "inducement" element in salaries of expatriate colonial civil servants, who include many teachers and educationalists. Also in 1961, the Government's low-priced book scheme got under way in Asia. The Government also announced the allocation of £3m for the building of hostels in Britain, primarily for Commonwealth students.

Meanwhile, independence has been achieved by Ghana and Malaya (1957), Nigeria (1960), Sierra Leone and Tanganyika (1961), Uganda, Jamaica and Trinidad (1962); technical assistance arrangements have been made with all these countries, including the provision of training in Britain for many of their citizens.

The occasion for the introduction of many of these new schemes has undoubtedly been mostly political. Nevertheless, the public statements that have accompanied them, especially the Reports of the first two Commonwealth Education Conferences, do provide evidence of the British Government's belief in the importance of education and training for development, and a new appreciation of the fact that expenditure on education in developing countries is a form of worthwhile investment.

III British Government's Role

1. OFFICIAL POLICY

> "The largest single factor common to the many and varied countries of Asia and Africa is the desire for education. Britain should be ready to make her contribution to meeting these demands and is particularly well placed to help." (Overseas Information Services, Cmnd. 685, Para 6, March 1959).
>
> "Education is an indispensable condition of development: it fulfils a vital role in less-developed countries by training the citizens and electors, the administrators, professional men and leaders in all walks of life, as well as the craftsmen and technicians — all of whom are essential for economic development. In particular, technical assistance, in the restricted sense of training in certain professional and technical subjects, must be ineffective unless those receiving training have already sufficient general education to enable them to understand what they are being taught." (Technical Assistance from the United Kingdom for Overseas Development, Cmnd. 1308, Para 65, March 1961).

These two recent statements from Government White Papers, together with the comparatively recently introduced Commonwealth Educational Co-operation Scheme and the £5m independence gift to Nigeria for higher education, may be taken as a sign of increased awareness of the importance of educational assistance in Britain's overall aid programme.

Today, the British Government contributes to educational development in overseas countries in a number of different ways and under several programmes, which are described in some detail in the following pages. It is important to recognise at the outset, however, that most of the schemes have grown up on an ad hoc basis and even now, when together they involve the expenditure of several million pounds a year, there is little evidence that they are regarded as forming a distinct whole even by the Government itself. Thus a large part of Britain's educational assistance from Government funds does not appear in the official aid figures at all.

Taking British Government assistance to developing countries to be of the order of £150m p.a. in the financial year 1962/3 (it

was £153m in the calendar year 1962), one finds that approximately £10m, or 6½% of the items normally included in British Government aid figures, is earmarked specifically for education and training. This does not take account of that part of British financial aid, such as colonial grants in aid, which recipient Governments may themselves use for educational purposes. The £10m figures is made up as follows:

	£'000	
Colonial Development and Welfare (CD & W) Education and Training Schemes: Commonwealth Educational Co-operation (developing countries only)	5,750	) Figures approximate and rounded-off to nearest £50,000
	850	
Training under Technical Assistance Schemes	1,350	
Nigerian Higher Education	250	
Educational posts in developing countries subsidised under Overseas Service Aid Scheme ...	1,500	
Miscellaneous items on DTC and CRO votes	150	
	9,850	

Source: Civil Estimates (see Table 3)

This percentage figure (6½%), which makes no allowance for over-spending or under-spending of the original estimates, would rise somewhat higher, to nearly 7%, if one included money spent by UNESCO on educational projects from Britain's contributions to the UN Special Fund and the UN Expanded Programme of Technical Assistance; these are included in the official aid figures, although the subscription to UNESCO itself, which also uses some of its regular budget for educational projects, is not. If one ignores this technical distinction, about £½m p.a. seems a fair estimate for Britain's contribution to UN educational aid projects.

It should be noted, however, that the Treasury figure of some £150m for British assistance to developing countries in 1962/3 does not include expenditure by the British Council, the Central Office of Information's Low-Priced Book Scheme or the small Board of Trade contribution to The Federation of British Industries Overseas Scholarship Scheme. Nor does it take into account the subsidy on university and technical college places in Britain filled by students and trainees from developing countries. The value of these is discussed later.

The 7% figure is, in fact, about the same as in 1952/3, when education and training accounted for approximately £3.75m out of official aid of £52m. This suggests that any increased importance attached to education and training is not yet reflected in the aid figures. As is shown in Tables 5 and 6 (Appendix 1), the pro-

portion of commitments and expenditures on education out of CD & W Funds has been remarkably steady in relation to total commitments and expenditure since 1946. There is no clearly discernible trend towards an increase in the proportion, which has averaged about 20%. It is also noteworthy that the Government's publicly announced expectations with regard to expenditure from the £6m allocated by Parliament to Commonwealth Educational Co-operation at present (May 1963) involve eventual under-spending by about £1¼m over the 5-year period 1960-5.

As far as priorities within official educational assistance are concerned, there has been no comprehensive statement of the position. The Department of Technical Co-operation (DTC) has set out its technical assistance priorities in "Technical Co-operation: a Progress Report by the New Department" (Cmnd. 1698, April 1962), but these cover only a limited part of the whole field of assistance to education and training. Most notably, they exclude financial assistance and, presumably, British Council activities. So far as financial aid (which accounts for about half the £10m total shown above) is concerned, it can be stated very generally that Britain has preferred to support new capital projects which are part of a carefully worked out overall educational development plan in the recipient country, and has not been prepared to underwrite the recurrent costs of schools or other institutions overseas.

British Council priorities cover English language teaching, the fostering of personal contacts, and the provision of literature in English, and these do not apparently coincide completely with the priorities in the DTC's White Paper. This White Paper singled out in the educational field, first the supply of university and secondary school teachers and staff for teacher-training colleges, and second technical education and training, as being the most important needs which Britain's efforts should be geared to meet. Technical education and training has been comparatively neglected in British aid programmes, and at the Delhi Commonwealth Educational Conference in 1962, Britain promised to do more in this particular field. In addition to these two educational priorities, the White Paper specified various types of specialised training as requiring assistance, notably training of public servants, economic and financial planners, agriculturalists, people concerned with industrial development, workers in the tele-communications field, scientific research workers, medical and nursing personnel, and managers.

A breakdown of educational assistance into types of expenditure shows (Table 1) that, excluding contributions through the UN and 'hidden' subsidies to students in Britain, and counting only scholarships and bursaries, books and periodicals, and grants to educational institutions from among British Council expenditure, approximately 43% is capital aid for buildings and equipment overseas, 3% is recurrent expenditure, 21% is contributions to the cost of British teachers and educationalists in developing

countries, 22% is for scholarships and training (mostly in Britain), 4% is on the provision of books, and the remaining 7% is for miscellaneous expenditures. As a guide to policy, however, these figures are not particularly revealing, and they certainly do not accord with the stated priorities. A much better correspondence with stated priorities would, however, be achieved if one left out of account CD & W, which goes wholly to the colonies. The supply of personnel and provision of scholarships and training would then account for about two-thirds of the total.

The geographical priorities would appear to be the same in education as for the rest of British aid — colonies first, independent Commonwealth next, and foreign countries last. Africa predominates, with the West Indies and Indian sub-continent also very important (see Table 2). The British Council, however, is an exception; it spends about equal amounts on its programmes for countries outside and inside the Commonwealth.

The colonies represent a rather different case from the independent countries, since there Britain has been able to influence markedly the pattern of educational development, for the most part indirectly, but also directly through CD & W aid.

Britain's general policy towards the colonies has been to move in the direction of building up a complete education system in each territory wherever resources and scale have permitted. This has been so particularly since the Second World War, and in the last eighteen years many colonies have acquired a complete range of institutions at all levels from the primary school to the university, as well as technical and vocational establishments, albeit on a relatively modest scale when measured against their population. In so far as Britain has provided financial help through CD & W, etc., it has been concentrated on development at the secondary and higher levels, since the British Government view has been that in general these are the areas where the greatest deficiencies lie and that the provision of primary education should be a local responsibility. This emphasis on the local provision of primary education or craft training runs through all British policy in the education field, and it is broadly true to say of official assistance that the provision of British teachers for service abroad is confined to the secondary and higher levels, and the acceptance of overseas students for education and training in Britain to the higher levels.

To a large extent, in making educational aid available, the British Government is dependent on the co-operation of other institutions or of individuals. The Government itself can make money available, but apart from this it must rely on providing inducements to others to help, or on making the general climate of opinion favourable. Thus the central Government is not itself directly an employer of teachers in Britain, nor does it on any large scale provide training facilities. It has specifically rejected the idea that it should form a career service for teachers or other

experts in its own permanent employ, and so must depend instead on the goodwill of individual teachers, local education authorities and universities in trying to provide more British teachers for developing countries. Similarly, in the training field, whilst the Government accepts that,towards its present and former colonies at least, Britain has some obligation to take higher level students for courses in Britain when facilities are not available overseas, it has not been disposed to establish specialised training institutions of its own, preferring to arrange training so far as possible through independent or semi-independent organisations and institutions. In the same way the Government's Low-Priced Book Scheme for Asian countries depends for success on the co-operation of publishers. Where the national interest demands some course of action, the Government has chosen to rely primarily on exhortation and financial help rather than becoming directly involved itself. Perhaps the most authoritative statement of the Government's conception of its role vis-à-vis that of other institutions is in the DTC's White Paper "Technical Co-operation - A Progress Report by the New Department" Cmnd. 1698 April 1962, where it is stated: "it will be the Department's job to find the gaps, to help cut out overlapping, to remove obstacles which interfere with private effort, to bring together those working in the same field, and to give those who wish to help as clear an idea as possible of what is wanted abroad".

2. ORGANISATION

British educational aid takes five main forms: financial aid, recruitment of teachers for overseas; provision of equipment; advice; provision of education and training facilities in Britain. Each of these forms of assistance is provided on a number of different votes (see Table 3), and there are several different bodies, not all of them governmental, involved in the execution of the programmes of assistance. In so far as non-governmental bodies are involved, the spread of responsibility is partly a reflection of the de-centralised nature of the British educational system. The division of responsibility within government, on the other hand, is partly to be accounted for by the threefold territorial division, which crops up in all Britain's overseas relations, between the colonies, independent Commonwealth countries, and independent foreign countries, and partly by the universal organisational problem of whether to organise on a functional or a geographical basis. At the present stage of organisation, British assistance to education is divided between the four geographical overseas relations departments (Foreign Office, Commonwealth Relations Office, Colonial Office, and Central African Office), and a number of functional departments and bodies, of which the Department of Technical Co-operation is the most important.

Co-ordination of the interests and activities of all these

Departments and other bodies is clearly necessary if the British programme of assistance is to be viewed as a whole and is to be internally consistent. The Government has, of course, its normal official machinery (including regular committee discussions) for making policy decisions and co-ordinating administrative arrangements, and in addition a good deal of contact between officials and officers in the different organisations on matters of common concern, particularly between those in the DTC and British Council. From the outside, however, it is not at all clear that such a wide dispersal of authority enables all the different facets of the programme and the inter-relationship between them to be kept under regular review, quite apart from the difficulty of co-ordination at the executive level. The following are the main departments of Government responsible for assistance to education:

i) Department of Technical Co-operation (DTC)

This is the main policy-making department on assistance to education, and it carries a large part of British Government-funds for education overseas on its vote. It does, of course, consult closely with the Foreign Office, Commonwealth Relations Office, Central African Office and Colonial Office. These are exceptions in the educational field to the general rule that the DTC does not handle capital funds, since amongst its responsibilities are capital allocations for the development of higher education in the colonies. The Department has been in existence for only two years and, to some extent, is still feeling its way in the education field. This is particularly true of assistance to independent countries, where a number of schemes which might seem properly to belong to it in fact continue under the wings of older departments; it is less true of the dependencies, where the educational staff of the Colonial Office was moved over more or less en bloc to the DTC.

The DTC has inherited from the Colonial Office a large part of the responsibility for aid to Colonial education. It carries on its vote the CD & W funds for capital assistance to higher education in the colonies and also CD & W Research schemes. It also advises the Colonial Secretary on proposed educational expenditures from the territorially allocated part of the CD & W funds, which remain on the Colonial Office vote. The DTC has also taken over the Colonial Office's former activities in the field of recruiting teachers for the colonies, placing students in Britain, arranging courses and training, and supplying advice. As the Department responsible for the Overseas Service Aid Scheme, the DTC lays out the funds which go to supplement the salaries of British teachers and education officials, amongst others, in the colonies and some former colonies. It is also responsible for the regional technical assistance schemes under which, from 1963/4 onwards, colonies are eligible for help in the fields of training, services of experts and equipment.

Independent Commonwealth countries also receive help through the DTC, under technical assistance agreements, in the form of training facilities, equipment for training institutions, and the provision of educational experts; this was formerly a responsibility of the Commonwealth Relations Office (CRO). They, as well as the colonies, also benefit from Commonwealth Educational Co-operation (CEC) funds, most of which are carried on the DTC vote. Britain's CEC programme has a number of different facets, the most important being the provision of scholarships and fellowships tenable in Britain, the offer of bursaries for teacher training in Britain, and the recruitment of extra teachers for overseas service. The first two are administered by the Commonwealth Scholarship Commission (for whom the Association of Universities of the British Commonwealth (AUBC) acts as secretaries) and the Ministry of Education respectively, whilst the recruitment of teachers is not centralised but is undertaken by several bodies, including the DTC itself. Many of the newly independent countries turn to the DTC for teacher recruitment, not only for the posts where DTC gives financial help under the Overseas Service Aid Scheme (OSAS) or CEC, but for other posts as well. The Department is also becoming increasingly involved with finding university teachers on secondment arrangements, mostly for Commonwealth countries, and has set up a special Committee to deal with this.

With regard to foreign countries, the DTC is responsible for help with training and the provision of educational experts (amongst others) under technical assistance agreements, although the scale of this is comparatively small as yet. This was formerly a Foreign Office function.

The DTC does not itself handle the executive administration for all the educational aid schemes for which it is responsible. The part played in Commonwealth Educational Co-operation by the Ministry of Education and the Commonwealth Scholarship Commission has been mentioned. As described in Section V, the British Council, Ministry of Labour and other bodies help with the placing of technical assistance trainees and others, and the British Council handles the welfare arrangements for all students in Britain under schemes on the DTC's vote. The DTC makes payment to the British Council for this work. The recruiting and other activities of the Inter-University Council and Council for Technical Education and Training for Overseas Countries (see below) are largely financed from money provided on the DTC vote.

ii) Education Departments

The three Education Departments — the Ministry of Education in London (for England and Wales), the Scottish Education Department, and the Northern Ireland Ministry of Education — are very much involved in educational assistance. The line of demarcation between them and the DTC seems to be that, when the operation of

a scheme depends mainly on contact with and knowledge of education in Britain, the Education Departments are primarily responsible; when it depends on contact with and knowledge of overseas educational problems, responsibility rests with the DTC. Thus the Education Departments are responsible for the work of the National Council for the Supply of Teachers Overseas, and the Ministry of Education in London supplies its secretariat. Although the Education Departments do not themselves supply teachers or recruit them for overseas service, they bring (through the National Council) the question of recruitment for the developing countries to the notice of local education authorities, and try to facilitate the flow of teachers abroad through such arrangements as the Code of Secondment (see below). The Ministry of Education in London also houses the Commonwealth Bursary Unit, which is responsible for the training arrangements of teacher-bursars in Britain under the Commonwealth Educational Co-operation Scheme. In addition the Ministry handles British relations with UNESCO, whose work has traditionally involved a good deal of consultation and co-operation between national education authorities; more recently UNESCO has become much more concerned with provision of aid in the form of staff, experts and advice to the developing countries, and the holding of conferences to discuss their problems. UNESCO's work is thus increasingly becoming of more apparent interest to the DTC than to the Ministry of Education.

iii) Foreign Office

The Foreign Office carries responsibility for the British Council on its vote and, in so far as expenditure of British Council money, which is mainly for educational and cultural purposes, takes place in or on behalf of foreign countries, the Foreign Office naturally has considerable influence on the purposes to which it is put. Similarly, where technical assistance money is being spent in foreign countries, the DTC naturally consults the Foreign Office. The Foreign Service is the channel for official DTC contact with foreign countries.

iv) Commonwealth Relations Office (CRO)

The CRO, which is responsible for capital assistance to independent countries, carries on its vote aid for Nigerian Higher Education. Also on its vote are sums for aiding English Schools in Cyprus, and for capital expenditure on hostels for overseas students in Britain, both of which schemes are administered by the British Council. Like the Colonial Office and Foreign Office, the CRO reimburses the British Council for expenditures on behalf of the countries for which it is responsible and on behalf of Commonwealth students in Britain. The CRO also pays Britain's contribution to the Commonwealth Education Liaison Unit, which has an office and

small staff in London and exists as a sort of clearing house for Commonwealth Educational co-operation matters.

v) Colonial Office

The Colonial Office still carries the territorial allocations for the Colonial Development and Welfare funds, part of which is used for education at the primary and secondary level and for technical education. The Colonial Office also contributes to British Council expenditures in the colonial territories and on behalf of colonial students in Britain. In so far as colonies need assistance and advice on education, however, they channel their requests direct to the DTC and not through the Colonial Office.

vi) Central African Office (CAO)

Set up in 1962, the CAO carries out for the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland substantially the same activities in the educational assistance field as the Colonial Office does for the colonial territories.

vii) Board of Trade

The Board of Trade is concerned with the technical training of overseas students in British industry and, before the Council for Technical Education and Training for Overseas Countries was established, was largely responsible, through its Advisory Committee on Facilities for Commonwealth Trainees in UK Trade and Industry (which met only once), for looking after their technical training. At present, there is a shadowy division between the Board of Trade's interest in arrangements involving export promotion, and the DTC's interest in arrangements which might be labelled 'technical assistance'. The Board of Trade is thus responsible for any attempts at expanding training facilities expected to increase British exports in the long run; in this capacity, the Board contributes to the Federation of British Industries Overseas Scholarship Scheme for post-graduate technical training in British industry for men mostly from the developing countries.

viii) Central Office of Information (COI)

The COI handles the Government's Low-Priced Book Scheme, through which British technical textbooks and other books are sold to students in developing countries at low subsidised prices. This scheme was not primarily designed as assistance to overseas education but as an information/cultural scheme, and is paid for from overseas information funds. The COI also runs short training courses for information officers from the developing countries.

ix) Other Departments

In addition to the departments already mentioned, many others are involved in educational assistance through the provision of training courses and the placing of overseas students and trainees. Amongst these, for instance, are the General Post Office, the Ministry of Agriculture, the Ministry of Health, the Treasury and the Ministry of Labour.

There are also various independent non-governmental bodies deeply involved in the rendering of official educational assistance, of which the most important are the British Council, the Inter-University Council and the Council for Technical Education and Training for Overseas Countries. The activities of all of these bodies are substantially financed from Government funds.

British Council

The Council was set up 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". Particularly since the Report of the Drogheda Committee in 1954, it has become increasingly involved with educational work, especially English language teaching, in and on behalf of the developing countries, and now reckons that this accounts for some 70% of its total expenditure. Although constitutionally independent of the British Government, practically the whole of its income comes from Government Departments. The structure of its finances is complicated, but broadly speaking, while it is on the Foreign Office vote and receives a Foreign Office grant in aid, the CRO, Colonial Office and Central African Office also contribute to the Council's budget according to the proportion of the Council's work carried out in or on behalf of territories for which they are responsible. Its other income is drawn from DTC and from its own earnings and donations.

The three main tasks of the British Council were defined by its Director-General three years ago as being:

i) educational work, especially in the field of English language teaching.

ii) the fostering of personal contacts between British and overseas people, especially in the educational, scientific, professional and cultural fields;

iii) to help ensure that English reading matter is as widely available overseas as possible.

In carrying out these functions, the Council puts great emphasis on local contacts, and the main channels used for its work are a wide network of overseas representatives and offices, as well as its local offices in Britain.

The Council's work for education in developing countries includes capital and recurrent grants to schools and other bodies

overseas; recruitment of teachers and loan of its own staff for teaching purposes abroad; awards of scholarships and bursaries for study in Britain; placement of many trainees under technical assistance and other schemes in British educational institutions; sponsorship and arrangement of courses and summer schools in British and overseas; administrative and welfare arrangements for thousands of overseas students in Britain; short 'information' tours for visitors specially invited to Britain; brief advisory visits overseas by British specialists; provision of books and libraries in overseas countries.

The British Council works closely with the DTC, and its UK-based overseas staff, who number roughly two thirds of the foreign service Branch A, are one of the major channels of information to the Department and others on educational needs in developing countries.

Inter-University Council for Higher Education Overseas (IUC)

As explained in the historical section, the IUC was set up in 1946. It is composed, for the most part, of representatives of each United Kingdom university, but, although it is a university body and independent of Government, it draws nearly all its income from the DTC vote. The IUC has played a most important role in the building up of colonial university institutions through the provision of advice and the recruitment of staff. Its secretary is also secretary to the Colonial University Grants Advisory Committee, which the Secretary for Technical Co-operation advises on the distribution of such CD & W funds among the university institutions as he allocates them.

Council for Technical Education and Training for Overseas Countries (TETOC)

Although it was set up by the Secretary for Technical Co-operation in 1962, this Council is also independent of Government. Like the IUC it has a small permanent staff, and draws its income from the DTC vote. The Council's members include principals of UK technical colleges and also representatives of industry and a number of professional and industrial organisations. Its main role is to tender advice and help to overseas governments and technical institutions, including help with the recruitment of British teaching staff. It also advises the Secretary for Technical Co-operation in the allocation of capital funds (CD & W) for higher technical education in the colonies. It will play some role, as yet undefined, in technical training arrangements for overseas students in Britain.

3. OFFICIAL PROGRAMME

i) Overall total

Out of an overall figure of some £150m for British aid to developing countries in 1962/3, about £9.8m was allocated to specifically educational or training projects by the British Government, and a further £½m through the United Nations (as explained above). In addition to these, there are other contributions, of a basically educational nature, which do not appear in official aid estimates. These are the Low-Priced Book Scheme and the FBI Overseas Scholarship Scheme for which together the estimates amounted to approximately £225,000 in 1962/3, the 'hidden' subsidy of about £9m to students from developing countries in British universities and technical colleges, and British Council expenditure.

It is not easy to pick out from British Council expenditures those which might properly be called educational assistance to developing countries. The Council itself calculates that, of its budget of £8m in 1962/3, 80% was for developing countries and 90% of this was for educational activities, which would give a total of about £5.7m for educational assistance to developing countries. If one deducts from this 72% of the Council's earnings of £500,000, and the £242,000 payment by the DTC for technical assistance, Commonwealth Educational Co-operation, CD & W, etc. — which is already counted as educational aid under those schemes — one is left with some £5m of the Council's budget.

How is this spent? Tables 1 and 2 (Appendix 1) show that £1.637m is expended on grants to educational institutions (capital and recurrent grants, subsidisation of British teachers), the supply of books and periodicals, and the building of hostels and residences for overseas students in Britain. The other £3.3m is harder to define. Some of it is used for readily identifiable educational assistance activities such as the organisation of specialist tours overseas, the provision of courses in Britain, or the salaries of the 66 full-time English language teachers, 17 qualified British librarians and 187 local library staff in developing countries. Much of the remainder would be staff salaries and administrative overheads.

The Treasury rule in respect of the DTC itself is not to count such items as part of British overseas assistance; however, it does not apply this rigorously so as to exclude the administrative costs of all the various bodies supported by the DTC, such as the IUC and TETOC — those, admittedly small, are counted as aid. It might therefore seem legitimate to count such British Council expenditures, too. This seems all the more justifiable if one considers the nature of the overheads and of the staff activities. The non-salary overhead costs are incurred partly on running such facilities as libraries in the developing countries, or student centres

in Britain. The overseas staff of the Council perform an invaluable role in maintaining contact with local educational authorities and institutions, providing advice on such matters as syllabuses and teaching methods, engaging in part-time teaching, inspecting teaching posts for which the Council has been asked to recruit and helping British teachers with any difficulties, providing information on educational opportunities in Britain and selecting applicants, supervising examinations and so on.

At home, perhaps the main task is to look after the well-being — in the widest sense — of overseas students in Britain. This involves not only help with finding accommodation and arranging social activities, but also academic supervision and finding places in educational institutions, arranging special courses and so on. All these home and overseas activities clearly contribute immensely to the effectiveness of Britain's educational aid effort. It is for this reason that they are included below — although not without natural reservations as to whether such a large and somewhat amorphous total should be accepted wholesale as 'educational assistance' and not without the recognition that the recipient developing countries could hardly be expected to include the whole of this in their own tally of 'aid received'.

This gives the following picture of the official British contribution through education and training assistance in 1962/3:

	£'000	
U. K. bilateral education and training projects	9,850	(all figures very approximate
U. K. contribution thro' UN	500	
Low-Priced Books and FBI Scholarships	225	
'Hidden' subsidies to students in Britain	9,000	
British Council: Identifiable Schemes (Tables 1 & 2)	1,650	
British Council: Other Educational Assistance ...	3,350	
	24,575	

On the basis of these rough calculations, the official contribution to education in developing countries can be estimated at £20-25m. £25m seems nearer the mark than £20m, and may even be on the low side, especially when it is remembered that the contributions listed above exclude (a) the cost of educational experts and of equipment for education and training institutions under technical assistance agreements; (b) DTC overheads; (c) the cost of welfare and social services (National Health Service, etc.) to students in this country; and (d) whatever proportion of 'untied' financial grants and loans to overseas governments is spent by them on educa-

tion. All the above items represent grants by Britain. With a few trifling exceptions in the past, the British Government has not made any of its educational assistance available in the form of loans.

ii) Types of Assistance

The main ways in which Britain helps developing countries through education and training are financial grants (mostly capital sums for educational buildings, but also a few recurrent subsidies); supply of British teachers and experts on education for service in developing countries; provision of training for overseas students in Britain; supply of educational materials and equipment; provision of advice and research. Provision of training facilities in Britain is covered in Section V, but an account of the other activities is given below.

(a) Financial Assistance:

The three main schemes through which financial aid earmarked for educational projects is channelled are Colonial Development and Welfare Schemes, capital assistance to Nigerian Higher Education, and British Council grants to educational institutions.

Much the most important of these is CD & W. About 90% of the educational schemes under CD & W are for capital projects, the remaining very much smaller amounts being for recurrent expenditures, teacher-training, scholarships, training, etc. (see Table 4). The outlays under CD & W fall into two groups for administrative purposes. First there are grants to university and higher technical institutions: these are centrally administered and allocated amongst the institutions from London. The Secretary for Technical Co-operation (formerly the Colonial Secretary) relies on the advice of the Colonial University Grants Advisory Committee (CUGAC) and the Council for Technical Education and Training for Overseas Countries (TETOC) in making these grants. Second there are the grants to primary, secondary, technical (below the higher technical level) and vocational education which are territorially administered. As with other CD & W projects, the educational schemes are prepared in the colonies and are submitted to London for approval. These schemes are all referred to the Educational Adviser and his staff, whose concern is largely to see that the project makes sense in terms of an overall educational development plan, and that the necessary teachers and recurrent support are forthcoming to enable the institution to be effectively run once it is built. Only in exceptional circumstances are grants made for recurrent as well as capital expenditure — though the capital side is naturally taken to include not only buildings but also initial equipment and sometimes libraries.

Britain's share of the cost of any CD & W project varies from a very small share up to 100%, depending on the financial position of

the territory and the urgency of the scheme. From 1946-62 commitments to educational projects, most of them involving capital expenditure, totalled £58½m, of which £21½m was for higher education, £27m for primary and secondary education, and £10m for technical and vocational education (see Table 6). Of the projected expenditure in 1962/3 under CD & W, £1.35m was for universities and £200,000 for higher technical institutions which are centrally administered and allocated grants, and probably about £4m in the form of territorially administered grants for primary and secondary general education and for technical and vocational education.

The first expenditures under the programme of capital assistance to Nigeria's plan for developing higher education were incurred in 1962/3 when the estimate was £¼m; the 1963/4 estimate is £900,000 and further expenditure up to a total of £5m will be undertaken in future years. It seems likely that most of the funds will be devoted to the development of the Ahmadu Bello University in Northern Nigeria, and advanced teacher training and technical institutes in each Region.

The British Council makes grants to certain schools and educational institutions overseas. A school is not considered eligible for financial help unless it is:

a) non-profit making;
b) efficiently and economically run and maintaining a satisfactory standard of education;
c) drawing a majority of its pupils from local nationals;
d) run on British lines with at least a nucleus of British staff;
e) unable to be self-supporting or to rely on other sources; a usual condition of help is that the Council sees the accounts and is represented on the governing board.

Apart from subsidies to teaching posts (see following section), the Council in 1962/3 made some £22,000 available in capital grants, and £124,000 in recurrent subsidies to schools and educational institutions. This ratio was the reverse of that in 1960/1, when £100,000 was given in capital grants and £40,000 in recurrent subsidies.

(b) Supply of Teachers

In this section, the work in the recruitment field of those independent bodies like the British Council, the Inter-University Council, and the Council for Training and Technical Education for Overseas Countries, which are financed almost entirely by the British Government, is included; also, for convenience, the Association of Universities of the British Commonwealth, which does not receive financial help from the Government. In varying degrees these bodies act for or co-operate with the Government in recruiting teachers for the developing countries. The activities of private

recruiting agencies and the volunteer-sending bodies, to which the Government makes financial contributions in some cases, are described in Section IV. Appendix 2 contains a list of the recruiting and other bodies, public and private, concerned with the supply of British teachers to the developing countries.

The Government is not an employer of teachers in Britain and so cannot itself transfer teachers on secondment for service overseas, as, for instance, the French Government can. It nevertheless plays an important role in helping to find British teachers for posts in the developing countries. Traditionally, this is a field where non-governmental bodies have played a leading part, but the British Government has recently been assuming a more positive role. It encourages the supply of teachers in three main ways. First, at the request of overseas Governments it directly recruits teachers for service in overseas schools, and helps to finance the recruitment activities of other bodies in Britain. Second, under the Overseas Service Aid Scheme and Commonwealth Educational Co-operation (CEC), it gives financial help to enable Commonwealth governments to offer salaries for 'key posts' attractive enough to obtain British teachers. Third, it has taken the initiative in trying to create the right climate of opinion among teachers in Britain, particularly by encouraging local authorities to provide those going overseas with assurances about their re-employment in Britain on their return. These three types of activity are, of course, closely bound up with one another, although for convenience they are discussed separately below.

1. Recruitment

Overall figures for the number of British teachers recruited each year for service in developing countries are not available. The National Council for the Supply of Teachers Overseas (NCSTO), based on the Ministry of Education, estimates that in 1961/2 some 800 teachers left posts in Britain for posts in developing countries, approximately 700 in the Commonwealth (of which 200 were posts in Service schools) and 100 in foreign countries. However, these figures exclude university teachers, and would not take account of teachers who were not recruited from a teaching post, including the many volunteers with degrees or other qualifications who go to teach every year in developing countries. It seems likely that 1,500 or more British teachers of all kinds go to developing countries each year, and that, if one includes those on full-time educational work with the missions, there may be about 5,000 British teachers in the developing countries at present.

By no means all of those included in the NCSTO figures would be recruited through the official recruiting machinery described in this section. In many cases recruitment for schools in independent countries is done either direct by the schools themselves or through the High Commission or embassy of the country concerned. Where

a British recruiting agency is used it may just as likely be one of the private agencies listed in Section IV.

It is convenient to discuss the recruitment of teachers under four distinct heads — school teachers, university teachers, technical teachers, and educational 'experts'.

School Teachers

On request, the Department of Technical Co-operation (DTC) itself undertakes the recruitment of school teachers for governmental schools in the colonies, and it is continuing to handle this recruitment for some of the newly independent Commonwealth countries such as Tanganyika and Sierra Leone. (This recruitment was formerly a Colonial Office function). The DTC is also prepared to try to recruit teachers for other independent governments on request, as a rule making no charge for this service apart from the direct cost of advertising posts. In fact, few overseas Governments have availed themselves of this facility, apart from some Middle Eastern and North African Governments, for whom the British Government (originally the Foreign Office) has acted as agent in the recruitment of British experts, including teachers, for a number of years. The DTC recruits only in response to requests from overseas governments, passing requests from other bodies in developing countries to the other recruiting agencies in Britain. These teachers are all employed and paid by the overseas government concerned, although, as explained later, the British Government sometimes 'tops up' the basic salary to make it more attractive.

The biggest demand from overseas is undoubtedly for graduate teachers, but every effort is being made to encourage overseas authorities to ask also for well-qualified non-graduate teachers from Britain. At the British end, consideration is also being given to encouraging young, trained, but comparatively inexperienced, graduates to serve overseas in view of the shortage of teachers abroad. In the past, the main effort has been concentrated on experienced graduate teachers.

Over the years 1957-61, the British Government recruited in total 1,215 teachers for the colonies and 17 for Middle Eastern and North African countries. In 1962, a further 141 teachers were recruited for the colonies, 106 for the independent Commonwealth (for the Governments of Sierra Leone (1), Tanganyika (39), Uganda (66)), and 6 for foreign governments, and 198 vacancies were outstanding on 31st December, 1962.

The relatively high place of East Africa in DTC's recruitment figures is partly accounted for by the special effort concentrated on that area in connection with the Anglo-American Teachers for East Africa Scheme. Under this Scheme, which began in 1961, the USA and Britain agreed to try to recruit a certain number of teachers every year for service in Kenya, Uganda and Tanganyika,

and to share the task equally. Britain supplied eight teachers in 1961 and just over 50 in 1962, although she did not match the efforts of the USA in those years. The target for the Scheme in 1963 is 270 teachers, with Britain and the USA each contributing about equal numbers. An interesting arrangement for finding some of the teachers needed is to provide for British and American graduates to do their one-year Diploma of Education course at Makerere University College in Uganda, before teaching for two further years in East African countries. About 50 of the British target of 135 will be recruited in this way in 1963, and it is hoped the remainder will comprise 35 newly trained teachers and 50 experienced graduate teachers from Britain. In 1961 and 1962, 50% of the fees and maintenance costs of the year at Makerere was met from CEC funds. Beginning in 1963, however, Britain will meet the full costs of training the British graduates at Makerere.

The British Council is also recruiting school teachers for service in developing countries. It sometimes acts as (paid) agent of the DTC, as in the case of school posts in India and Pakistan which have qualified for assistance from CEC funds. There seem to be no hard and fast rules about whether the DTC, the Council, or other bodies should handle recruitment for a particular post — decisions are taken on an ad hoc basis, bearing in mind the special sphere of interest and the resources of each organisation. British Council recruitment of teachers on behalf of the DTC is, however, a numerically less important part of its work than recruitment at the direct request of institutions overseas, such as the schools with which the Council has traditionally close relationships. The Council will nearly always undertake recruitment in response to such requests, once it is satisfied that the terms offered are reasonable. In 1961 the Council recruited a total of 140 British school teachers and 5 teacher trainees, most of them for developing countries, as against requests for 186 and 17 respectively. In 1962 the figures were 138 school teachers (189 requested), and 15 teacher trainers (20 requested). Over half of the teaching posts filled by the British Council are teachers of English. About two-thirds of the posts recruited for by the British Council are in foreign countries.

University teachers

Government departments do not generally recruit for university posts, although a few university posts have been filled under technical assistance agreements. Where requests are made to the DTC for filling university posts, the actual recruiting is normally undertaken by the Inter-University Council (IUC), the British Council, or to a lesser extent, the Association of Universities of the British Commonwealth. These three bodies are all independent of Government; the first two, however, are financed almost entirely from Government funds and make no charge to overseas universities for their recruitment services, while the AUBC is financed by the

subscriptions of its members and charges a moderate fee for each appointment. The requests they receive for filling university posts reach them direct rather than through Government channels, with the exception of some of those handled by the British Council.

Largely for historical reasons, there is a more or less geographical division of responsibility between these three organisations in their recruitment of British teachers for universities and colleges in developing countries. The IUC traditionally handles recruitment for university institutions in the West Indies, most of Commonwealth Africa, Malta, Singapore and Sudan; the British Council recruits for India, Pakistan and Ceylon, and many foreign developing countries; whilst AUBC's recruitment for universities in developing countries is concentrated on Hong Kong and the University of Malaya at Kuala Lumpur. Some Commonwealth universities, notably those of Ghana, have their own recruiting offices in Britain. In 1961 the IUC filled 271 vacancies (143 with British nationals) in developing countries, and the British Council 39 (all British). In Hong Kong 17 posts were filled as a result of AUBC recommendations; the numbers for Kuala Lumpur are not known. Figures for 1962 are available only for the British Council, which filled 36 posts with British teachers.

The British Council also financed the travel costs of six British university teachers and research workers who went to developing countries in 1961/2 under the Commonwealth University Interchange Scheme.

Whilst leaving the main field of university recruitment to these bodies, the DTC itself is very active in facilitating the secondment of university teachers for periods of service in posts in universities in developing countries. Jointly with the British Council it provides the secretariat of the Committee for University Secondment (under the chairmanship of Sir Charles Morris), which promotes such secondments. The Committee has funds at its disposal drawn from CEC, and concentrates its efforts on trying to fill individual key posts in overseas universities on a secondment basis, some of the appointments being short-term. The Morris Committee does no actual recruiting itself.

Technical teachers

The recruitment of technical teachers and lecturers is primarily the responsibility of the Council for Technical Education and Training for Overseas Countries (TETOC), established early in 1962. When previously operating as the Council for Overseas Colleges of Arts, Science and Technology (COCAST) the Council was restricted in its operations to the colonies: in 1961 30 posts had been filled in the colonies. TETOC filled 17 posts between April and December of 1962. As well as recruiting direct for overseas institutions it handles a considerable volume of recruiting work for UNESCO, and was responsible for 8 appointments under UNESCO in 1962. The

Council intends to set up a register of people interested in hearing about appointments overseas in its field.

Educational 'experts'

This category includes people who may be senior lecturers or professors in higher education institutions, or educational administrators, inspectors and advisers supplied and paid for under technical assistance arrangements by Britain or by international agencies. It is intended that Britain shall supply fewer actual teachers under technical assistance schemes to Commonwealth countries, since CEC funds can now be used for this purpose, but a few will still go to foreign countries through technical assistance; either the DTC or the British Council recruits these as a rule. Over the period 1957-61, Britain supplied a total of 99 educational 'experts' on long term appointments under technical assistance schemes, and a further 19 in 1962. In addition some 80 British 'experts' in education were appointed to UN and other international assistance posts in 1957-61 and a further 80 in 1962.

Summary Table on Recruitment of British Teachers for Developing Countries.

Category	Recruiting Body	1961	1962
School teachers and teacher-trainers	DTC	141	236
	British Council[X]	145	153
University teachers	British Council[X]	39	36
	IUC	143 (271)[*]	n. a.
	AUBC	17+	n. a.
Technical teachers	TETOC	30	17
Educational 'experts': UK Technical Assistance	DTC	24	19
International Technical Assistance	DTC & TETOC	28	80
Miscellaneous	British Council[X]	42	42
Total		609	n. a.

[X] British Council figures include some recruits for developed countries. Out of 231 teachers of all categories recruited in 1962, 178 were for developing countries, 53 for developed.
[*] 271 is grand total, including non-British teachers.
+ Hong Kong only
Source: Individual recruiting agencies.

Britain also supplies a number of people for shorter term visits of an advisory or teaching nature, and these include the

British Council's specialist tours and advisory visits and the vacation courses for teachers in Africa. The vacation courses started in Nigeria in 1961 and were held there again in 1962, with 60 people the first year and 74 the second. Those participating were fairly senior people from British schools and training colleges, as well as some inspectors of schools who went out for four weeks in the summer vacation to train Nigerian teachers, mostly primary teachers but also some secondary teachers. In 1963, East and Central African countries are being brought into the scheme for the first time, and, out of 70 British personnel, about 40 will go to Nigeria and the remainder to Uganda, Tanganyika and Nyasaland. The cost of the scheme, apart from local costs, is met from CEC funds and is expected to be about £32,000 in 1963.

2. Help with Salaries

Many of the teachers recruited by official British recruiting agencies receive their full salary from the overseas employing government or educational institution. In certain cases, however, staff are directly employed by a British authority, and in other instances British official sources make it possible for teachers to accept posts by 'topping up' local salaries.

In the case of 'experts' under British bilateral technical assistance schemes, the British Government is the employer and pays the entire salary and allowances. Apart from technical assistance people, the only British-employed teachers working for developing countries are British Council staff whose services may be loaned on a part-time basis, or who may be fully seconded to a post. The British Council had 66 full-time English-language teaching members of its staff working in developing countries in 1962/3, and these should be distinguished as a category from the non-Council staff described in the previous section as being recruited by the Council on a shorter term basis for service in developing countries. These British Council English-language teachers thus form something of a career service, and represent a notable exception to the Government's 'golden rule' that its help for education overseas should take the form of persuading teachers to go abroad for short periods.

The existing British Council staff are shortly to be supplemented under the Aid for Commonwealth English (ACE) Scheme, whereby 20-30 experts are being trained to become English-language teacher trainees for service in the Commonwealth. They will be British Council staff, with the difference that their training is being paid for out of CEC funds, and, when seconded to overseas organisations in Commonwealth countries, any necessary 'topping up' above the local salary will be met from the same source.

The three schemes for supplementing local salaries from British funds are the Overseas Service Aid Scheme (OSAS), Commonwealth Educational Co-operation (CEC), and British Council grants. The line of demarcation between the various schemes is not always

easy to determine. OSAS applies to government education posts in the colonies and a few newly independent Commonwealth countries. CEC funds are used for improving conditions for posts not covered by OSAS in Commonwealth countries; these are virtually any teaching posts in countries which are not eligible for and have not accepted OSAS, and posts in OSAS colonies which are outside the Government education system (e.g., mission schools, universities). CEC money can only be used for 'topping up' a locally paid basic salary; if, for some special reason, the British Government wishes to contribute the whole cost of a post in, say, a university, this must be met out of technical assistance funds. Technical assistance has to be used anyway for universities in foreign countries (not eligible for CEC); but it has also been used in one exceptional case in Nigeria. Generally speaking, however, university posts in the Commonwealth have now been removed from the scope of technical assistance, so that the most the local university can hope for is to pay the basic salary of a British teacher and get 'topping up' done from CEC funds or by the British Council.

The division between the British Council and CEC is not clearly defined, especially in the case of university posts in the Indian sub-continent, for which the British Council has traditionally recruited and, which it has in many cases, subsidised, but which are now also eligible for CEC support. The position generally seems to be that the British Council continues to subsidise such posts as it has funds for, and CEC funds cover the rest.

The Overseas Service Aid Scheme (OSAS) inaugurated in April 1961, applies to British colonial territories (with the exception of the Bahamas, Bermuda, Brunei and Hong Kong), and to Jamaica, Tanganyika, Trinidad and Uganda. Nigeria and Sierra Leone rejected participation in the Scheme. The object of the Scheme is to enable overseas governments and administrations to retain the services of overseas officers in their public service. Under the Scheme, financial help is received from the British Government in respect of specially designated expatriate officers. In effect, what happens is that the British Government re-imburses the overseas government for some or all of the additional costs it incurs by employing expatriate officers rather than local officers. Re-imbursement is in full for expatriate pay allowances and the additional part of the pension or contractual gratuity related to them, and children's education allowances. Half the passage costs of officers and their families and of compensation on premature retirement is also re-imbursed. The Scheme applied to 15,418 public service officers on 1st December, 1962, of whom 1,607 were in the educational field. These were mostly from East and Central Africa (Kenya 527, Uganda 311, Tanganyika 277, Northern Rhodesia 125, Nyasaland 66, Zanzibar 31). Out of £14½m allocated to the Scheme in 1962/3, overseas governments were probably benefitting in respect of British teachers and educational personnel to the extent of £1½m.

CEC funds are only available in respect of 'key posts', and requests for help are in the case of school teachers examined by an interdepartmental working party, and in the case of university posts by the Committee on University Secondment, to see whether the posts concerned are of sufficient importance to merit assistance. The criteria used in these cases seem to be first whether the post is an influential one which it would be advantageous to fill with a British teacher, and second whether the subject is 'important' (e.g. maths rather than music) and there is a shortage of suitably qualified local candidates. In the case of teachers below university level, requests for CEC funds to help induce a British teacher to accept a particular post must come through official channels; the position in the case of university teachers is less clear owing to the independent status of universities in the Commonwealth — usually the consent of the Commonwealth Government is obtained, or at least it is kept informed of help being given to universities in its country.

Each autumn, Commonwealth developing countries are invited to submit requests for financial assistance for key posts which they wish to fill with British teachers the following autumn. In 1962, requests were received from 17 countries in respect of 211 posts; and allowances were approved for 174 of these, 147 in independent countries and 27 in the colonies. The approval of a post for allowances is normally prior to the actual recruitment of a British teacher for that post and implies no sort of undertaking of any kind to find a teacher for it. There is no stipulation that recruitment for posts subsidised by CEC funds should be through the British Government or any other specific body.

The actual form of the assistance given includes for teachers the payment of special allowances to bring the salary the overseas employer can afford to offer up to more acceptable levels; fares to and from the United Kingdom for the teacher and members of his family, insurance against accident and illness, and certain other schemes such as terminal grants and help with travel expenses for interviews, which ease the move back to Britain at the end of the contract period. For university posts the British Council's 'formula terms', which cover more or less the same points, are applied. In general at the university level it is only posts on the Indian sub-continent that require to be subsidised in this way, since in other Commonwealth areas the salaries offered tend to be sufficient to attract British candidates.

It was originally envisaged that the numbers of additional teachers of all categories recruited as a result of the CEC scheme would be about 75 in 1960, rising to 135 per year by 1963; by 1965, allowing for an average length of contract of 3 years, there would be an extra 400 British teachers serving in schools and universities in the Commonwealth, costing about £700,000 per year. This would imply some 275 teachers recruited by the end of 1962, but at 31st December, 1962, teachers overseas under CEC schemes numbered

only about 60 (45 in schools posts and 15 in university posts), and it is unlikely that more than £100,000 was spent on topping up schemes in the financial year 1962/3.

In some of the university cases, the help from CEC funds was not for topping up salaries at all, but for such expenses as fares for people seconded for very short periods of perhaps two or three months only. Thus nothing like the 400 additional teachers has been forthcoming yet through the use of CEC money. It should be remembered, however, that the OSAS scheme had not been worked out when the CEC plan was first announced, and it might have been expected that many more teachers for the Colonies would be recruited using CEC money than has in fact been necessary.

The British Council has funds for subsidising teaching posts in foreign and Commonwealth schools and universities. Where the Council recruits for Commonwealth countries such as Ceylon, India and Pakistan, the posts may be subsidised from CEC funds, but this is by no means always the case. Expenditure by the Council on the subsidisation of posts was estimated at £323,800 in 1962/3, and the foreign countries element (£229,000) represented the only monies outside technical assistance funds provided by the British Government for encouraging British teachers to take up posts in foreign countries. The posts assisted in this way are largely, though not exclusively, for the teaching of the English language.

3. Re-Employment

Since government policy is to recruit for short periods for overseas service, it has been necessary to ensure that satisfactory guarantees about re-employment in Britain can be given. This involves the co-operation of local education authorities and others, and accordingly for appointments below the university level a National Council for the Supply of Teachers Overseas has been set up, with its secretariat at the Ministry of Education, to try to ensure that employers offer every encouragement to teachers going overseas for a few years, and give adequate recognition to the value of such service. In addition to these efforts directed at producing the right climate of opinion, there are also certain more tangible schemes designed to ensure that teachers have adequate prospects of re-employment.

The most important of these schemes is the "Code of Secondment",which provides for re-employment of the teacher in Britain at the end of his period of service overseas, with unimpaired superannuation rights and entitlement to salary increases for the years spent overseas. It is within the discretion of local education authorities to apply the terms of the Code to any teacher whom they agree to second to an overseas post. They are particularly encouraged to agree to secondment in the case of posts scheduled by the National Council, and these posts in practice include any which are subsidised out of CEC funds. For British teachers in scheduled

posts there is a special interview fund, so that those abroad applying for home posts can attend interviews for which they have been short-listed, at little expense to themselves.

At higher levels, for university appointments, the British Council 'formula terms' are applied. Also, in appropriate cases, the Committee on University Secondment has CEC funds at its disposal for easing the transition back to United Kingdom posts, and in certain circumstances is prepared to consider contributing financially for a period after a man's return to Britain, while he writes up his overseas work and seeks another post. In addition, there has recently been established a university interview fund, financed by the DTC and British Council, for people serving in universities in developing countries.

c) Equipment and Books

Much of the equipment (worth approximately £1m in 1961/2) that Britain is making available under technical assistance agreements is for universities, training establishments and other educational institutions. Under CD & W schemes approved in 1961/2, Britain agreed to pay for at least £350,000 of equipment for educational institutions, mostly at universities in Africa and the West Indies.

Britain is also helping with the supply of books, visual aids and broadcasting material. The British Council maintains or assists some 100 libraries in developing countries with a book stock of over ½ million books. In a few areas, the Council keeps multiple copies of certain key text books, which it then loans out. In 1962/3 the Council expected to spend £238,000 on books and periodicals for developing countries, and a further £51,000 on films, partly intended for use in developing countries. The Council also co-operates with the BBC in making material available for radio and television transmission in developing countries.

The British Government's Low-Priced Book Scheme, first announced in 1959, was launched in 1961 in Asia and applies to 15 Asian countries; the more limited University Textbooks series applies only to India, Pakistan, Ceylon, Nepal and Afghanistan. By March 1963, 1.5m books had been printed under the scheme, of which 750,000 were university textbooks. The books are chosen by a committee of independent experts from already published titles. The essence of the scheme is that the Government gives a subsidy and/or a 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 dispose of these at prices which are in the region of one-third the normal published price in Britain. The amount of the government subsidy averages a few shillings per copy, and the total cost to the British Government was £90,000 in 1961/2 and will probably turn out to have been rather over £100,000 in 1962/3, as compared with the £200,000 originally

estimated. It was announced in May 1963 that the University Textbook Series will be extended to Africa, beginning with West Africa.

d) Advice and Research

In the Department of Technical Co-operation there is an Education Advisory section, whose staff were originally advisory to the Secretary of State for the Colonies on colonial education matters. Their advisory functions are performed in relation to the British Government, but in practice advice is not infrequently sought on an informal basis by overseas governments, both independent and dependent, and the staff of the section make frequent visits abroad.

As already noted, the Government makes advice available under technical assistance agreements by seconding experts for service abroad. The function of many of the 19 education experts sent abroad under these arrangements in 1962 was advisory rather than teaching or lecturing. One field particularly worthy of mention in which Britain has been able to help developing countries with advice based on her own experience is the design and building of schools.

In the fields of higher and higher technical education, the IUC and TETOC each have as their main function the tendering of advice and expert help to the overseas institutions with whom they have links. In many cases members of these Councils sit on the governing bodies of overseas institutions, and there are frequent visits for consultation and exchange of views under the auspices of IUC and TE TOC between Britain and the developing countries.

The British Council also assists in this field, particularly through its network of overseas representatives, and also by bringing groups of teachers and education officials over to Britain for study tours of educational institutions or for short courses, and by holding occasional courses and conferences overseas. In 1961/2 the Council arranged study tours in Britain for fifteen groups of educationalists from developing countries. It also arranged for specialist tours and advi sory visits overseas by over 100 experts from Britain, who, between them, made about 200 visits to developing countries in 1961/2. The Council also performs special advisory functions in English teaching through its English Teaching Information Centre in London, and through its publication "English Teaching Abstracts".

On the research side the British Government's record of assistance to overseas education is not good. Despite the large expenditure of government aid on overseas education, and the allocation of £21m to all kinds of research under CD & W Acts since 1946, almost nothing has been done in the field of educational research, either in the form of fundamental research, or in fact-finding surveys. In the last four years, of £5½m allocated to research under CD & W, a mere £5,351 was for the only educational project — on educational wastage in Uganda — in spite of the existence of a Social Science Research Council.

IV Private Contribution

This section describes the activities of non-governmental bodies in assisting developing countries through education and training (except for training courses and scholarships in Britain, which are dealt with in Section V). As explained in the Introduction, the private contribution in this field is not well documented, and the account given here cannot be complete. One whole range of activities which is omitted, for instance, is the role of correspondence colleges in helping to prepare students from or in the developing countries for examinations, because it has not been possible to obtain any information about the numbers involved. Another omission is the work overseas of Roman Catholic missionaries. Perhaps, too, the role of British publishers and printers in producing textbooks and educational materials for use abroad deserves greater attention than it has been possible to give in this study; British books exports were £17½m in 1962.

In a very few cases, the activities described in this section are partly financed to some extent by the British Government out of CD & W or CEC funds. Bodies receiving small Government contributions to their work in 1962/3 included Catholic Overseas Appointments, the Women's Migration and Oversea Appointments Society, International Voluntary Service, the United Nations Association, Voluntary Service Overseas, the Centre for Educational Television Overseas, the Oversea Visual Aids Centre, London University (for its special relationship scheme), and the Federation of British Industries for its Overseas Scholarship Scheme. In addition, some of the staff secondment schemes operated by British universities are eligible for help from CEC or other DTC funds.

It has been found convenient to put the private organisations involved into six main groups and list them (not in any order of importance) as follows:

1) Churches and Missionary Societies, which have long been bound up with education in developing countries and today continue to contribute both with personnel and money;
2) Independent Recruiting Agencies and Volunteer Schemes, whose contribution is to send people out for educational work;
3) Foundations, which give financial support to a variety of projects
4) Universities, which help with advice and staff and running examinations;
5) the Centre for Educational Television Overseas (CETO) and the Oversea Visual Aids Centre (OVAC), which provide training and advice, and act as clearing houses for information in their respective fields;
6) Private Firms, which make an immense contribution, particularly through training and gifts.

1. Missionary Societies and Churches

In the developing countries of the Commonwealth in particular, and in many others besides, missionary societies and churches based on Britain were instrumental in founding and building up the educational system. For instance, in almost all areas in Africa they were in the field well before Government, and supported education both with men and money from the eighteenth century onwards. As recently as 1945, the Elliot Commission on Higher Education in West Africa could say:

> 'It is a very remarkable thing that even today, if the educational institutions conducted and supervised by the religious bodies were suddenly to vanish, the greater part of education in British West Africa would practically disappear. It is a simple historical fact that, save for the Churches, now largely Africanised, no-one has so far seriously tackled on the grand scale the sheer hard work of African education.'

Today, however, education is increasingly provided by the State, very often in partnership with local churches, and much of the continuing contribution of the churches in Britain is, therefore, indirect. The voluntary services and the foundations and trusts are now carrying forward what the churches began. Even so, the missionary societies in this country continue to aid education, particularly in Commonwealth Africa, with both men and money. A recent survey by the Overseas Development Institute of 85 Societies, mostly in membership of the Conference of British Missionary Societies and the Evangelical Missionary Alliance, showed the following figures for British nationals working under Protestant missionary society auspices in developing countries in 1961/2. Many, but not all, of the workers in specialised fields had a degree or some professional qualification. Comparable figures for the very considerable contribution of the Roman Catholic Church, through its different missionary orders, are not as yet available.

Summary Table: Overseas Staff of British Protestant Missionary Societies.

Type of Work Undertaken	No. in Field 1962	New Recruits Sent Out in 1961/2
Pastoral/Evangelical	1525) + 158	174
Educational	874)	107
Medical	1025	109
Agricultural	38	4
Secretarial and Accountancy	176	24
Other	640	46
TOTAL	4436	464

Source: Information supplied to the Overseas Development Institute by 85 Protestant Missionary Societies in Britain.

As for the financial contribution, amounts remitted overseas by the Protestant missionary societies alone certainly run into millions of pounds a year, but it is not possible to form any reliable estimate of the proportion of this earmarked for educational purposes.

As well as helping through the missionary societies, the various churches in Britain contribute money for work overseas in other ways, notably through Inter-Church Aid, through which in 1960/1 at least £400,000 went to projects in developing countries. Most of this went to refugee work and similar activities, but about £30,000 was spent on Youth Training in British Honduras, Kenya, Tanganyika and Nigeria; and there was a scholarship programme for about 20 theological and lay students from developing countries. In addition, Inter-Church Aid has regularly contributed to Voluntary Service Overseas (VSO), which it played a major part in starting. In 1962, the grant was £20,000, and at present about 70 volunteers from VSO are working on Inter-Church Aid projects in developing countries, more than half of them being engaged in teaching.

2. Independent Recruiting Agencies and Volunteer Schemes

Many British teachers go overseas each year under individual arrangements, through a recruiting agency or under missionary or voluntary societies. The exact numbers of individuals recruited directly by overseas embassies and High Commissions in Britain, or by schools and other authorities overseas, is not known, but information is available from the recruiting agencies, volunteer-sending societies and missionary societies (see above) on their work in this field. In this section recruiting agencies are distinguished from the societies sending volunteers. The distinction is based on a difference of function. The recruiting agencies recruit teachers and others for service in the employment of schools and educational authorities overseas. Their job is that of an ordinary agency trying to match applicants with employers' requirements — except that these particular agencies are unlike a commercial agency in so far as they are non-profit making and have been consistently motivated by the ideal of service. The societies sending volunteers are similarly motivated by the ideal of service, but they themselves employ their recruits (often loaning their services to others), and are responsible for them throughout their work overseas.

(i) Recruiting Agencies

The recruiting agencies listed below receive most of their requests from overseas through schools and other authorities with whom they have traditionally close links. Candidates consist of those who come forward of their own accord in search of appointments, or in response to advertisements. The agencies all parti-

cipate in the Churches' Teachers for Africa Campaign.

(a) Catholic Overseas Appointments (COA).

COA was started in March 1962 to take over work previously performed on a less systematic basis by the Newman Association and Sword of the Spirit in recruiting men and women for service overseas. Its main activity is to recruit teachers and some others for Roman Catholic bodies overseas, in practice almost entirely in the developing countries. Most appointees are Catholics but this is not a pre-condition of appointment.

COA received a small £1,000 grant from the British Government in 1962 (to match one the Overseas Appointments Bureau had received some years ago). It makes a charge of £45 for each candidate satisfactorily posted. In 1962, 29 teachers, 1 doctor and 1 nurse were sent to developing countries.

(b) Overseas Appointments Bureau (OAB)

The OAB has been in existence for approximately 10 years, having been founded by the Institute of Christian Education at Home and Overseas. Originally, recruitment was strictly limited to practising Christians for appointments in schools with a Christian connection, but it has not always been possible in practice to stick rigidly to this. Today about 200 schools overseas are on the OAB's books. A fee of £45 is charged for each candidate satisfactorily posted. From 1952 to 1961, 702 appointments were made to schools in developing countries through the OAB, and in the year 1961/2 there were a further 106 appointments.

(c) Women's Migration and Oversea Appointments Society (WMOAS)

Formerly known as the Society for the Oversea Settlement of British Women, WMOAS was constituted in its present form in 1920. It acts on behalf of overseas employers, and recruits women who intend to emigrate or serve overseas for at least two years. It has traditionally had close ties with the Government, from whom it has in recent years been receiving £10,000 p. a., and this, with its other income, has enabled it to charge no fees for its work. Owing to a change in Government policy, the Treasury grant has been reduced and will shortly cease. The Society set up a working party to investigate the possibility of raising sufficient income to continue some of its activities. Recruitment will probably in future be on a fee-paying basis. Much of the Society's work is in or on behalf of the more developed Commonwealth countries and South Africa, but in 1962 48 teachers were sent to less-developed countries, as well as 153 nurses and 34 secretarial workers.

(ii) Volunteer Schemes

The sending of long-term volunteers to work on projects in the developing countries is comparatively new, although the idea of volunteer work, largely inspired by Christian organisations, has been given expression through work camps, etc, in Europe over a long period. Volunteers may work on specific projects of the sending organisation, or on projects under the auspices of bodies such as the United Nations, or may be loaned to the Governments of developing countries.

Recently Government support, which was already given on a moderate scale to Voluntary Service Overseas (VSO) (see below), has been extended to the Graduate Voluntary Service Overseas scheme. As a result of meetings between the DTC and voluntary societies, which were called by the Secretary for Technical Co-operation, 36 graduate volunteers were sent to Africa as teachers in the autumn of 1962, through VSO, at an estimated cost of £18,000, which is being met in full by the Government. It was also decided at these meetings to set up a Committee, under the chairmanship of Sir John Lockwood, to co-ordinate and extend the programme for graduate volunteers in 1963/4. The voluntary societies represented on this Committee plan to send 250 volunteers overseas in the autumn of 1963. The Government is prepared to contribute the full cost of 75 volunteers and half the cost of a further 100, with a ceiling of £125,000. The remainder of the cost of this scheme will be met by contributions from the Oxford Committee for Famine Relief, the Freedom from Hunger Campaign, and participating voluntary societies themselves and other bodies. The volunteers will all be sent out under the sponsorship of the individual society recruiting them, however, and they will not in any sense be officially representatives of Britain.

The graduate volunteer scheme is only now getting under way, whereas the societies concerned have been sending volunteers, graduate and otherwise, for some time. The following are the main societies involved, and all the figures refer to long-term volunteers on at least six months' service.

(a) International Voluntary Service (IVS)

This is the British wing of Service Civil International. In 1962 IVS sent out 22 qualified volunteers on long-term appointments to Algeria, Mauritius and Asian countries. Four of the volunteers were qualified teachers, and a further three were graduates, although only one was doing specifically teaching work and the others were engaged on general activities. The Government is making available £530 to IVS in 1962/3 to help with its programme.

(b) National Union of Students (NUS) and Scottish Union of Students (SUS)

The NUS started sending graduate volunteers in 1962. In that year six were sent at the Union's expense (none of them under the official graduate volunteer scheme) to Bolivia, Gabon, Senegal and Bechuanaland. Four of the six were in teaching or other education work. Like NUS, SUS hopes to send out volunteers under the graduate volunteer scheme in 1963.

(c) United Nations Association of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (UNA)

UNA sent six volunteers of graduate or equivalent status to developing countries at its own expense in 1962, and a further two with government help. Four of the eight were engaged on educational work. The Association was allocated £3,600 by the Government for the financial year 1962/3, although only about half this was spent.

(d) Voluntary Service Overseas (VSO)

VSO was founded in 1958, originally to send young people abroad in the year between school and going to university, but it now sends graduates as well. Since the start it has sent 620 volunteers overseas, the great majority to developing countries, and the 1962 figure was 345, including 36 graduates under the pilot graduate volunteer scheme, in 50 different countries. All 36 graduates were engaged on teaching and about 60-65% of the others. Generally speaking, apart

Summary Table: Recruitment of Teachers and Volunteers by Private Organisations

Agency or Scheme	Period	Teachers and Educationalists Proceeding Abroad to Developing Countries	Other Categories of Workers to Developing Countries	Amount of Gov'ment Help 1962/3 * £
COA	Mar-Dec.'62	29	2	1,000
OAB	1961/2	106	-	-
WMOAS	1962	48	187	10,000
IVS	1962	1	21	530
NUS	1962	4	2	-
UNA	1962	4 +	4	3,600
VSO	1962/3	240 + approx.	105 approx.	34,700
TOTAL		432	321	49,830

* Allocations under the estimates: not actual expenditures.
+ UNA figure includes two under the graduate volunteer scheme: VSO includes 36.

from some of the graduates and a few apprentices, VSO's volunteers have no specialist qualifications. Since it was founded up to the end of March 1962, VSO received a total of £28,220 from CD & W funds and the British Council. In the financial year 1962/3 it allocated for its normal volunteer programme £13,200 from CD & W and other DTC funds, £3,500 from British Council funds in respect of 12 posts in India for which the Council was originally responsible, and £18,000 from Commonwealth Educational Co-operation funds for its graduate volunteers.

3. Foundations and Trusts

A great many private bequest funds, foundations, trusts, etc., make available scholarships either open to, or specifically for, students and trainees from the developing countries, and it is not possible to mention them all. In addition to scholarships and bursaries, however, certain British Foundations and Trusts have provided substantial sums for the development of education in developing countries in other ways — the most notable in this field perhaps being the Dulverton Trust, the Leverhulme Trust, the Nuffield Foundation and the Wolfson Foundation. More recently the Thomson Foundation has been established. (Since this survey is confined to the British contribution, the roles of the large American foundations such as Carnegie, Ford and Rockefeller, and of the Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation of Lisbon, have been omitted. Even though some of their funds are obtained from activities in Britain, they are controlled elsewhere).

The contributions listed below include only direct help from the Foundations and Trusts. They also of course contribute substantially to the strengthening of institutions in Britain to which developing countries may turn for help in the form of training, research or advice.

(i) The Dulverton Trust

About half the Trust's annual income of £180,000 goes to East Africa and the Central African Federation, to assist schemes for secondary and adult education and the training of youth. It also gives a few scholarships to nationals of developing countries.

(ii) The Leverhulme Trust

The Fourth Report of the Trust covering the three years 1959 to 1961 shows that over the period under review the Trust gave five overseas scholarships to nationals of developing countries for study in Britain, and ten scholarships to people at British universities for study at universities and university colleges in developing countries. In addition to some further assistance to conferences and studies on problems of developing countries, the following grants were made in 1959-61:

	£
London University Institute of Education: for a five year programme to provide a course in the use of mass media for the staffs (mainly overseas) of training colleges and community development organisations.	15,000
University of London, Institute of Dermatology: travel expenses of senior dermatologist to assist at University College Hospital, Ibadan	500
Nottingham University: for exchanges of horticultural students with the Department of Horticulture at Khartoum	2,000
University of Malta: Lecturing Fellowship and Travelling Bursary	2,250
Malta: training grant for social worker	400
Kenya College of Social Studies: salaries of two tutors	9,000
University of Punjab: Professorship of Geology	31,500
London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine: secondment to Makerere College, Uganda	9,000
London: University College Hospital Medical School: interchange of students London/Ibadan	5,000
Commonwealth Society for Deaf: training African teachers of the deaf	12,000
Voluntary Service Overseas	15,000
University of Swansea: research posts to assist in social welfare for developing countries	9,000
Three year total	110,650

(iii) The Nuffield Foundation

One of the objects of the Foundation is 'the advancement of education', and in the single year ending March 31, 1962, as well as educational grants in Britain, the following grants were announced for projects in connection with developing countries:

	£
Centre for Educational Television Overseas (over five years)	100,000
Inter-University Council: for training technicians from overseas university departments	4,000
Educational Resources Africa: for the development of improved educational materials and for the revision of curricula (over three years)	50,000
University College of Rhodesia and Nyasaland: for zoological research at Lake Kariba (over three years)	34,000
African Educational Trust: for training African nurses from S. Rhodesia	10,000

Manchester University Department of Government: to enable it to assist in the development of teaching and research in public administration in E. Africa by sending a member of staff to Nairobi (over five years)	16,000
Royal Commonwealth Society for the Blind: for field project on education of blind children in Northern Rhodesia	15,000
Fourah Bay College, Department of Zoology: for equipment and staff salaries for research in marine biology and in experimental embryology up to 1964	10,100
Government Central Pedagogical Institute, Allahabad, India: Diploma course in teaching of English (over three years)	13,000
Incorporated Association of Headmasters: to help launch a scheme for establishing links between schools in Britain and mission schools in Africa	2,000
Total grants announced in year 1961/2	254,100

In addition to the above, the Foundation contributed wholly or in part to the award of 25 fellowships, scholarships and bursaries to nationals of developing countries.

(iv) The Wolfson Foundation

The Foundation has so far adopted as its principal aims the advancement of education and health in the United Kingdom and the Commonwealth. Trustees have paid great attention to helping colleges and universities in Britain to which developing countries turn for help and for professional standards. In this, medical education has been a special feature. Amongst the grants involving direct assistance to education and training for the developing countries have been:

	£
Commonwealth Hall of Residence, London University	250,000
Hall of Residence, Glasgow University — with Commonwealth students very much in mind	300,000
Rehabilitation Centre for the Deaf, Eastern Nigeria	5,000
Teachers Training College for the Deaf, India	9,000

(v) The Thomson Foundation

The creation of the Thomson Foundation with an endowment of £5m made available by Mr Roy Thomson, was announced in November 1962. The main aims of the Foundation will be to provide training in the skills of modern communications and information media, especially for developing countries. Colleges for training in television are to be established in Glasgow, and for training

journalists in London.

4. British Universities

(i) Schemes of Special Relationship

An account has already been given of the main work of the Inter-University Council, on which all British Universities are represented, in the field of recruitment and advice. In addition, however, individual universities have played a significant role in building up higher education in the Commonwealth, not only by opening their own doors to students from overseas but also through special links with overseas universities.

Most important of all have been the schemes of special relationship between London University and overseas university colleges. Under the scheme, which was first instituted in 1946, the colonial university institutions were established as university colleges in which the students sat for full London degrees. In addition, staffs of the colleges were permitted to register as internal students for London higher degrees. The basic structure of the London degree was maintained for the overseas colleges, but syllabuses were adapted to local requirements, and the examination papers were set and marked jointly by local and London examiners.

Originally the University Colleges at Khartoum (Sudan), Accra (Ghana), Ibadan (Nigeria), West Indies, Makerere (Uganda) and Salisbury (Rhodesia) were all established under this scheme, but the first four have all now graduated to the status of full universities. Makerere will become part of the new University of East Africa (together with Royal College, Nairobi, and University College, Dar-es-Salaam), and the special relationship scheme will then cease, leaving only the University College of Rhodesia and Nyasaland in special relation with London University. Several thousand candidates in the university colleges have qualified for a first London degree since 1946 under this scheme, the number in 1961/2 being 740. In the same year 79 Ph.D. degrees were awarded to members of staffs.

The scheme has involved London University staff in many overseas visits for examination and advisory purposes — these numbered about 70 in 1961/2. Most of these visits have been financed from CD & W funds. The University itself, however, bears any other cost involved in the special relations scheme, including that of maintaining a small administrative office.

An even older scheme of special relationship than the ones involving London University was the affiliation of Codrington College, Barbados, and Fourah Bay College, Sierra Leone (later University College of Sierra Leone), to Durham University. These arrangements, whereby students work for Durham University degrees and diplomas, still operate. Another British University operating a similar scheme of special relationship in a more limited

sphere is Birmingham University, in respect of the medical school at the University College of Rhodesia and Nyasaland.

Undoubtedly all these arrangements have been of considerable assistance to higher education establishments overseas. By lending the new institutions the prestige of old-established universities with high reputations, it has been possible to ensure that higher education in the territories concerned was established on firm foundations. The institutions were able to recruit high-calibre staff, and the students obtained an internationally recognised degree.

(ii) Secondment of Staff

Some British universities have made a special effort to help universities in the developing countries by seconding staff. In some cases the arrangement is between specific universities or faculties, such as the special arrangement between Reading University and Khartoum, or the assistance with staff and advice being given by the University of Edinburgh's Medical Faculty to the Faculty of Medicine at the University of Baroda in India. It may be expected that the Morris Committee on University Secondment (see above) will stimulate the extension of such arrangements.

(iii) Examinations

(a) External degrees

In addition to its special relationship with certain overseas universities, London University also admits overseas candidates to its external degree examinations. These candidates must have the requisite qualifications to enter for the degree, but need not be enrolled in any university or college. In most cases the papers for internal and external degree exams are identical. External degree students can take the exam more than once in the event of failure. London University is the only British university offering external degrees to home or overseas students.

At 31st March 1962 there were 3,666 external students resident overseas who had been approved as candidates for London University degree or diploma exams, and in addition some of those students taking the external degree in Britain were overseas students. Of 1,089 students overseas (almost all of them being nationals of developing countries) who sat for final degree exams under the London external system in 1962, 88 got honours, 147 passed and a further 168 passed part of their exams. A very high proportion of the candidates were from Ceylon and Nigeria.

The London external degree system has been a facility of real value to many hundreds of students overseas for whom there was no opportunity locally of pursuing studies to the level of a university degree or in countries where no external degree system exists.

The academic standards of the University of London are, however, severe, and the failure rate in the external examinations held overseas has been high. Whenever possible, the University of London encourages the development of local institutions, and provides a great deal of advice and assistance through its External Advisory Service; but candidates who show little evidence of ability are often advised to abandon their efforts and are not encouraged to continue to present themselves for examinations in which they can have little prospect of eventual success.

(b) Schools examinations

The main bodies concerned in running the General Certificate of Education (GCE) and school certificate examinations overseas are the University of London Schools Examination Department, and the University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate, which first held overseas exams in Trinidad in 1864. Whilst encouraging the establishment of local examination organisations in the developing countries, particularly those of the Commonwealth, as much as possible, these Boards have not only not yet been able to withdraw, but have found an increasing number of candidates wanting to sit for their exams.

Broadly speaking, the division between London and Cambridge is that London concerns itself only with GCE exams (which can be taken in as few as one or two subjects), and handles most of the individual candidates, e.g., those using correspondence courses, whilst Cambridge has concentrated on school entries and the school certificate pattern of exam, which requires a satisfactory performance in a range of subjects, and also runs exams in English. However, this distinction has become somewhat blurred, and in fact London has become increasingly involved in schools exams, especially at GCE "A" level; whilst Cambridge has in some overseas areas offered a combined school certificate and GCE exam, and examines a few private candidates as well as school candidates. London runs exams twice a year, in January and June-July, and Cambridge once a year, in November. The examinations are held in centres in Africa, Asia and Latin America, with most candidates in Commonwealth East and West Africa, the West Indies, Malaya and Singapore, India and Ceylon. Candidates can take papers in a wide range of subjects, including their native languages (e.g. Bemba, Yoruba, Nepali, Fijian), and in several cases the papers in, for example, history or geography have been adapted to the requirements of local areas. This would be done more often if sufficient text books were available, and it is clear that one reason why so many Africans and Asians study subjects like the British Constitution, which at first might seem only marginally relevant to their situation, is that the subject matter is well documented and teachers are familiar with it.

Some indication of the extent of the examination work under-

taken by London and Cambridge is provided by their latest figures. In the 1961/2 exams London had 130,000 overseas entries for "O" level subjects, and nearly 40,000 at "A" level. Cambridge had 66,000 school certificate and GCE and 11,000 Higher School Certificate entries. Of the London candidates, most of them private, about 20-30% were successful in "O" level subjects and 30-40% at "A" level. The Cambridge figures show 60% school candidates and 25% private candidates successful in the School Certificate exam, and 57% successful in the Higher School Certificate exam.

Other examining bodies which examine students in developing countries include the Associated Examination Board, which holds GCE exams particularly in subjects of interest to those going into industry and commerce, and the City and Guilds of London Institute, which examines over 20,000 students in the developing countries each year in technical subjects, and offers advice on technical education facilities in general. Others in the field include the professional institutions, the Royal Society of Arts, the London Chamber of Commerce and the Oxford and Cambridge Joint Examination Board. Examinations run by all these various bodies and by the London and Cambridge Boards have been found a useful facility in a number of ways in developing countries, by providing a framework of courses and syllabuses for schools and other institutions, by setting stable standards recognised in Britain and throughout the Commonwealth, and by maintaining a link with English culture.

(iv) Study and Research

The number of departments in British universities engaged in studies of African and Asian problems is increasing, and recently the establishment of an Institute of Latin American Studies has been announced. On the specifically educational side the Department of Education in Tropical Areas in London University Institute of Education is pre-eminent, and its staff frequently make advisory visits to developing countries; but other departments and institutes of education have also played their part. Research into the teaching of English overseas as a second language is going on in the universities of Bangor, Edinburgh, Leeds, London and Manchester.

In addition to these activities, the universities put on many specialised courses in Britain for students and trainees from developing countries, as mentioned in Section V below.

5 Centre for Educational Television Overseas (CETO) and Oversea Visual Aids Centre (OVAC)

The Centre for Educational Television Overseas is a private, non-profit-making company, registered as a charity. It is supported by the Department of Technical Co-operation, the Nuffield Foundation, the Independent Television Companies, the Gulbenkian Foundation and a number of companies. The BBC provides free

technical facilities and services. The contributions from the DTC are made from Commonwealth Educational Co-operation funds and will total £100,000 in the first five-year period. The aim of the Centre is to promote the use of television in furthering educational development overseas. Its work includes: training in Britain in the use of educational television for key personnel who are engaged in education and television overseas; preparation of packaged programmes for use in developing countries; information and advice; and research into the best methods of teaching by television.

The Oversea Visual Aids Centre is financed by the Nuffield Foundation, its own revenue, and the British Government out of CD & W funds. Its aim is to give advice and help to teachers and others from overseas in all aspects of the use of audio-visual aids. It runs short training courses in Britain, which were attended by over 400 people in 1962. It offers advisory and information services, and publishes its own bulletin.

6 Banking, Commercial and Industrial Firms

In terms of effort and expenditure on education and training for developing countries, British private firms are outstanding amongst British organisations in this field. For many years British companies with interests overseas have played a major part in the development of skills of local people. The contribution has taken a number of specific forms including, for instance:-

Technical and Management Training in Britain — The number of industrial trainees in Britain from the developing countries may be in the region of 5,000 each year, most but not all of them being employees of the company providing the training, or of its business partners. It has not been possible to obtain comprehensive data on the numbers being trained in Britain by banks, insurance companies and other non-industrial firms, but, to take a single example, one leading British bank has 50 or 60 men from the developing countries under training in Britain.

Most of the training in Britain is carried out on an individual company basis, but a good co-operative example is the Federation of British Industries Overseas Scholarship Scheme, which provides industrial training in Britain for about 100 nationals of developing countries at any one time. About 350 British firms contribute to this scheme either in cash or by providing training facilities.

Technical Training in Developing Countries — Many British companies overseas provide not only on-the-job training for their employees but also off-the-job formal training courses, sometimes in technical institutions and trade schools specially established by them for the purpose. One British bank, for instance, has twelve staff training centres in developing countries, with a through-put

of about 1,000 students per annum. Such company training institutions are frequently open to non-company employees, and, in the case of one trades school founded by British oil companies in Nigeria, it was the intention from the outset to devote half the places to training entrants for other industries and the Government.

As an alternative to establishing their own technical institutions, firms sometimes make substantial contributions to the capital or recurrent expenses of government-run training schools and institutes, and may loan them staff.

Basic Education — Very often plantation, mining and oil companies provide and run primary and secondary schools for the children of their employees in developing countries, and this may be an unavoidable responsibility when they are operating in remote districts away from centres of population. In other cases, a firm may offer assistance to the education authorities, as for instance the oil company in Iran which helped the Ministry of Education to build and man schools attended by 9,000 out of the 12,000 local school children in the area where it was operating.

Gifts to Educational Institutions — Most British companies operating on any significant scale overseas have contributed to the development of education through gifts of cash or equipment to local schools, colleges and universities. Sometimes these gifts have been of princely proportions, as for instance the £2m provided by two Northern Rhodesia mining groups, in which there are substantial British shareholdings, half in the form of donations and half in the form of low interest loans for African schools in the territory; and the £$\frac{1}{2}$m given by two British oil companies to Nigeria at independence for technical education. In some instances, help has been given in a co-operative form, as for instance the gift of equipment by private British firms to the Delhi College of Engineering and Technology (Indian Institute of Technology). It was recently announced (May 1963) that, on top of the £$\frac{1}{4}$m of equipment British industry has given since 1959, a further £400,000 of equipment is to be made available to the College by industry and the British Government during 1963-7.

Individual Scholarships — In addition to their own training schemes, many British companies offer scholarships to nationals or developing countries for study locally or abroad. These are frequently open to non-employees of the firm concerned, and may often be for studies not directly concerned with the operations of the company making the award. Similarly, some companies have offered prizes to encourage effort in particular fields, such as the industrial company in Nigeria offering prizes for the best scholar in physics and chemistry at the Nigerian College of Arts, Science and Technology.

'Extra-Mural' Courses — Several companies operating in the developing countries incur large expenditure in providing facilities for employees to take spare-time courses of a basic educational nature, or for their wives to learn such subjects as hygiene, first-aid, domestic science, etc.

In the absence of any published data on the contribution of British firms to education and training for the developing countries, the Overseas Development Institute (ODI) made an enquiry amongst certain large firms with wide overseas interests, in order to try to form some assessment of the size of their efforts in this field. In providing figures, the firms were asked to exclude 'on-the-job training', and to confine their answers to education and training expenditures, of the type listed above, in or on behalf of developing countries only. Training expatriate staff was expressly excluded.

Nine large companies kindly furnished details — the Booker Group, British-American Tobacco Co. Ltd. (BAT), Dunlop Rubber Co. Ltd., English Electric Co. Ltd., John Holt and Co. (Liverpool) Ltd., Imperial Chemical Industries Ltd., Rhodesian Selection Trust Ltd. (RST), Tate and Lyle Ltd., and Unilever Ltd. The British holdings in RST and Unilever are about 23% and 50% respectively; the other companies in the list are predominantly British. BAT was only able to provide data for a selection of companies covering about half the group's employees in developing countries, so that the information presented below is to that extent incomplete, but for the other companies the coverage was more or less comprehensive. Altogether, some 260,000 nationals of the developing countries are currently employed by these nine companies.

The information furnished by the nine firms showed that, in the last year for which each of them could provide data, they were together spending some £1.7m on education and training for the developing countries. Just over half of this, about £900,000, was the cost of running company trade schools, formal practical training courses, etc., in developing countries, and another £300,000 was spent on training at company establishments in Britain. In all, about £1.5m was devoted to the training and education of people who had employment ties with the companies concerned. The remaining £200,000 was expenditure 'external' to the company. The larger part of this was in the form of gifts to schools, universities, etc., in developing countries, but 'open' scholarships to individuals also accounted for a substantial share.

A breakdown by area showed that about £800,000 was being spent in British colonies (including the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland), over £550,000 in or on behalf of independent Commonwealth countries, and over £300,000 in other developing countries. Africa, particularly Commonwealth Africa, accounted for by far the greatest part of these expenditures: French and British West Africa benefited by over £400,000, and East and Central Africa

(British and non-British) by over £900,000. The other main beneficiaries were India, Pakistan and Ceylon with about £140,000, the Caribbean (about £120,000), the Far East including Malaya (£45,000), and Central and South America (£30,000).

The data presented in the foregoing paragraphs admittedly cover only a comparatively small number of firms, and may not give a fully adequate indication of the total contribution of British private enterprise, or of the pattern of expenditure within the total. Thus, for example, the aggregated expenditure on all the educational purposes mentioned in the preceding paragraphs by a British/Dutch oil group last year (1962) throughout Latin America, Africa south of the Sahara, and Asia came to just under £1m. A further £300,000 was spent on artisan and management training for its staff and others working in these areas. About three-quarters of the combined total of £1,300,000 was spent in Latin America but a large proportion of the remainder was spent in Commonwealth countries. Nevertheless, it is clear from these figures that even those activities of British firms which are quantifiable in monetary terms represent a formidable effort. The ten large firms cited lay out more each year than Britain's official contribution in technical training under the Colombo Plan and to the Commonwealth Educational Co-operation Scheme combined.

Most, if not all, of the activities are of course undertaken in order to promote the long-term efficiency of operation of the companies concerned or to improve the general climate in which they operate, in order that their activities may continue to be profitable. Whatever the motive, the contribution to the skilled manpower resources of the countries concerned is immense, and private enterprise often fulfils many educational and training functions which, in a developed country, the government itself would be expected to undertake. Very often, moreover, the turnover in trained manpower is exceedingly large, as men leave the company that trained them for other occupations: thousands of present-day civil servants and politicians, agriculturalists, railway engineers, accountants and so on received their basic training and experience of the modern economy with a large expatriate firm. This particularly underlines the value of the management training these firms have given.

In addition to the provision of formal facilities for education and training and the expenditure on them, expatriate commercial organisations operating in developing countries make a profound 'educational' impact on the attitudes and values of the peoples amongst whom they work in other less tangible ways. In the undeveloped economies of emerging countries, an intelligently conceived and well-run undertaking, operating on comprehensible principles towards rational and intelligible ends, has great value as a pattern-setter. Thus, in the provision of employment, direct

and indirect, in commerce or industry, these firms open up for the nationals of developing countries a whole range of new social and economic roles. New methods and new technology, often based on expensive research in the advanced countries, demonstrate the possibility of controlling and altering the environment.

This impact is made not only on life at the place of work — the companies concerned may often lay out large sums on welfare facilities such as modern housing and medicine; one British commercial concern, for instance, made an independence gift to Nigeria of £$\frac{1}{4}$m, which was used to establish clinics. The nine companies questioned by the ODI were spending over £3$\frac{1}{2}$m per annum on housing, medicine and other welfare facilities for their employees; one of them had undertaken £8m of capital expenditure in this form since the start of its operations. The British/Dutch oil group previously referred to also spent well over £3m in 1962, and some £5,400,000 of capital expenditure in the preceding ten years, on social welfare and other schemes, e.g., agricultural community projects aimed at promoting economic and social development in Africa, Asia and Latin America. Calculations of monetary outlays on formal programmes of education and training should not be allowed to obscure this far wider educational service rendered by British firms in developing countries.

V Overseas Students in Britain

This section presents as much information as it has been possible to find about overseas students and trainees in Britain. Data are scanty. Even basic information on numbers and courses of study and training is not complete. It is not known how many of those in Britain from the developing countries return home to use the knowledge and experience they have gained in Britain for furthering the economic, social or intellectual advance of their own countries. Nor is it possible to gauge how successful they are in their studies, although it should be remembered that even if statistics on examination results were obtainable, the failure rate in exams would hardly provide a true index of the benefit to overseas students from their time in Britain.

Such matters may be thought to be mainly of private concern, and it may be asked whether it is necessary to have information on these points. The answer to this is that a calculation of the subsidy to students and trainees from the developing countries shows that it may cost as much as £9m each year in public funds, and, furthermore, these students are occupying some 8% of all university places, 9% of technical college places and 3% of teacher-training places in the United Kingdom.

The first part of this section reviews what is known about the overall numbers and sponsorship of students and trainees from developing countries in Britain, particularly those in universities, technical colleges, teacher-training institutions and industry. The second part discusses the Government's role in training schemes in Britain; the succeeding parts (3, 4 and 5) describe more fully the arrangements for training under technical assistance, the Commonwealth Scholarship and Fellowship Plan and the Commonwealth Bursary scheme, and the final part describes the various activities of the British Council. This necessarily involves a somewhat arbitrary treatment, since space does not allow for a full account of all the private scholarship schemes (e.g. Rhodes Scholarships), or the courses run by non-official bodies such as those provided by the Cooperative College at Loughborough; or the many activities in the student welfare field of religious and other voluntary organisations.

1. NUMBERS INVOLVED

(i) Overall Position: Numbers and Sponsorship

It is estimated by the British Council that in the academic year 1961/2* there were 45,729 full-time students and trainees from developing countries in Britain. This compares with a total for all overseas countries, including developed, of 60,165. The figures include only those whose permanent residence is overseas, and exclude all part-time students and those whose study or training in Britain lasted less than six months. The number engaged in shorter-term and part-time courses is not known.

Even for full-time students the British Council figures are in many cases only very approximate - this is particularly true of the totals below for Inns of Court, Nursing, Practical Training, and Private and Other Colleges - since they are largely compiled by consulting the student officers of High Commissions and embassies in London, and their figures may not always be completely comprehensive. For universities, technical colleges and teacher-training institutions, the figures are provided respectively by the Association of Universities of the British Commonwealth and the three Education Departments, who collect them from the institutions themselves, and they are therefore likely to be accurate. It is also possible to obtain a fairly accurate picture of the number of foreign students engaged in practical training, since they must apply for work permits to the Ministry of Labour. The breakdown of the British Council figures, for developing countries only, in 1961/2 is as follows :-

TABLE A

Overseas Students in Britain 1961/2

Developing Countries Only

	Common-wealth	Non-Common-wealth	Total	All Countries (incl. developed)
Universities	6,977	2,390	9,367	13,293
Technical Colleges	8,633	3,432	12,065	14,143
Teacher-Training	1,667	143	1,810	2,674
Inns of Court	2,638	33	2,671	2,960
Nursing	9,323	341	9,664	9,954

* In this section the years referred to - 1960/1, 1961/2, 1962/3, etc. - are mostly academic years, starting in September or October. When Government financial contributions are referred to, however, the year is the financial year running from April to March.

Practical Training (commercial, industrial, administrative, professional, etc.)	4,800	944	5,744	9,711
Private and other Colleges	3,394	1,014	4,408	7,430
TOTALS	37,432	8,297	45,729	60,165

Source: abstracted from Table A pp. 19-23, "Overseas Students in Britain 1961/2"

It may be noted that there is no separate category for schools. The reason for this is that very few children from developing countries (apart from the children of immigrants) receive secondary education at British schools, although a number study for GCE level exams at technical colleges. In 1960 however, a survey by the Secretariat of the Headmasters' Conference showed that in the schools replying to their questionnaire, mostly private and direct-grant schools, altogether about 400 boys from developing countries were enrolled.

Information about who is sponsoring the training of overseas students in Britain is scanty. The number paid for directly by the British Government is small in proportion to the total, and at the outside would not account for more than 3,000 out of 45,000 students and trainees in Britain from developing countries in 1961/2.

Some recent British Council calculations for Commonwealth students in 1960/1 give some guide as to sponsorship.

TABLE B

Sponsorship of Students from Commonwealth Developing Countries in Britain 1960/1

Overseas Governments	5,876
UK Technical Assistance	599
Commonwealth Scholars and Bursars	470
British Council Scholars and Bursars	159
University interchange schemes	23
United Nations Fellows	106
US Third Country Trainees	102
Private Foundation grants	79
Others (mostly private students)	26,810
TOTAL	34,224

Source: British Council (unpublished).

According to the Association of Universities of the British Commonwealth (AUBC), 4,260 out of 9,367 university students in Britain in 1961/2 were known to have awards of some sort. Ministry of Education figures for teacher-trainees show that out of 1,279 teacher-trainees from developing countries in 1961/2, 502 were receiving financial awards from the British Government (mostly Commonwealth Bursaries), 455 received other awards, and 322 were private trainees.

Another interesting sidelight is thrown on the financial support of overseas students in Britain by a survey undertaken in the Autumn of 1962 by the ODI into all the awards by British donors open to overseas students listed by UNESCO in the 1962 edition of its annual publication 'Study Abroad'. An analysis of the returns showed that, excluding schemes referred to elsewhere in this study (namely Technical Assistance training, Commonwealth Scholarships and Bursaries, CD & W Scholarships, British Council Scholarships and Bursaries and FBI Overseas Scholarships), nearly 200 scholarships and fellowships worth rather more than £100,000 were given from unofficial British sources to nationals of developing countries in 1961/2. This figure excludes the cost of passages, which were paid in some cases, and some fees, and there is no doubt that it considerably underestimates the position, since the UNESCO list of awards appears to be far from comprehensive, especially as regards university and college awards. The 54 donors of awards included universities and colleges, firms, independent foundations and trusts, and organisations such as the Royal Society, the Commonwealth Press Union, the Co-operative Union and the British Red Cross Society.

Whether sponsored or unsponsored, most students from developing countries in Britain are pursuing courses of study and training which have been established with the requirements of British students in mind. There are of course exceptions. The British Council lists some 28 courses specially designed for overseas candidates, covering such subjects as public administration, social and economic development, social and educational administration, taxation, labour relations, community development and adult education (see "Training in Britain: Schedule of Special Courses Designed for Overseas Recruitment 1963/4" - British Council, 1962). There are also some specialist courses laid on for the Department of Technical Co-operation, which are attended for the most part by colonial civil servants, sometimes before selection and sometimes afterwards. Also much of the training carried out in Britain by industrial and commercial firms is designed to prepare the trainees for specific jobs in the developing countries. Allowing for these and a few other exceptions such as teacher-training under the Commonwealth Bursary scheme, it is true in general to say that there are few facilities in this country designed specifically for students from developing countries.

As noted above, available information on overseas students

at universities, technical colleges and teacher-training institutions is rather more comprehensive than for other categories. There is also better than average information on industrial training, as a result of special enquiries by the Federation of British Industries and Board of Trade. Accordingly a fuller analysis of the position in these sectors is given below.

(ii) Universities

TABLE C

University Students from Developing Countries in the UK 1961/2

		Common-wealth	Non-Common-wealth	Total
Level of Study	(Undergraduate	4,707	1,152	5,859
	(Postgraduate	2,270	1,238	3,508
Awards	(Known	2,888	1,372	4,260
	(Not known	4,089	1,018	5,107
Subject of Study	(Agriculture & Forestry	192	57	249
	(Arts	1,507	478	1,985
	(Dentistry	103	18	121
	(Medicine	1,340	324	1,664
	(Pure Science	976	374	1,350
	(Social Studies (inc. Economics and Law)	1,155	373	1,528
	(Technology	1,631	757	2,388
	(Veterinary Studies	73	9	82
	TOTALS	6,977	2,390	9,367

Source: Compiled from Tables A and B, Appendix IV: Commonwealth Universities Yearbook 1963, published by the Association of Universities of the British Commonwealth.

The proportion of university students from developing countries to the total number of students in British universities is: undergraduate level 6%, post-graduate level 18%, total 8%.

These overall figures conceal some interesting differences between countries. The developing countries with most students at British universities in 1961/2 were India 1,660, Nigeria 1,124, Pakistan 526, Iraq 490, Kenya 400, Ghana 371, United Arab Republic (Egypt) 344, and Malaya 303. Of the more important senders of students, Ghana, Sierra Leone, Uganda, Jamaica, Iraq, Sudan,

Thailand, Turkey and UAR all had more students at British universities known to have awards than not. There were more post-graduate than undergraduate students from Ceylon, India, Pakistan, Israel, Sudan and UAR. Whilst most of the students listed above would be reading for degrees, some would be on diploma and other non-degree courses.

In addition to the full-time students in British universities in 1961/2, there were also about 1, 000 students from developing countries enrolled for part-time study or part-time research, of whom 358 were from India. These students are not included in the total of 9, 367 given above.

iii) Technical Colleges

The British Council figures show 12, 065 students from developing countries at technical and agricultural colleges in Britain, and this compares with a figure of 11, 893 (calculated on a slightly different basis) shown by the Ministry of Education at grant-aided further education establishments in England and Wales only, of whom 4, 459 were classed as advanced students and 7, 434 as students on non-advanced courses. Advanced students are those doing work above the standard of ordinary National Certificate or GCE A Level or their equivalents. Of all students in grant-aided further education establishments in England and Wales, 9% came from the developing countries.

The British Council shows the breakdown of all overseas students (including 2, 000 from developed countries) in British technical colleges by subject of study as follows :-

TABLE D

Overseas Students in Britain at Technical Colleges 1961/2

Agriculture	89
Architecture and Building	1, 021
Art, Music and Drama	491
Chemical Industries	103
Commercial and Professional	2, 176
Engineering	2, 690
Food Trades and Catering	193
GCE	4, 474
Mathematics and Science (other than GCE)	384
Medical and Pharmacy	216
Mining and Metallurgy	130
Miscellaneous Manufacturing Inds.	198
Nautical	192
Printing	161
Social Sciences	416
Surveying	124

Textiles	232
Wholesale and Retail Trades	35
Other Subjects	818
	14, 143

Source: Overseas Students in Britain Table D, p. 27
British Council, October, 1962.

It should be noted that many of the students in technical colleges, especially those working for GCE exams, were not in fact doing technical subjects in the strict sense. Government statements about the number of technical trainees in Britain do not always make this distinction.

Of the students from developing countries in technical colleges most came from Nigeria 2,384, Iraq 1,219, India 1,091, Ghana 865, Iran 770, Kenya 485, Uganda 447, Pakistan 427, Cyrpus 405 and Malaya 400.

iv) Teacher-Training

The number of teacher-trainees from developing countries in Britain is shown in Table E opposite.

Students from developing countries accounted for approximately 2.9% of the total number of students at British training institutions in 1961/2, and 2.4% in 1962/3. The main countries of origin of these students in 1961/2 were Nigeria 283; Uganda 83; Kenya 73; India 70; and Trinidad 50.

The figures in Table E (see opposite) give a different total from Table A. This is mainly accounted for by the facts that the British Council (i) includes 578 teachers at two colleges specially established for them in Britain at the expense of the Malayan Government; these are outside the UK system of training colleges and hence not included in the Ministry of Education figures; one of these colleges was closed in 1962 and the other is closing in 1963; (ii) classifies the 57 students in university departments of education in Table E as university students.

Overseas students in British teacher-training colleges are not subsidised to any significant extent, since the fees charged at these institutions cover the costs of courses.

v) Practical Training

The figures under this heading in Table A cover all forms of individual and commercial training in private and nationalised industry, training in Government Departments and organisations like the BBC, and students taking courses for professional institutions such as accountancy, quantity surveying and law.

The Federation of British Industries (FBI) conducted a

TABLE E

Training of Teachers from Developing Countries in Britain

	1961/2			1962/3		
	C'wealth	Foreign	Total	C'wealth	Foreign	Total
Initial training	336	35	371	404	60	464
Supplementary training (specialised subject courses, etc.)	43	4	47	41	1	42
Other courses of further training (for trained teachers)	689	102	791	653	93	746
Technical teacher-training	70	-	70	84	-	84
	1,138	141	1,279	1,182	154	1,336
IN: Training Colleges	488	35	523	497	49	546
University Institutes of Education	474	94	568	431	84	515
University Departments of Education	53	4	57	116	5	121
Colleges of Education (Scotland)	123	8	131	138	16	154
	1,138	141	1,279	1,182	154	1,336

Source: data made available by Ministry of Education.

survey* of the number of trainees from overseas in a sample of its member firms (the bulk of private manufacturing industry) in 1960/1. The replies covered 56% of member firms with over 2,000 employees, about 14% of those with 700-2,000 employees and about 4% of those with under 700 employees. A few big industrial firms had over a hundred overseas trainees each, whilst others had only one or two. Altogether the 163 firms replying had nearly 4,000 trainees. Analysis of the area of origin of the trainees suggests that probably under half were from developing countries.

If the replies were representative of the whole of British Industry (FBI membership excludes all nationalised industry and a small percentage of private manufacturing industry), then perhaps up to 5,000 trainees from developing countries may have been training in British industry in that year. Of these, however, about two-thirds would have been here for less than three months, and probably not many more than 1,000, therefore, would be included in the British Council figures for practical training in Table A, which covers only those over here for at least six months. Roughly four-fifths of the students would be in training by a business arrangement (i.e. they would be actual or potential employees of the British company or of one of its customers). The remainder would be under official schemes arranged by the British or the students' own government, or else in a very few cases unsponsored.

According to the FBI survey, over 90% of the industrial training for overseas trainees was in the engineering, vehicle or chemical industries. This suggests that training has mostly been in activities where British industry has been an exporter to, rather than an investor in, developing countries.

The FBI enquiry was confined, of course, to private manufacturing industry, and excluded banking, commercial and insurance firms, some of which take overseas students for training in great numbers. The FBI excluded nationalised industries, government departments and public corporations. To take an example of the first, the National Coal Board is prepared to give free training to up to 30 trainees per year, and at the end of 1962 had 12 Nigerians in training. As an example of the second, the GPO over the two years 1960 and 1961 provided courses of varying lengths for 123 general trainees and 186 engineering students from developing countries. Public corporations include those like the BBC and BOAC. The former runs three special ten-week courses each year for overseas trainees from other broadcasting corporations. The latter, which is in a special position in view of its ability to bring people over to this country at virtually no cost to itself, gave training in Britain to 497 nationals of developing countries in 1962, most of them being the employees of the Corporation or of its business partners. Many of these were here for a few days or periods up to three months, but six were here for three months or

* unpublished

more.

The results of the Board of Trade enquiry in 1959 were broadly similar to those of FBI. They found that 258 organisations, including not only manufacturing firms but also civil engineering firms, Government Departments and nationalised industries (all excluded from FBI's enquiry), were giving practical training to 2,660 overseas people attached to them for periods of more than three months. Unfortunately it is difficult to abstract from their data the numbers from developing countries. The Board of Trade found 79% of the trainees were with firms in the chemical, engineering and vehicle industries, and a further 12% in Government Departments and nationalised industries, and 5% in civil engineering.

2. GOVERNMENT CONTRIBUTION

i) Financial

Out of the 45,000 students in Britain from developing countries in 1961/2, the British Government itself was paying wholly and directly for some 1,650 here under its auspices. These were :-

TABLE F
Trainees from developing countries in Britain 1961/2 under Technical Assistance Schemes and Commonwealth Educational Co-operation

Technical Assistance Schemes	Nos. in November 1961	Expenditure 1961/2* £'000
Colombo Plan	720	844
SCAAP	166	150
CENTO	61	84
FAMA	11	10
SEATO	2	n.a.
	960	1,088
Commonwealth Educational Co-operation		
Commonwealth Scholars	264	approx. 210
Commonwealth Teacher Bursars	416	303
	680	513

* UK financial year.

Sources:

(1) Trainees: Technical Assistance - British Council (unpublished)
Commonwealth Scholars - CELC 2nd Annual Report, HMSO, October 1962
Commonwealth Teacher Bursars - Ministry of Education (unpublished)

(2) Expenditures: Colombo Plan - Technical Co-operation under the Colombo Plan, HMSO, October 1962.
Other Technical Assistance Schemes - DTC (unpublished)
Commonwealth Educational Co-operation - DTC (unpublished)

By December 1962 the total was about 2,000, with nearly 1,200 Technical Assistance trainees, and 800 Commonwealth Scholars and Teacher Bursars. Training under Technical Assistance Schemes and Commonwealth Educational Co-operation is described more fully below.

In addition, the following overseas students and trainees in Britain were being supported directly or indirectly from British Government funds in 1961/2:-

(a) 250 British Council scholarships and 210 British Council bursaries were awarded to students from developing countries in 1961/2 at a cost of nearly £200,000, and the Council spent approximately another £130,000 on shorter-term visitors.

(b) 227 of the colonial civil servants placed by the DTC on courses in Britain in 1962 (349 in 1961) were partly or wholly financed from CD & W funds. (A third of these were, however, expatriate officers mostly on post-selection courses prior to taking up their posts in the colonies.) A further number of students were being paid for out of territorially-allocated CD & W aid.

(c) About 100 scholars from the developing countries were in Britain for practical training under the FBI scholarship scheme in 1961/2, to which the British Government contributed over £23,000.

(d) The 9,367 university students and 12,065 technical college students in Britain from developing countries in 1961/2 were being heavily subsidised out of British public funds. Even where, as in the majority of cases, fees were paid from overseas sources, they fell a long way short of the cost of providing the places - as is also the case for British students at these institutions.

So far as technical college students are concerned, Ministry of Education figures show that, of students from developing countries at colleges in England and Wales (over nine-tenths of those in

Britain), the ratio of those doing advanced to non-advanced courses was 3 to 5. Using a very rough Ministry estimate that the cost of advanced technical courses exceeds fees on average by about £350, and the cost of non-advanced courses exceeds fees payable by about £250, the total subsidy (over and above fees) to students from developing countries at technical colleges would have been about £3½ m. in 1961/2.

For universities the overall cost per student varies widely between faculties and different levels of study - being considerably lower for arts students and undergraduates than for those on the applied science side and at post-graduate or research levels. Using a very rough-and-ready formula it can be calculated that, on average, for students of all levels the cost of a university place in arts and social studies exceeds fees charged by some £400; pure science, £650; technology, £550; medicine £900; dentistry £450 - £500; agriculture and forestry, £1,000; veterinary medicine £850 - £900. Taking the enrolment figures of students from developing countries by faculty (see Table A) one can arrive at a figure of about £5½ m. for the subsidy to them in 1961/2. This may well be an underestimate, since there are proportionately more post-graduate students from developing countries in Britain (18% of total university population) than there are undergraduate students (6%), and it is those at post-graduate level and above who tend to be most expensive. (The University Grants Committee calculates that if the cost of the average undergraduate at British universities is taken as X, the cost of post-graduates on education courses would be X, post-graduates in arts and social studies 2X, post-graduates in pure and applied sciences 3X.) The above figures refer to direct recurrent teaching costs only. They are perhaps open to the criticism that they exaggerate the cost per student by assuming that university costs are all teaching costs and ignoring the value of the research function of universities. On the other hand, this may be more than offset by the fact that the above figures make no allowance for interest charges on the capital costs of providing university buildings, or for the cost of maintenance of the students.

From the data presented above it is possible to form an estimate of about £9 m for the "hidden" subsidy to students from developing countries in British technical colleges and universities. The figure is only very approximate and should be treated with caution, but so long as there are no official published estimates of the cost of university and technical college places one cannot hope for more than approximations.

(e) Overseas students from developing countries were receiving various other scholarships and grants for fees or maintenance, indirectly financed, partly or wholly, from central government funds. For instance, some overseas students appear to be in receipt of maintenance grants from Local Education Authorities,

and one council gave nearly 200 such awards in 1961/2. Although the local education authorities can refuse grants to overseas students who have come to Britain specifically to study, and to anyone who has not been resident in their area for three years, in practice decisions are difficult. This is especially the case when prospective students have been working in Britain in paid employment for a considerable period, or when, as is sometimes the case, they are ratepayers.

(ii) Government Provision of Training

Some government departments provide training for students from developing countries, either by laying on courses at set times in the year, or by making ad hoc arrangements for the attachment of individuals for practical training. Examples of special courses for overseas students are: Ministry of Labour courses in Industrial Relations for trades unionists, and in Labour Administration for overseas local and central government officials; Central Office of Information (COI) courses for overseas information officers; Ministry of Agriculture courses on product storage, pest control and plant protection. Government Departments accepting trainees for ad hoc training include, for example, the General Post Office, the DTC (through, e.g. Directorate of Overseas Surveys), and the Ministry of Labour, who provide training for factory inspectors. In most cases the trainees concerned are in Britain under technical assistance agreements or are colonial government officers. There have been instances, however, of training in Government Departments or other establishments being provided outside these agreements at the request of an overseas government, and in this latter case there would be no contribution to the fares and maintenance of the student concerned. Generally speaking, when training is provided by any British Government Department, no charge is made, either to technical assistance funds or to the overseas government requesting training. Unsponsored students would not in any circumstances be accepted for training by the Government itself.

(iii) Government Role in Placing Students for Training outside Government

The British Government (through the DTC) accepts responsibility for placing all those for whom it is paying under technical assistance arrangements and Commonwealth Educational Co-operation, and also certain categories of applicant from the colonies with whom Britain has no formal technical assistance agreements. In addition, it is willing to assist independent governments by placing (where possible) students and trainees outside the scope of Technical Assistance or Commonwealth Educational Co-operation, and it makes

no charge for this service. In practice, however, apart from some of the more newly-independent Commonwealth countries, the DTC has received only a few requests from independent governments who mostly rely on their own embassies and High Commissions. Yet another category for whose placing the Government takes responsibility, again free of charge, is trainees under UN schemes. All requests for help in arranging study or training must come to the DTC through official channels.

The majority of the overseas trainees and students for whom arrangements require to be made are not trained in Government Departments, but in such places as universities and technical colleges, or on courses run by, for instance, the Royal Institute of Public Administration, the Royal College of Nursing, the BBC and the Industrial Welfare Society, or in private or nationalised industrial, commercial and banking enterprises. Placing of trainees and students with all these different bodies is a formidable task, involving specialist knowledge of the fields concerned, and the DTC therefore "sub-contracts" certain sections of it to other agencies. Thus the Ministry of Education places the Commonwealth teacher-bursars, and the AUBC, acting on behalf of the UK Commonwealth Scholarship Commission, arranges the placing of Commonwealth Scholars in universities.

In the case of British technical assistance schemes, a variety of bodies undertake placing on behalf of the DTC including most notably the British Council, which handles most of the academic placing, various Government Departments including the DTC itself, and other bodies such as the British Post-graduate Medical Federation, the Royal College of Nursing and the UK Railway Advisory Service. Table G gives a breakdown by placing authority and type of training for technical assistance trainees. There is also a wide range of authorities responsible for placing fellows and trainees under UN schemes. Thus the British Council handles placing for UN Technical Assistance, International Atomic Energy Agency, and UNESCO; the Air Ministry Meteorological Office for the World Meteorological Organisation; the General Post Office for the International Tele-communications Union; Ministry of Health for the World Health Organisation; Ministry of Labour for the International Labour Organisation. Altogether, this involves about 750 UN fellows and trainees a year for placing, of whom about two-thirds are from developing countries.

The three main categories handled direct by the DTC itself include the placing of trainees under schemes on its vote in Government Departments; the placing elsewhere of all public servants from the colonies (as well as some ex-colonies); and the placing of many colonial and independent Commonwealth students.*

*In the DTC, "students", who are as a rule not yet employed and

The Training Branch of the DTC is responsible for placing. Its Training Executive deals with the first two categories. In 1962, as well as placing the technical assistance trainees referred to above, it placed a further 1,705 public service trainees from the colonies and independent developing Commonwealth countries. These were almost all officials of the governments concerned, 1,028 being from colonial territories, and 619 from newly-independent Commonwealth countries (Ghana, Cyprus, Malaya, Nigeria, Sierra Leone and Tanganykia). Police courses were much the most important training category, accounting for over a quarter of all trainees, followed by education, engineering and agriculture courses. Of those placed on courses 537 were expatriate officers, 403 of these being from the colonies; 227 of the 1,028 colonial officers were being paid for at least partly from CD & W funds; the others by their governments.

Some of these 1,705 trainees had individual attachments, but the majority were on courses, many of which were also attended by technical assistance trainees. Where Government Departments run courses, the general practice in the past, now growing less common, was not to charge the cost, whether to technical assistance funds, CD & W funds, or to the overseas government. There is a tendency for other bodies to charge, and in one extreme case the fee for a course is as high as £300 for three months. In the particular case of trainees under CD & W, however, the DTC has until 1963 had a special central allocation for the "Training of Overseas Civil Servants", from which it meets not only the fares, fees and maintenance of the trainees, but also in a few cases contributes additionally to the overheads (staff salaries, etc.) of the course. Such cases include Courses "A" and "B" in public administration, the BBC's Overseas Broadcasters' Courses, police courses and a local government officers' course. The average cost to CD & W funds of a trainee is much the same as for technical assistance trainees - about £1,000 per year.

The Students' Branch of the DTC (as opposed to the Training Executive mentioned above) places about 1,500 colonial and Commonwealth students per year in British academic institutions, mostly universities and teacher-training colleges. This is about half the number of applicants. Most of those placed are on scholarships given by their own governments, some of the awards being financed from CD & W funds received for this purpose from Britain. (At the end of 1962, 103 students were studying in Britain on CD & W Scholarships).

come for general study, are distinguished from "trainees", who are frequently already employed in the public service of an overseas country, and come to Britain for specific job training.

TABLE G

Placing of Technical Assistance Trainees (UK financial year 1962/3)

(a) Placing Authorities

Placed by	All Schemes	Colombo Plan	SCAPP	CENTO	Other Schemes
	%	%	%	%	%
British Council	36	45	22	39	30
DTC direct	11	5	20	3½	24
British Post-graduate Medical Federation/Royal College of Nursing	12	17	9	-	4½
*Ministry of Labour	12	16	8	3½	24
*Ministry of Agriculture	3	3	2	4½	-
Ministry of Health	3	-	-	37	-
UK Railway Advisory Service	3	5	-	-	-
*Others (including Home Office, Ministry of Aviation, etc.)	3	3	2	8	3½
ØAlready placed when accepted for Technical Assistance help	17	6	37	4½	14
Total number of arrivals 1962/3	1,306	678	439	116	73

*Often more than one placing authority is concerned with a placing, e.g., academic training (British Council) plus industrial attachment.

ØThis heading includes trainees for whom training had been arranged prior to their acceptance for an award under one or other technical assistance scheme, the placing of the candidate having usually been arranged by the individual's own government.

(b) Placings by Type of Training - All Schemes

Type of Training	British Council	DTC	Already Placed when accepted for Technical Assistance Schemes
	%	%	%
University or College	57	5½	68
Council or other short courses (a)	15½	16½	½
Government Department/ Local Authority attachments	9	10	3
Other courses arranged by Government Departments (b)	2	54½	
Research Institute or Hospital	6	2	4
Miscellaneous	6	1	5
Industrial or other practical attachments	4½	10½	19½
TOTAL	100	100	100
(Actual Number of Trainees)	(470)	(144)	(222)

Notes: (a) Courses lasting less than an academic year, as listed in the Schedule of Special Courses Designed for Overseas Recruitment

(b) Courses run by Government Departments including Police Colleges, Directorate of Ordnance Survey, Department of Inland Revenue, COI, Army School of Military Survey, but excluding those in (a).

The DTC's involvement with placing officially sponsored students from the Commonwealth (outside technical assistance or Commonwealth Educational Co-operation) varies with the status of the territory concerned. Thus:-

1. The DTC places all students (up to undergraduate level) from minor colonies.
2. The DTC handles placement of undergraduate university students and teacher-training college students only, for the larger colonies and some of the newly-independent Commonwealth countries. These countries and territories have their own student offices for dealing with all other categories of student, but the universities and training colleges require their applications for places to come through the DTC.

3. The DTC is not as a rule asked to place students for India, Pakistan, Ceylon, Ghana, Malaya, Nigeria, Cyprus or Rhodesia. These countries have their own student offices in London, and the receiving educational institutions accept approaches from them.

iv) Overall Government Responsibility

Apart from these specific activities, the Government plays a general watching role over the whole field of training of overseas students in this country. Thus it makes considerable provision for their welfare through the activities of the British Council, and through the special allocation of £3m for hostels for overseas students. It has expressed the intention that Commonwealth students shall have their share in any increase in university and technical college places in this country. In very exceptional circumstances, it has approached private and professional bodies about the possibilities of improving facilities in particular fields such as industry and medicine; and recently the facilities for public administration training in Britain have been re-examined by a specially appointed committee under the Chairmanship of Lord Bridges. Now that the Department of Technical Co-operation is firmly established it may be expected that a closer look will be taken at the overall adequacy of what is provided in other fields.

3. TRAINING UNDER TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE SCHEMES

Trainees under Technical Assistance arrangements are wholly paid for by the British Government for stays up to 6 years. Apart from some forestry training in Cyprus and agricultural training in Trinidad, the training Britain gives under technical assistance is all in Britain. Training under technical assistance schemes is normally at postgraduate or equivalent level, although there has been a tendency under the agreements with some newly-independent African countries for slightly lower level people to be accepted. A request for training must come from the recipient Government, and the trainee will be accepted provided that :-

(i) the UK has funds available;

(ii) the training proposed will contribute to the economic or social development of the country concerned;

(iii) the trainee is suitably qualified and speaks sufficient English;

(iv) a training place can be found.

It is also stipulated on the application form that the trainee will return to his own country at the end of his training, and in

fact many of the receiving governments also make trainees give a pledge to this effect.

TABLE 4

Number of Training Places Provided under Technical Assistance Agreements up to 31st December, 1962

Scheme	Start of Scheme	Training Courses Completed by end 1962	Trainees in UK Dec 1962	Total
Colombo Plan	1951	4,320	700	5,020
SCAAP				
Ghana	Mar 1957	97	28	125
Nigeria	Oct 1960	233	153	386
Sierra Leone	Apr 1961	24	15	39
Tanganyika	Dec 1961	35	130	165
CENTO	1956	230	100	330
FAMA	1958	31	24	55
TOTAL		4,970	1,150	6,120

Source: Unpublished material supplied by the DTC.

Requests for training come in to the Department of Technical Cooperation via British embassies and High Commissions overseas. The British Government's policy of acceding to requests from overseas means that it has not usually concerned itself with assessing the effectiveness of training given. The types of training asked for and given are considered to be mainly the responsibility of the receiving government, although the trainees are asked for their views on the course before they leave. To some extent British posts abroad keep in contact with trainees who have returned home, although there does not seem to be any systematic attempt at evaluating the training.

The fact that requests for training come through governments means, effectively, that training under technical assistance tends to be confined to actual or prospective employees of governments or government-controlled organisations. Although the British Government is prepared to consider requests from overseas governments for the training of men from private sector occupations, this does not seem to have happened on any large scale. Thus large areas like private industry and commerce, the independent press, etc., are virtually excluded from the scope of these arrangements.

Details of placing arrangements for trainees under technical assistance programmes have been given above. The following is a summary of the eventual outcome of the 8,545 applications made to British Government for training under the Colombo Plan and

SCAAP from the inception of the schemes up to December 31st 1962 (for fuller details see Table 7).

Total Applications	8, 545
Training already completed	4, 709
Trainees in UK	1, 026
Trainees on way to UK	85
Applications under consideration	617
UK offer of training declined	546
Applications or applicants unsuitable	491
Facilities not available in UK	372
Applications withdrawn	699

This shows a comparatively high rate of success in placing, although over one quarter of the applications already dealt with (i.e. excluding those currently under consideration) had not ended in a positive result. One may surmise that the cause of many of the applications being withdrawn was the length of time taken to find training facilities in Britain. Facilities in industry are particularly difficult to find. Thus in 1961 out of 127 applications for industrial training places under the Colombo Plan (45 of them brought forward from 1960), 46 had been placed by the Ministry of Labour on attachments in industry, and 5 on courses; 7 trainees had been impossible to place, 18 had been withdrawn, and at the end of the year 51 cases were still in hand.

The length of stay of trainees under technical assistance schemes varies from short courses of 3 months up to 5 or 6 years for some medical students. An analysis of data for 717 Colombo Plan trainees in Britain on October 1st 1962 showed that they had on average been in Britain for rather over ten months - though 301 of them had arrived since the beginning of August 1962. 95 had arrived earlier in 1962, 194 had been here since 1961, 75 since 1960, 35 since 1959, 16 since 1958 and 1 since 1957.

Further analysis of the expected length of completed courses for these Colombo Plan trainees showed the following distributional pattern for the 689 for whom the training period had been fixed :-

TABLE I

Projected Length of Stay of Colombo Plan Trainees in Britain (based on analysis of those here in October 1962)

	Years						
Add Months	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
0 months	-	143	136	103	11	5	5
1 month	-	3	3	1	3	-	-
2 months	-	4	2	-	1	-	-
3 months	40	11	2	3	-	1	-

4 months	15	2	1	3	3	-	-
5 months	11	1	1	1	-	-	-
6 months	46	28	48	8	-	-	-
7 months	2	1	2	1	-	-	-
8 months	3	-	-	1	-	-	-
9 months	14	6	7	-	1	-	-
10 months	2	1	-	2	-	-	-
11 months	-	-	-	1	-	-	-
	133	200	202	124	19	6	5

Note: Some averaging has been necessary. Thus those whose stay is listed as 1-2 years or 2-3 years have been counted $1\frac{1}{2}$ or $2\frac{1}{2}$ years respectively.

Source: Unpublished data made available by the British Council.

This gives an average expected length of training of those in the country in November 1962 of about $19\frac{1}{2}$ months. Probably about 18 months would be the overall average for the length of stay of all Colombo Plan trainees, since at any one moment those who come for 3- or 4-month courses will appear to form a smaller proportion of trainees than they do over a period of time. There are interesting variations between individual countries too - thus the 45 trainees from the Philippines were expected to stay an average of 1 year and 1 month, whilst the 30 Nepalis were expected to stay 2 years 6 months on avergae. The less developed a recipient country's educational system, the more need there is for longer courses in Britain, and this is reflected in the tendency for trainees under SCAAP to stay in Britain rather longer than Colombo Plan trainees.

Table J below shows the subject and place of study of Colombo Plan trainees in Britain in November 1961. Perhaps its chief interest lies in the high proportion of academic training to the total; the concentration on science, technology and social studies as against the tiny proportion of arts and humanities students, in conformity with the 'rules' of technical assistance; and the rather limited contribution Britain was making in the agricultural field.

TABLE J

Subject and Type of Study of Colombo Plan Trainees in Britain November 1961

	Medicine	Pure Science	App. Sc. & Technology	Forest. Agric. & Vet. Science	Education	Econ. and Commerce	Arts and Humanities	Social Admin.	Public Admin.	TOTAL
ACADEMIC[1]										
University	102	85	87	22	4	14	6	17	9	346
Tech. College	-	2	66	-	1	9	3	-	-	81
Teacher-Training Coll.	-	-	-	-	18	-	-	-	-	18
Research Inst./ Hospital	16	8	2	9	-	-	-	-	-	35
Short Courses	-	-	-	1	-	7	5	-	-	13
TOTAL ACADEMIC	118	95	155	32	23	30	14	17	9	493
NON-ACADEMIC										
Administrative[2]	1	-	11	-	-	2	-	27	6	47
Industrial/ Practical[3]	15	-	109	1	-	8	-	3	-	136
Observation Tour or Short Course[4]	-	-	6	7	-	18	-	15	-	46
TOTAL NON-ACADEMIC	16	-	126	8	-	28	-	45	6	229
GRAND TOTAL	134	95	281	40	23	58	14	62	15	724

Source: Unpublished data made available by British Council.

Notes on Table J

1. Most 'academic' Colombo Plan trainees are on individual courses of study leading to higher and first degrees, diplomas, etc. Some however, are on specially designed courses. For instance some of the 'academic' students in social sciences and administration shown in Table J were attending the one-year course in Social Policy and Administration at University College, Swansea, and the one- to two-year course in Economic Development at Manchester. (In 1962/3 14 such courses have been arranged in universities to last a full academic year or longer.) Those on academic 'short courses' in 1961/2 included 7 on a 6-months course in

Industrial Finance at the London School of Economics, and 5 on a 6-months course in Tropical Architecture at the Architectural Association School in London.

2. Those in the 'administrative' category were mostly public servants from the developing countries on practical courses in public administration laid on by British Government Departments. As an example, the 27 listed under 'Social Administration' in the above table comprise 13 on Ministry of Labour 3-months Labour Administration Courses, 4 on Police Administration Courses, 4 O & M (Treasury), 2 Post Office Administration, 2 Prison Administration, 1 Municipal Administration, 1 Wages Council Administration (Ministry of Labour).

3. The 'industrial/practical' category includes all those with attachments to industrial undertakings, including several Indians being trained in connection with the Durgapur steelworks. It also includes trainees in banking, accountancy, etc.

4. Those on 'short courses/observation tours' include, for instance, official trainees on courses run by the British Council (e.g. 16 on British Council Taxation Course) or non-Government officials on Government organised courses (e.g. 11 Trade Unionists on an Industrial Relations Course run by the Ministry of Labour with assistance from the Trades Union Congress).

4. COMMONWEALTH SCHOLARSHIP AND FELLOWSHIP PLAN

Under the Commonwealth Scholarship and Fellowship Plan drawn up at the First Commonwealth Education Conference in Oxford, July 1959, Britain agreed to provide up to 500 places per year, mostly in its universities, for scholars and fellows from Commonwealth countries. The Scheme is multilateral and other Commonwealth countries also make available scholarships to Britain and to each other.

In the academic year 1961/2, there were 381 Commonwealth scholars in Britain, of whom 264 were from developing countries, and 117 from Australia, Canada, New Zealand and South Africa. There were also 3 Fellows, all from developed countries. In the autumn of 1962, there were 473 scholars in Britain. The direct cost of each scholarship, which includes travel to and in Britain, fees, maintenance grant and, where appropriate, marriage allowance, is reckoned to be in the region of £1, 000 per scholar per full year. (Direct costs so far have been slightly lower since few return passages have yet had to be paid. The indirect cost of the Scholarships would be considerably higher than £1, 000, especially when it is remembered that many of the scholars are engaged on post-graduate work in applied science; this is more heavily subsidised per place by the Government than any other type of university work.)

In general, the tenure of scholarships is two years, though some are extended for a third year, and so the average duration is rather longer than originally anticipated. Of the 381 awards being held in Britain in 1961/2, all except two were for study at universities. About two-thirds of the holders were studying for higher degrees, and most of the remainder for second first degrees or post-graduate diplomas. The subjects of study covered by the 232 new Commonwealth Scholarships awarded in 1961 were: Arts 48, Law 13, Social Sciences 18, Education 6, Science 73, Technology 45, Medicine 29. A detailed breakdown by subject of study of the 161 scholars arriving in Britain from developing countries in 1961/2 is given in Table 8.

The procedure for selection of scholars in Britain is as follows. The Scheme is run by the Commonwealth Scholarship Commission in the United Kingdom. This is responsible to the Commonwealth and Colonial Secretaries, and has a predominantly academic membership and a Secretariat provided by the Association of Universities of the British Commonwealth. The Commission invites nominations from all Commonwealth countries in accordance with a previously laid down 'quota' for each country; these are then considered by a selection sub-committee, with appropriate expert academic advice, in Britain. The total number of nominations invited is normally approximately double that of the scholarships actually available. Selection is mostly 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'.* Subject to appropriate facilities being available, the Commission tries to distribute the scholars as widely as possible among the universities and colleges in Britain. All administrative and welfare matters are dealt with by the Commonwealth Scholarships and Bursaries Department of the British Council.

Table K below gives details of nominations, applications and awards in connection with Scholarships tenable in Britain in 1960 and 1961/2. Of the 381 Scholars in Britain in 1961/2, 117 were from developed Commonwealth countries, 170 from independent developing countries, and 94 from the colonies. One of the most striking points about the table is the figure for applications, which have been particularly numerous from India and Pakistan.

* Commonwealth Education Liaison Committee: Commonwealth Scholarship & Fellowship Plan - First Annual Report 1960/1, p. 13.

TABLE K

UK COMMONWEALTH SCHOLARSHIPS

New Awards - 1960, 1961, 1962

	1 Nominations Invited by UK	2 Applics. Received by Govts. of Recip. Territories.	3 Nominations Submitted to UK by C'wealth Govts.	4 S'ships Offered by UK	5 S'ships Accepted by Candidates
1960					
Developed C'wealth	150	462	145	73	52
Developing Independent C'wealth	203	4,317	204	91	83
Developing* Colonial	129	628	103	46	43
TOTAL 1960	482	5,407	452	210	178**
1961					
Developed C'wealth	150	505	158	80	70
Developing Independent C'wealth	208	5,060	196	114	102
Developing* Colonial	123	570	117	62	60
TOTAL 1961	481	6,135	471	256	232**
1962					
Developed C'wealth	n.a.	469	108	59	49
Developing Independent C'wealth	n.a.	3,118	201	107	99
Developing* Colonial	n.a.	473	87	43	40
TOTAL 1962	n.a.	4,060	396	209	188**

* Includes Rhodesia and Nyasaland in each case. Also includes Tanganyika for 1960 only; and Jamaica, Trinidad and Uganda for 1960 and 1961 only.

** This total refers to awards made. In the event, however, only

168 scholars took up their awards in 1960, and 226 in 1961. Some of the awards not taken up immediately were deferred to later years.

Sources :- 1960 - Commonwealth Scholarship and Fellowship Plan: First Annual Report 1960/1 (Commonwealth Education Liaison Committee)

1961 - Commonwealth Scholarship and Fellowship Plan: Second Annual Report 1961/2 (CELC) Col 4 taken from Second Annual Report of the Commonwealth Scholarship Commission in the UK

1962 - Third Annual Report of the Commonwealth Scholarship Commission in UK

5. COMMONWEALTH TEACHER BURSARIES

At the Commonwealth Education Conference in Oxford, Britain promised to provide an additional 500 teacher-training places per year. This offer was later amended to 400 bursaries per year when the scheme had been more accurately costed. Costs are lower than for the scholars, since fares are not usually paid for bursars, the outlays by Britain being fees and full maintenance. Even so the average annual cost is at present about £800 p.a. per bursar.

In general the holders of bursaries are experienced teachers who come over for supplementary or advanced training, although in some cases it is initial training that is needed and given. The scheme is aimed particularly at key personnel who will become teacher-trainers themselves or occupy responsible posts such as head teachers and school superintendents and administrators. Of new bursars in 1962/3, 43 were on training college lecturer courses and 42 on courses for Heads of Schools and Administrators. Most of the others were doing advanced subject courses or other specialised training (including 32 technical teachers). The trainees tend to be from government schools in the developing countries, since mission and private schools cannot so easily spare a teacher for a year's training or afford to pay the salary of both the trainee and a substitute. The training is generally for one year, but sometimes for two. The total number of bursars in Britain has been: 1960/1 351; 1961/2 415; 1962/3 393. The 1962/3 total includes 323 new bursars and 70 staying on for a second year.

The scheme is administered and selections made by the Ministry of Education's Commonwealth Bursary Unit - which is in close contact with the Scottish and Northern Ireland education authorities, with the DTC (on whose vote the scheme is), and with the CRO and Colonial Office. In selection an attempt is made, in consultation with the overseas departments concerned, to get a fairly even geographical distribution of awards among the developing countries of

the Commonwealth (developed countries are excluded), but there is less emphasis on academic achievement than in the case of scholarships.

Other factors are that newly-independent countries tend to get a bigger quota of places than others, and account is also taken of the number of places countries are likely to take up. This last is difficult to judge since the demand for bursaries seems less predictable than for scholarships. Amongst the reasons for this are that it can often be difficult to spare teachers from their schools for further training; also that in some developing countries the prestige of universities is so high relative to other institutions that those concerned tend to aim at university courses or nothing, failing to appreciate the quality of the training facilities being offered in British training colleges. In some instances, Commonwealth Governments have failed to give adequate recognition in financial terms or promotion prospects to those completing the bursary courses.

The following table illustrates the different responses of a few selected Commonwealth countries to the offer of bursaries.

TABLE L

Commonwealth Teacher-training Bursaries 1961/2

	Forms sent by UK	Nominations submitted	Bursaries offered	Bursaries accepted
TOTAL	480	432	365	336
of which:-				
Ceylon	25	9	7	7
Ghana	25	7	4	4
India	25	12	12	9
Kenya	14	33	26	25
Pakistan	30	30	23	21
Sierra Leone	10	35	24	22

Source: Data made available by Ministry of Education

The placing of the students is done by arrangements between the education authorities and representatives of the Institutes of Education. The acceptance of the extra students was initially made possible by guaranteeing in advance an appropriate fee and number of students for courses for which the Institutes of Education were then able to take on extra staff. The welfare of the bursars is looked after by the British Council.

Following the Second Commonwealth Education Conference at Delhi in 1962, Britain agreed to train additional numbers of technical teacher trainees from developing countries. Starting in the autumn of 1963, an extra 45 bursaries are to be devoted to this purpose, and they will be additional to those already offered for technical teacher-training. The courses will last two years and will include six months at a technical college, six months attachment to an industrial firm and one year in a technical teacher-training college. The placing of these bursars will also be handled by the Ministry of Education.

Closely related to teacher-training is a further offer made at the Delhi Conference. To help solve the shortage of textbooks in the developing countries, Britain is offering 12 bursaries for a special course in textbook writing and production arranged by London University Institute of Education. This scheme will also be administered by the Commonwealth Bursary Unit of the Ministry of Education.

6. BRITISH COUNCIL'S ROLE

Repeated reference has been made in this Section to the work of the British Council in connection with overseas students and trainees in Britain. It is broadly true to say that it is through the British Council that the Government fulfils such responsibilities, particularly in regard to welfare matters, as it feels it has towards overseas students in Britain. The Council's activities include bringing individuals over to Britain for study and training at its own expense; arranging courses and study tours for overseas people in Britain; acting as agents on behalf of the Government and other authorities in the placement of overseas scholars, fellows and trainees on courses of various kinds in Britain and in handling all the necessary financial and administrative arrangements; and looking after the welfare of overseas students in Britain, in particular through the provision and finding of accommodation and help with social activities. These facets of the Council's work are briefly described below.

i) Scholars, Bursars and Visitors

British Council Scholarships are normally awarded for one or two academic years and are for post-graduate local 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 their scholarship. In 1961/2, 250 scholarships were awarded to nationals of developing countries; this was two-thirds the total number of

British Council Scholarships (376). British Council Bursaries, of which 210 were awarded to nationals of developing countries in 1961/2 (and about 250 in 1962/3), are for two to six months for research and training in Britain.

Bursars are normally people already established in their profession or trade. 'Visitors' are people of recognised standing in their own countries and tend to be of rather more senior status than bursars. Their length of stay in Britain varies from a few weeks to several months. In 1961/2 the length of stay of Visitors was: under one month 39%, one month and over 16%, two to three months 16½%, three to six months 17%, over six months 11.5%. The 'Visitor' category includes people to whom the British Council gives assistance in arranging visits to institutions or making professional contacts in Britain. The help may or may not include financial assistance; in 1962 the Council assisted a total of 1,265 visitors, of whom about 550 were either being paid for in full or receiving some financial assistance from the Council. About 800 of the visitors were from developing countries, and the Council spent about £130,000 in arrangements for them. The subjects of study of all scholars, bursars and visitors (including those from developed countries) in 1961/2 were:-

	Arts/Humanities	Education	Medicine	Science & Technology	Social Science	Misc.	Total
Scholars	69	106	59	90	52	-	376
Bursars	69	56	64	48	57	-	294
Visitors	265	301	215	203	253	28	1,265

ii) Courses and Study Tours

Courses arranged by the British Council are of various kinds. They include specialist courses, such as those lasting three weeks for overseas teachers of English, and some particularly designed for those engaged in public affairs in developing countries, such as the three-month courses on Taxation, Central Government Finance, Problems of Economic Development, and Personnel Management and Industrial Relations. About 400 people from developing countries attended these specialist courses in 1961/2, most

of them already being under such award schemes as UK technical assistance, CD & W, British Council bursaries, etc.

Distinct from these are the three-to-six-month remedial English courses run for those overseas students about to engage in courses of study in Britain whose knowledge of English is inadequate; the very short introduction and orientation courses, lasting about three days, arranged for many overseas students on their arrival in Britain; the week-end and holiday courses arranged for overseas students in Britain. 'Study tours' are a series of visits arranged on request for groups of experts from overseas countries to study the latest practice in Britain in their field. In 1961/2, 29 such tours were arranged for groups from developing countries, 15 of them in the educational field for groups of teachers.

iii) Placing and Administration of Fellows, Trainees and Students

Reference has already been made to the activities of the British Council in placing technical assistance trainees in education and training institutions or on courses in Britain. There are many other categories of student from developing countries for whom the Council performs this function, numbering in all perhaps about 1, 500 out of the 20, 000 or so who embark on courses of study in Britain every year (assuming the average length of study of the 45, 000 students from developing countries in Britain is two years or a little over). The places of study and training include universities, technical colleges, training colleges, post-graduate medical institutions and hospitals, research institutions, local and central government, and industry. The main categories of trainee from developing countries placed by the British Council during the year 1962/3 were:

a) the 470 technical assistance trainees already referred to;
b) about 200 British Council Scholars;
c) about 60 trainees under the OECD Third Country Training Scheme;
d) about 260 trainees under United Nations Technical Assistance and the programmes of the International Atomic Energy Agency, FAO, and UNESCO;
e) about 350 private or overseas government scholars.

In addition to the above, the Council also placed some 250 British Council Bursars from developing countries in 1962/3, but these, being in Britain mostly for only 2-6 months, would generally not be included in the Council's estimate for full-time overseas students in Britain. The Council also placed students and trainees from developed countries (Europe, USA, etc.) under all these schemes, except for British regional

technical assistance programmes which apply to developing countries only.

The British Council looks after the welfare, accommodation, travel and other arrangements of all the trainees and students under UN programmes, British technical assistance programmes, Commonwealth Educational Co-operation (CEC), its own British Council schemes and various others. This service is not confined to those for whom the Council has placing responsibilities; for instance, although the UK Commonwealth Scholarships Commission and Ministry of Education respectively handle the academic arrangements for Commonwealth Scholars and Bursars, the British Council has its own Commonwealth Scholarship and Bursaries Department which is responsible for all other administrative matters in connection with the scheme. The costs incurred by the Council in respect of placing and administration under technical assistance, CEC and (until 1962/3) CD & W are met by the Department of Technical Co-operation through an appropriation in aid amounting to £242, 000 in 1962/3.

Altogether, the British Council was responsible for the general administration of about 3, 700 students and trainees (some of them from developed countries) in 1961/2.

iv) Welfare and other Facilities

The British Council maintains a network of area offices and local correspondents throughout Britain to organise the welfare and programme arrangements for overseas students in Britain. There are some twenty Area Offices, and a total of 222 staff are employed in Britain outside London. The Council provides the secretariat for the London Conference on Overseas Students and similar conferences and committees in other cities. These conferences co-ordinate the activities of the main voluntary and other bodies providing services for overseas students.

All full-time overseas students are eligible to join, for a small subscription, the Council's 'Student Centres' which exist in most places where there are large numbers of overseas students, and provide a wide range of activities including lectures, discussion groups, debates, dances, socials, film shows and advisory services. Through these centres are arranged holiday courses, and visits and introductions to British families and individuals. Advice on health matters is also open to all students.

With certain countries there is an official agreement for the Council to provide an additional range of services, including meeting on first arrival and provision of first night accommodation, the finding of permanent accommodation in lodgings or one of the Council's own hostels, and three-day

introductory orientation courses for newly arrived students. The countries concerned cover all British colonial territories; all independent developing countries in the Commonwealth; and a large number of foreign countries, mostly in the Middle and Far East and Africa. (Table 9 gives full details of the numbers for whom all these various services were provided in 1961/2).

In addition to all the above activities, the British Council is also responsible for the administration of the £3m given by the British Government for student hostels as part of the Overseas Student Welfare Expansion Programme. It is hoped to provide 5, 000 additional residential places for overseas students with this money, mainly in the form of grants to voluntary bodies for expanding their hostels or for building new ones. The Council itself at present has four student residences, all in London.

Appendix 1

STATISTICAL TABLES

TABLE I — OFFICIAL UK AID TO DEVELOPING COUNTRIES 1962/3*; EDUCATION AND TRAINING

Summary Table — Distribution by Type of Expenditure £'000

	Capital Expend. on Buildings, Equipment, etc.	Recurrent Expenditure	Supply British Teachers	Teacher Training	Scholarships Training (excl. teacher training	Books	Other	Total
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Colonial Development and Welfare[a]	4,492.1[b]	189.2	-	21.6	353.6	-[b]	73.5[c]	5,130.1
Commonwealth Educational Co-operation[d]	-	-	138.8	377.5	314.5[e]	-	20.5	851.3
British Council[f]	22.0	123.8	323.8	-	329.1[g]	238.4	600.0[h]	1637.1
Training under Tech. Assist. Schemes[i]	n.a.	-	n.a.[j]	-	1,371.0	-	-	1371.0[k]
Other Schemes	Cyprus Schools 17; Univ. Coll. Ibadan 5.4; Nigerian Educ. Prog. 250	Cyprus Schools 23; Agric. Coll. 35 Trinidad	Overseas Service Aid Scheme (1500 approx.)		Fed. Malaya Schol. 0.6; Hong Kong Univ. 0.3; F.B.I. Schols. Scheme 25[e]; 'Hidden' Subsidy to overseas univ. students (9000) approx.[k]	Low Price Book Scheme 200	Commonwealth Educ. Liaison Unit 6; Inter-Univ. Council 45[c]; TETOC 19; Contribs. to Education through UK agencies (500 approx.[k])	626 + (11,000) approx.

TABLE 2 — OFFICIAL UK AID TO DEVELOPING COUNTRIES 1962/3*: EDUCATION AND TRAINING

Summary Table — Distribution by Area: £'000

Percentage figures in brackets refer to distribution of students under the scheme in question in 1961/2 (excluding those from developed countries) or for OSAS distribution of OSAS-supported educational personnel

		AFRICA C'wealth	AFRICA Non-C'wealth	ASIA C'wealth	ASIA Non-C'wealth	Caribbean C'wealth	Latin America	Oceania	Malta Gibraltar	General & Other	TOTAL
Colonial Development and Welfare[a]		2,575.9	-	331.5	-	1,776.3	-	39.9	232.4	174.0[c]	5,130.1
Commonwealth Educational Co-operation	(Teacher supply	n.a.	-	n.a.	-	n.a.	-	n.a.	n.a.	-	138.8
	(Teacher training	(64%)	-	(14%)	-	(16½%)	-	(1%)	(4½%)	-	377.5[e]
	(Schols. to UK	(27%)	-	(61%)	-	(10%)	-	(½%)	(1%)	-	314.5
	(Other	-	-	-	-	-	-			20.5	20.5
British Council	(Grants	17	52.9	33.3	34.4	-	8.2	-	-	-	145.8
	(Teacher supply	7.6	72.2	85.7	121.2	-	36.1	-	-	-	323.8[g]
	(Schols. and Burs.	36.8	52.0	76.4	87.5	7.5	63.8	1.9	3.2	-	329.1
	(Books & Periodicals	44.3	14.2	118.8	42.1	4.2	12.8	1.0	1.0	-	238.4
	(Other	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	600.0	600.0
Training under Tech. Asst. Schemes[i]		320.0	18.0[l]	997.0		-	-[k]	-	-	36.0[l]	1,371.0[h]
FBI Schols. (Govt. Contrib.)		9%	8%	14%	25%	-	44%	-	-	-	25[d]
OSAS		86½%	-	6%	-	2%	1½%	4%	0.1%	-	1500.0[k]
Other schemes		Univ. Coll. Ibadan 5.4 Nigerian Education Prog. 250		Malaya Schol. 0.6 Hong Kong Univ. 0.3 Cyprus Schools 40 Low Price Book Scheme 200		Agric. Coll. Trinidad 35				IUC 45[c] CELU 6 TETOC 19 Contribs. through UN Agencies (500)[k]	601 + (500)
Hidden subsidies	(Adv. Tech. Courses	(41%)	(3%)	(32%)	(16.5%)	(6%)	(1%)	(0.0%)	(0.5%)	-	(1,600)[k]
	(Hon. Adv. Tech. "	(41%)	(4%)	(19.5%)	(28%)	(5.4%)	(1.5%)	(0.5%)	(0.1%)	-	(1,900)[k]
	(Universities	(30.5%)	(6.5%)	(35.5%)	(17.5%)	(7%)	(2%)	(0.2%)	(0.7%)	-	(5,500)[k]

NOTES

* Unless otherwise specified figures are based on official Civil Estimates (unrevised) for UK financial year 1962/3.

a Schemes approved (new commitments) during 1961/2 (see also Table 4).

b Some CD & W schemes for equipment of schools, universities, etc., include provision of books.

c Up to 1961/2 IUC appeared on CD & W and was allocated £29,000 from CD & W in that year. In 1962/3 estimates it was transferred to a separate subhead on DTC's vote and was allocated £45,000. Thus this table involves some double counting on this item.

d The schemes financed from Commonwealth Educational Co-operation funds are distributed in Table 1 as follows: 'Supply British Teachers' includes 'topping up' salaries of British teachers, Teachers for East Africa Scheme, contribution to graduate volunteer scheme, training of British English-language teachers for service overseas (Aid to Commonwealth English), contribution to Catholic Overseas Appointments. 'Teacher training' covers Commonwealth Bursaries in Britain and Teacher Vacation Courses in Africa. 'Scholarships training' covers Commonwealth Scholarships in Britain and £2,000 for training of examiners for West Africa. 'Other' includes the contribution to CETO and a token amount for social education.

e Calculated on basis of proportion of students under these schemes coming from developing countries in 1961/2.

f The £1.637m included in Tables 1 and 2 represents only certain easily identifiable British Council programmes of educational assistance to developing countries. As explained in the text the Council estimates its 1962/3 expenditure on education for developing countries at between £5m and £6m. The larger figure would include items such as full-time English-language teaching staff and librarians, who do not find a place here.

g Includes British Council Scholars, Bursars and 'Visitors'.

h Residence for overseas students in UK.

i Colombo Plan, SCAAP, CENTO, FAMA, Other Countries technical assistance.

j Technical Assistance includes supply of equipment for training purposes and of educational 'experts': exact value not available.

k Rough estimates only (basis of calculation given in Table 3 and in text.)

l The 'Other Countries' for whom provision was made in technical assistance arrangements in 1962/3 include various Latin American countries, Middle Eastern countries (including Egypt),

SOURCES

Civil Estimates	1962/3 unrevised (see Table 3)
CD & W	Return of Schemes 1961/2 (HoC 232)
CEC	DTC (unpublished)
British Council	Data supplied by the Council
Training under Technical Assistance Schemes	
See Table 3, where estimates based on following sources:	
	Colombo Plan: Technical Co-operation under the Colombo Plan HMSO October 1962
	Other Schemes: privately supplied by DTC
FBI Scholarships	Geographical breakdown of scholars — provided by FBI Government contribution — provided by Treasury
Low-Priced Book Scheme	— Statement by Mr Vosper, House of Commons April 1962
'Hidden' Subsidies and Contributions through UN Agencies	Author's own calculations

TABLE 3 (1) – SOURCES OF UK OFFICIAL ASSISTANCE TO EDUCATION AND TRAINING IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

1	2	3	4	5	6	
	Vote 1962/3	Total 1962/3 Estimate (unrevised)	Proportion of (3) for Education in Developing Countries	Expenditure on Education in Developing Countries		NOTES
		£	£	£ 1961/2	1960/1	
British Council	FO II 3 CRO II 4J CO II 7E CAO II 12C	3,952,000 2,071,500 536,500 64,000 6,624,000				The British Council's gross revenue and expenditure for the year 1962/3 were estimated at £8,039,000. Income was derived from Government grants of £6.624m (as opposite) and £600,000 for student hostels; other donations of £64,000; an appropriation in aid of £242,000 from the DTC for handling administration of technical assistance trainees, Commonwealth Scholars and Bursars. etc.; and £508,000 earning from the sale of services, books, materials, etc.
Grants to Educational Institutions			469,567	386,746	338,552	This is made up of items in cols 1, 2 & 3 against British Council in Table 1, and of 'grants' and 'supply British teachers' in Table 2. 1962/3 includes £33,333 (part of a grant of £50,000 p.a. for English Schools Cyprus starting August 1962).
Scholarships and Bursaries			329,100	326,000	295,000	Approx. 75% of total British Council expenditure under this head is for developing countries.
Books and Periodicals			238,375	254,000 approx	213,000 approx	Approx. 80% of total British Council expenditure under this head is for developing countries.
Special Capital Expenditure (Student Hostels)	CRO II 4K	600,000	600,000	52,657	-	Part of £3m to be devoted to building hostels in Britain for overseas students, mostly from the Commonwealth. British Council administers grant.
Cyprus English Schools	CRO II 5C	40,000	40,000	69,790	46,111	Residue of total grant of £160,000 to assist three English schools in Nicosia during the two years following independence. Grant administered by British Council. Starting August 1962, £50,000 p.a. to be granted out of funds of British Council, which is taking over support of these schools.

(Continued)

TABLE 3 (2)

1	2	3	4	5	6	NOTES
		£	£	£ 1961/2	1960/1	
Federation of Malaya Scholarship	CRO II 5E	600	600	600	600	A gift of post-graduate scholarship to Malaya at independence (1957).
Nigeria: University College Ibadan	CRO II 5G	5,400	5,400	60,000	80,324	Unspent balance at Independence of UK commitments for approved CD & W schemes administered by College.
Nigerian Education Programme	CRO II 5H	250,000	250,000	-	-	Part of £5m capital assistance promised by British Government over period of 7 years towards cost of certain Higher Education establishments.
Commonwealth Education Liaison Unit	CRO II 5Q	6,000	6,000	7,898	5,440	UK's annual subscription to expenses of Unit. This is included in the £6m allocation over five years to Commonwealth Educational Co-operation.

(Continued)

1	2	3	4	5	6	NOTES
		£	£	£		
				1961/2	1960/1	
Colonial Development and Welfare (Territorially allocated Schemes)	CRO II 6*	375,000	4,000,000	5,300,000	(3,950,000	Under CD & W Act 1959 the Government agreed to provide £95m over the five years 1959/64, in addition to £45.5m remaining expenditure from the previous period. CD & W money is now on the votes of the Colonial Office for funds allocated directly to Colonial territories; the Central African Office for schemes in Rhodesia and Nyasaland, and the DTC for centrally allocated General Schemes. In 1962/3, territorial allocations on the CO and the CRO votes amount to £23.1m, and the figures in columns 4, 5 and 6 are calculated on the basis that the same proportion will be allocated to education as in the years 1946-58.
	CO II 9*	22,700,000				
Colonial Development and Welfare (General Schemes)	DTC II 10M1	2,265,450	1,753,000		(1,738,000	The figure in column 4 is only approximate and is based on information made available by the DTC. The CD & W general schemes were mostly for university and higher technical institutions and Civil Service training in 1962/3. Under the re-organisation of the DTC estimates in 1963/4, the general schemes method covers only higher education. Colonies are now included in the regional technical assistance programmes Colombo Plan, SCAAP, etc) and receive training assistance under these instead of under CD & W General Schemes.

*When the Central African Office was established in March 1962, the money on the CRO vote was transferred to CAO, and also the proportion of funds under CO vote II 9 that was for expenditure in Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland. This gave a total CAO estimate of £1.7m (£1.3m for 1963/4)

(Continued)

TABLE 3 (4)

1	2	3	4	5	6	NOTES
		£	£	£ 1961/2	1960/1	
South and SE Asia Technical Co-operation (Colombo Plan)	DTC II 10E	1,600,000	864,000	844,000	554,000	Figure in column 4 is based on the assumption that the proportion of 54% for training expenditure in 1961/2 was maintained.
Special Commonwealth African Assistance Plan: Technical Assistance (SCAAP)	DTC II 10F	1,185,000	320,000	149,870	44,738	See above: in 1960/1 and 1961/2 training expenditure was 27% of total
Technical Assistance for Non-Commonwealth Countries and Territories of Africa South of the Sahara (FAMA)	DTC II 10G1	60,000	18,000	10,265	8,040	See above: in 1960/1 and 1961/2 training expenditure was 30% of the total.
Central Treaty Organisation Technical Assistance (CENTO)	DTC II 10H1	719,140	80,000	84,000	63,000	See above: in 1960/1 and 1961/2 training expenditure was 11% of total.
CENTO Agric. Machinery and Soil Conservation Training Centre	DTC II 10H2(3)	53,000	53,000	31,186	10,336	
Other Countries Technical Assistance	DTC II 10K1	100,000	36,000	-	-	This scheme, started in 1962/3, covers Latin America, some Middle Eastern countries and Korea. The figure in column 4 is based on the fact that training accounted for 36% of expenditures under all other Technical Assistance schemes in 1960/1 and 1961/2.

(Continued)

TABLE 3 (5)

1	2	3	4	5	6	NOTES
		£	£	£ 1961/2	1960/1	
Inter-University Council	DTC II 10K2	45,000	45,000	41,033*	n.a.	Until 1962 this fell under CD & W general schemes. With geographical extension of the Council's work and independence of many former Colonial territories this ceased to be realistic.
Council for Technical Education and Training for Overseas Countries (TETOC)	DTC II 10K2	19,000	19,000	17,100*	-	Previously known as Council for Overseas Colleges of Arts Science and Technology (COCAST) and until 1962 on CD & W vote.
Commonwealth Educational Co-operation (CEC)	DTC II 10L	1,099,800	851,300	576,000	298,000	UK Government making available up to £6m over 5 years 1960-65, mostly for Commonwealth Scholarships and Bursaries tenable in Britain, and for inducements to UK teachers to serve in the Commonwealth. The reduction in columns 4, 5 and 6 as compared with published estimates and expenditures is accounted for by the fact that about 30% of Scholarships have gone to holders from Australia, Canada, New Zealand and S. Africa; they also exclude teachers exchanges with developed countries.
Overseas Service Aid Scheme (OSAS)	DTC II 10N1	14,471,000	1,500,000	1,350,000	-	The figure in columns 4 & 5 are based on the fact that out of 15,418 OSAS officers in Commonwealth countries in 1962, 1,607 were engaged in educational work.
Imperial College of Tropical Agric., Trinidad	DTC II 10O2	35,000	35,000	35,000	35,000	Assistance of £35,000 annually promised up to July 31, 1963. Other assistance to the College being provided from CD & W funds.
Hong Kong University	DTC II 10O3	300	300	300	300	Provisions for scholarships tenable by British subjects.

* 1961/2 Estimates

(Continued)

1	2	3	4	5	6
		£	£	£	
				1961/2	1960/1
Industrial Training Schemes	Board of Trade IV 2L	97,750	25,000	19,800	16,200
UNESCO subscription	Min. of Ed. VI 8L	394,316	500,000	n. a.	n. a.
United Nations Grants in Aid					
i) EPTA	DTC II 10D1	1,071,500			
ii) Special Fund	DTC II 10D1	1,785,800			
Overseas Books and Services	COI IX 10J	373,000	200,000	90,000 approx	

Sources: Civil Estimates 1962/3
Civil Appropriation Accounts 1960/1, 1961/2
Data supplied by British Council

NOTES

One of the schemes supported by the Board of Trade is the FBI Overseas Scholarship Scheme. £30,000 was allocated to this in 1962/3, £23,730 was spent on the scheme in 1961/2 and £19,381 in 1960/1. The figures have been amended to take account of the fact that approximately 1/6 of FBI scholars are from developed countries.

The British contribution to UNESCO was 7.53% of the Organisation's budget in 1962/3 (7.23% in 1963/4). Britain also contributes about the same proportion to the Expanded Programme of Technical Assistance and the UN Special Fund. In addition to Some $10m of its own budget which UNESCO will spend on its education programme operations and services in the two years 1963/4, UNESCO will also use for education and training schemes $34m received from EPTA and the Special Fund. It may be calculated that the total British contribution to education through these programmes will be approximately £1m over the two-year period.

Out of the total vote in 1962/3 of £373,000 for overseas books and services, approximately £200,000 is allocated to the low-price book scheme for Asian Countries (Statement by Mr Vosper in House of Commons, April 1962).

TABLE 4 — COLONIAL DEVELOPMENT AND WELFARE: EDUCATION AND TRAINING SCHEMES APPROVED 1961/2

£

	Construction & equipment of schools & training establishments	Recruitment expenditure including teachers' salaries	Teacher-training	Scholarships & training in UK	Overseas Civil Service training	Other vocational training	Miscellaneous +	TOTALS
Africa	2,192,225	137,393	112	21,085 (5,309)	79,760	7,754 (95,724)	34,048 (2,500)	2,472,377 (103,533)
Malta	227,623 (4,800)	-	-	-	-	-	-	227,623 (4,800)
Middle East	131,119	17,101	24	-	-	-	-	148,244
Far East	183,043	-	-	- (220)	-	-	-	183,043 (220)
Oceania	34,557	736	-	1,860 (750)	-	- (2,012)	-	37,153 (2,762)
West Indies	1,669,847 (48,842)	2,592 (31,406)	21,460	-	-	- (2,188)	-	1,693,899 (82,436)
General	-	-	-	- (15,125)	120,839	- (1,000)	28,892 (8,085)	149,831 (24,210)
TOTALS	4,438,414* (53,642)	157,822 (31,406)	21,596*	22,945 (21,404)	200,599	7,754 (100,924)	62,940 (10,585)	4,912,070 (217,961)

NOTES Unbracketed figures are those included in the category "education" and "training schemes for the Overseas Civil Service" in the summary of commitments for 1961/2 given on p 37 of the CD & W Return of Schemes for that year (H of C 232). Bracketed figures are the additional amounts spent on education and training listed in categories other than the above.

* Of the total of £4.5m to be spent on construction and equipment of education and training institutions, at least £350,000 was specifically committed for spending on equipment, mostly for universities in Africa and the West Indies, and between £100,000 and £200,000 was allocated to teacher-training institutions.

\+ includes Inter University Council £28,982; appointment of adviser for East African Students in North America £15,548; initial development of University of East Africa £12,000; visits from Birmingham University to the University College of Rhodesia and Nyasaland £1,500; contribution to Overseas Visual Aids Centre £5,000; development of schools broadcasting, Tanganyika £2,500; appointment of adviser to colonial students in North America on adult education course £380.

Source: Colonial Development and Welfare Act. Return of schemes, April 1961 - March 1962. H of C 232.

TABLE 5 —

COMMITMENTS TO EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION UNDER CD & W FUNDS: APRIL - MARCH OF EACH YEAR

Year	Primary and Secondary £m	Technical and Vocational £m	Higher £m	Total Education £m	Civil Service Training Schemes £m	Total Development and Welfare expenditure (including research) £m	Education and Training as % of CD & W %
1946/7	1.40	0.09	0.41	1.90	0.15	7.73	26.5
1947/8	1.01	0.82	0.42	2.25	0.15	14.00	17.1
1948/9	0.63	0.20	0.51	1.34	0.39	12.28	14.1
1949/50	0.87	0.66	0.93	2.46	0.50	13.36	22.2
1950/1	1.39	0.21	2.34	3.94	0.33	14.11	30.3
1951/2	1.61	1.36	0.58	3.55	0.43	16.91	23.5
1952/3	1.33	0.20	0.27	1.80	0.37	14.98	14.5
1953/4	0.96	0.50	1.09	2.55	0.36	15.45	18.8
1954/5	1.58	0.57	0.65	2.80	0.27	15.29	20.1
1955/6	1.53	1.28	2.47	5.28	0.52	29.80	19.5
1956/7	1.09	0.11	2.52	3.72	0.46	25.96	16.1
1957/8	2.22	0.19	1.58	3.99	0.34	19.60	23.3
1958/9	1.85	0.81	1.39	4.05	0.27	17.46	27.9
1959/60	2.68	1.22	2.07	5.97	0.66	35.37	17.9
1960/1	5.05	1.68	3.08	9.81	0.39	37.48	27.2
1961/2	2.12	0.32	2.27	4.71	0.20	21.17	23.2
Cumulative Total 1946/62	27.18 (9.3%)	9.75 (3.3%)	21.52 (7.4%)	58.45 (20%)	4.57 (1.6%)	292.02	21.6

Source: Colonial Development and Welfare Acts: Annual returns of schemes 1947-62

TABLE 6 — ISSUES FOR EDUCATION UNDER CD & W FUNDS: APRIL - MARCH OF EACH YEAR

Year	1 Primary and Secondary £m	2 Technical and Vocational £m	3 Higher £m	4 Total Education £m	5 Civil Service Training Schemes £m	6 Total Development and Welfare Expenditure (including research) £m	7 Education and Training as % of CD & W
1946/7	0.35	0.04	0.04	0.43	0.09	3.55	14.7
1947/8	0.51	0.52	0.08	1.11	0.13	5.34	23.2
1948/9	0.73	0.15	0.27	1.25	0.17	6.45	21.9
1949/50	1.30	0.46	0.88	2.64	0.25	12.99	22.4
1950/1	1.03	0.39	1.03	2.45	0.29	13.56	20.2
1951/2	1.48	0.60	1.38	3.46	0.30	14.63	25.7
1952/3	1.42	0.85	1.07	3.34	0.32	14.48	25.3
1953/4	1.15	0.51	0.79	2.45	0.31	14.07	19.6
1954/5	1.31	0.73	0.63	2.67	0.32	16.12	18.6
1955/6	1.15	0.57	0.93	2.65	0.32	16.35	18.2
1956/7	1.17	0.39	1.61	3.17	0.30	18.61	18.7
1957/8	1.37	0.35	1.80	3.52	0.34	19.28	20.0
1958/9	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	18.85	
1959/60	"	"	"	"	"	25.58	
1960/1	"	"	"	"	"	24.66	
1961/2	"	"	"	"	"	25.83*	
1962/3	"	"	"	"	"	(27.48)+	
Cumulative Total 1946/58	12.95	5.54	10.40	28.89	3.13	155.40	20.6
1946/62	n.a	n.a	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	251.09	

* provisional

Source: Cmnd. 9375 and Cmnd. 672 Return of Schemes 1961/2 for total issues (Col. 6) between 1955/6 and 1961/2

+ estimate only — 1962/3 Civil Estimates

TABLE 7 — PROVISION OF TRAINING BY UK UNDER COLOMBO PLAN & SCAAP TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE SCHEMES

Position as at 31st December 1962

	COLOMBO PLAN					SCAAP					
Stage Reached	India	Pakistan	Ceylon	Other 9 Countries	Total Colombo Plan	Ghana	Nigeria	Sierra Leone	Tanga-nyika	Total SCAAP	Grand Total
Training Completed	1,568	845	616	1,291	4,320	97	233	24	35	389	4,709
Trainees in Britain	159	194	50	297	700	28	153	15	130	326	1,026
TOTAL training places provided so far	1,727	1,039	666	1,588	5,020	125	386	39	165	715	5,735
Cases under consideration:											
Trainees on the way	29	4	1	13	47	-	24	4	10	38	85
British offers being considered by Applicant Govt.	30	4	2	41	77	8	7	2	4	21	98
Applics. still being studied in Britain	101	122	32	152	407	20	69	10	13	112	519
TOTAL	160	130	35	206	531	28	100	16	27	171	702
Applics. not followed by Training:											
Places offered but declined	109	157	116	127	509	8	19	6	4	37	546
Applics. out of Agreement's scope	21	38	28	16	103	-	6	4	-	10	113
Facilities in Britain not avail.	101	63	52	149	365	1	6	-	-	7	372
Nominees unsuitable	61	42	69	131	303	17	44	3	11	75	378
Applics. withdrawn while under consideration	200	104	76	227	607	7	46	1	38	92	699
TOTAL	492	404	341	650	1,887	33	121	14	53	221	2,108
TOTAL APPLICATIONS over scheme period	2,379	1,573	1,042	2,444	7,438	186	607	69	245	1,107	8,545

Source: DTC (unpublished)

COMMONWEALTH SCHOLARSHIP PLAN — TABLE 8

Subject of Study of New Arrivals in Britain 1961/2

Natural Sciences	31	Engineering and Technical	33
Physics	7	Mechanical Engineering	3
Nuclear Physics	4	Electrical Engineering	6
Chemistry	4	Chemical Engineering	3
Organic Chemistry	2	Civil Engineering	3
Inorganic Chemistry	1	Public Health Engineering	4
Entomology	4	Aerodynamics	1
Zoology	4	Concrete Technology	6
Crystallography	3	Glass Technology	1
Meteorology	1	Textile Technology	1
Geomorphology	1	Metallurgy	2
		Physical Metallurgy	1
Medical Sciences	31	Mineral Exploration	1
		Photogrammetry	1
Medicine	2		
Surgery	8		
Neurosurgery	1	Economics and Social Studies	26
Paediatrics	4		
Gynaecology	2		
Ophthalmology	2	Statistics	1
Tropical Medicine & Hygiene	1	Econometrics	1
Health Education	1	Economics	8
Clinical Psychology	1	Econ. & Political Science	1
Clinical Pathology	1	PPE	1
Physiology	1	Political Science	1
Neuroanatomy	1	Government	1
Bacteriology	1	Social Administration	1
Haematology	1	Town Planning	3
Cytogenetics	1	Civil Design	1
Endocrinology	1	Law	7
Pharmacology	1		
Pharmacy	1		
		Arts Subjects	24
Agricultural Sciences	7		
		English	4
Agriculture	1	French	1
Agricultural Botany	2	Arabic	2
Plant Pathology	1	Classics	1
Soil Microbiology	1	Linguistics	1
Rural Science	1	Philology	1
Animal Nutrition	1	Geography	3
		History	5
Mathematics	3	Archaeology	1
		Philosophy	3
Education	5	African Studies	1
		Music	1
Librarianship	1		
		TOTAL:	161

Source: Second Annual Report on Commonwealth Scholarship and Fellowship Plan 1961/2, HMSO November 1962

TABLE 9 — British Council Services for Overseas Students in Britain

	Common-wealth	Colonial	Foreign	Total
Arrivals				
Met and assisted on first arrival	5,127	3,601	1,679	10,407
Accommodation arranged (see Note 1)				
In Council Residences				
(i) Permanent accommodation	184	133	3	320
(ii) Transit accommodation on first arrival	1,049	1,212	98	2,359
(iii) Temporary accommodation while away from place of study	532	550	61	1,143
In Lodgings (see Note 2)				
(i) Permanent accommodation	3,168	1,630	1,503	6,301
(ii) Transit accommodation on first arrival	802	734	675	2,211
(iii) Temporary accommodation while away from place of study	2,900	1,636	1,990	6,526
In University and other Hostels and Halls of Residence	379	321	174	874
Social Activities and Courses				
(i) Members of Council Centres	3,939	2,223	6,081	12,243
(ii) Holiday courses (7-15 days) attendances	761	777	941	2,479
(iii) Week-end courses, study visits and surveys: attendances	7,231	3,746	9,523	20,500
(iv) Introduction courses: attendances	1,696	1,279	1,030	4,005
Hospitality				
Invitations from organisations and private individuals made through the Council and accepted	5,831	2,879	4,837	13,547

Note 1: In addition, 1,593 UN Fellows and trainees under Technical Assistance Schemes were assisted to find accommodation.

Note 2: 2,128 new lodgings were inspected and added to the Council's registers of recommended addresses. The total number of addresses on registers at 31st March, 1962 was 13,501.

Source: British Council Annual Report 1961/2. Appendix X

Appendix 2

UK Organisations Concerned with the Supply of Teachers Overseas
(see Sections III and IV for fuller details)

1. Co-ordinating and Promotional Bodies (non-recruiting)

   National Council for the Supply of Teachers Overseas
   (secretariat at Ministry of Education)
   Committee on University Secondment ('Morris Committee')
   Voluntary Societies' Committee for Service Overseas
   ('Lockwood Committee').

2. Recruiting Bodies

   (a) School Teachers
   Department of Technical Co-operation
   British Council
   Catholic Overseas Appointments
   Overseas Appointment Bureau (of Institute of Christian Education)
   Women's Migration and Overseas Appointment Society
   Missionary Societies (for whom main central body is Conference of British Missionary Societies)
   (b) Technical Teachers
   Council for Technical Education and Training for Overseas Countries
   (c) University Teachers
   British Council
   Inter-University Council for Higher Education Overseas
   Association of Universities of the British Commonwealth
   (d) Educational 'Experts'
   Department of Technical Co-operation
   Council for Technical Education and Training for Overseas Countries

3. Volunteer-Sending Organisations

   International Voluntary Service
   National Union of Students and Scottish Union of Students
   United Nations Association of Great Britain and Northern Ireland
   Voluntary Service Overseas

Appendix 3

EDUCATIONAL ASSISTANCE: SOME FIRST REFLECTIONS

These impressions are strictly personal. They represent some first thoughts about Britain's educational aid arising out of many months' work in collecting material for this study. They are made in the recognition that educational assistance is not easy to give. It is expensive to move people (whether they be teachers or students) between the advanced and developing countries in anything like the required numbers, and, in any case, education is so closely related to the culture and economic environment of a society that there are limitations to the effectiveness of teachers who have a different social background from their pupils. This is the basic difficulty of giving educational aid and it underlines the importance of concentrating effort on those things which will enable the developing countries to become educationally self-sufficient as soon as possible.

In presenting these thoughts, I concentrate almost entirely on official assistance. The private sector's contribution, as I have tried to show, is today most impressive; and, in the past, it dominated Britain's educational assistance efforts. But whilst one may properly urge private institutions to reinforce their efforts, both in regard to size and effectiveness, and may plead for the maximum exchange of information so that all the individual activities take place in full knowledge of what others are doing, in the final resort these individual organisations must be the judge of what they can afford to do and must formulate their programmes in the light of their own objectives.

Government expenditure, on the other hand, is naturally a subject of public concern. The sad fact in regard to educational aid in the past is that an overall picture has never been presented either to Parliament or to interested sections of the public. True, information was not deliberately withheld; nor, on the other hand, was it deliberately made known.

Impressive Scope of Programme

A first main impression about Britain's official educational assistance is that a great deal more money and effort is being devoted to assisting education in the developing countries than is generally realised. Furthermore, the Government contribution in this field is rising in absolute terms, though not as a proportion of total aid, and there appears to be a new awareness of the important part played by education in development. Substantial parts of this assistance are not usually counted when Britain's aid is totalled. I think we should get into the habit of looking at our educational aid as a whole; and would plead for a greater awareness of the volume

of our resources being devoted to programmes in this field and to the way in which we are using them.

Some Strong Points

In many respects, Britain's contribution to the development of education and training in developing countries is wholly admirable. One has only to think of the very large numbers of overseas students in British educational institutions, and of the high proportion of places in higher education that they occupy. Britain has given impressive educational systems and institutions to her Colonies and former colonies, even if many things in the colonies have been left undone. The British Council's wide network of overseas representatives and offices, maintaining close links with the overseas educational world, and its universally envied provision of welfare for overseas students in Britain, are most valuable assets.

Effectiveness

It should not necessarily be inferred from what has just been said that Britain's present contribution is as effective as it could be, even with the presently available resources. But, for the most part, this study has been purely descriptive and has not been concerned to measure the effectiveness of British aid. To do this, one would first of all have to know what British objectives in giving assistance are. A realist must admit that much of Britain's aid is given in order to promote immediate or long-term political ends, and that altruism is only one motive in developing education in the poor parts of the world. There will, therefore, frequently be conflicts between what the politicians say is advantageous and what the educationalist thinks necessary to promote the most rapid educational advance in developing countries.

Second, to measure effectiveness one would need some yardstick by which to assess whether we were contributing to the achievement of our objectives through our aid. The relative political advantages of different forms of educational aid may be as much matters of opinion as of measurement; and even if the only objective were educational benefits, it is unfortunately true that techniques of measuring and comparing educational returns on different types of expenditure are still at a very unadvanced stage.

Third, any worthwhile assessment would require consideration of the needs of recipients whereas this study looks only at aid from the donors' end. Furthermore, it is incomplete in so far as full information is lacking on such things as the length of time teachers from Britain actually spend in developing countries, the subjects of study of the mass of overseas students in Britain and how far they are relevant to conditions in their home countries, and the numbers of them who actually return home.

I am only too conscious, therefore, that I have been unable to present much material that would throw light on how well the British

Government's annual outlay of at least £25m on education and training for developing countries is being spent.

Organisational Problems

Whilst recognising the difficulty of giving aid in the form of education and training, and admitting the problems involved in assessing its effectiveness, I must frankly express doubts as an outsider as to whether the system for giving aid to overseas education is the best that could be devised. In the first place, there is an apparent lack in an over-burdened civil service machine of any group of people able to escape day-to-day detailed administrative decisions and to consider Britain's overall programme as a whole. Furthermore, the present distribution of responsibility between Government Departments and others is extremely confusing, at least from the outside, and would appear to hinder the co-ordination of effort or the taking of an overall view. It seems a pity that the considerable knowledge and experience of overseas educational problems available in different parts of the Government and in related bodies is not brought together. The difficulties I have had in assembling this paper convince me that at present it is not. One is reminded forcibly of the Drogheda Report on the Overseas Information Services, which said: 'For anybody who approaches the Information Services from outside the first impression is likely to be one of bewilderment at the complexity of the organisation and its lack of any central direction. One seeks in vain for any individual or Department in a position to lay down an overall policy for our propaganda overseas or able to decide in what manner the resources available for propaganda can be deployed to best advantage. In fact, there is nothing which constitutes a 'High Command' for overseas propaganda. With the existing pattern of Ministerial responsibility in which a number of Ministers have some responsibility for different aspects of the work, no such overall control over policy and its execution is possible, except ultimately at Cabinet level.' What was said of the Information Services in 1954 might well be said of Britain's educational assistance now.

It is, of course, impossible to concentrate all decisions and policy-making in the hands of a single functional overseas aid department like the DTC — there must always be consultation both with the overseas departments responsible for our general relations with overseas countries and territories (the Foreign Office, CRO, Colonial Office and CAO) and with the specialist home departments (e.g. Departments of Education). But it is questionable whether, for example, the distinction in the case of independent countries between capital aid, which is dealt with by the CRO and Foreign Office, and technical aid, which is the province of the DTC, is logical when educational aid is under discussion. One might also ask whether the Low-Priced Book Scheme, and especially the University Textbooks Series, really does have more to do with the Central Office of Information than the DTC. Is the Ministry of Education quite the most

obvious department of Government to be represented on the Commonwealth Education Liaison Committee, when the subscription to the Liaison Unit is on the CRO vote and the actual funds for Commonwealth Educational Co-operation are handled by the DTC. Is there not a danger of confusion and overlap if several different bodies are engaged in looking for training places for, say, overseas medical students, or if the British Council and DTC are both subsidising teaching posts of the same kind in the same countries? Whilst it may be, and generally is, true that good relations and co-operation exist between the various departments and outside bodies concerned, this is no substitute for effective central control and review of all these different aspects of what after all should be one co-ordinated programme of British Government assistance to overseas education and training. Apart from any extra effort and expense which present arrangements may involve, they lead to considerable confusion in the minds of those outside the British Government, both overseas and at home, as to which body they should turn to for advice and help on educational matters.

Overseas Representation

One aspect of the problem of co-ordination is that the channels of information about educational developments abroad run mainly to the British Council rather than to Government Departments. As yet, the Department of Technical Co-operation has few permanent representatives of its own in overseas posts. The DTC clearly needs effective representation abroad and a steady stream of information from developing countries if it is to function properly. But duplication of the activities of the large permanent British Council staff would be wasteful, so that a problem for the future may be to devise a system whereby the Council's overseas posts are brought into even closer direct contact with British Government Departments than at present.

Financial Assistance

Looking at the overall pattern of the help given there seem to be one or two gaps in the system of educational aid, and some areas where performance could perhaps be improved. Present arrangements for capital aid include little provision for aid in the field of education to independent countries. On independence, ex-colonies as a rule receive no further financial help in building up their university, higher technical or other educational institutions, and only in the case of Nigeria has Britain sought to give assistance for this purpose. One also wonders whether, in special cases for important projects like teacher-training colleges, Britain might not modify the general rule of not helping with recurrent costs. One is reminded of a recent statement from London University that certain expensive new buildings could not be brought into use because the running expenses were lacking. What is true of London is likely to

be far more applicable in Africa and Asia. There cannot, of course, be any general undertakings in this field — the expense would be prohibitive — but, in cases where really poor countries badly need skills of particular kinds but cannot afford the recurrent expenditure of the necessary training institutions, a modification of attitude might be justifiable.

Teacher-Training

The shortage of good teachers in developing countries is critical. It must be overcome if they are to expand their education systems fast. In the past Britain has had to turn down capital schemes in the colonies because of uncertainty about staff provision. Yet the share of British aid devoted to teacher-training has been,and is, disproportionately small. Under 3% of students from developing countries in Britain are training to be teachers. Of students in British universities over 8% are from developing countries: in teacher-training institutions under 2½%. This would seem to be a point at which help is most needed,and if the proposed new expansion of facilities takes place in Britain one would hope to see a greater number of students from developing countries. A most disappointing start has been made in 1963; out of 12,700 new teacher-training college places in England, Scotland and Wales, only about 50 (or 0.4%) went to students from developing countries. I am aware that training in teacher-training colleges is not always rated as highly as it deserves in developing countries, and that this both enhances the difficulties of getting the best prospective teachers to come here for training, and also makes it difficult to send our own British college-trained teachers for service in developing countries.

Teacher Career Service

There is no denying that many British teachers going overseas at present are comparatively inexperienced and stay abroad for very short periods, and that even three-year periods of contract are not nearly as useful to developing countries as the long-term services of experienced teachers. It may in fact be true that it is difficult to recruit teachers for a long period of service in developing countries, but the impossibility of doing so, if the right arrangements and incentive are provided. has yet to be proved. We should, in any case, not try to make a virtue out of necessity, by pretending that it is positively better to send out a succession of teachers on short contracts rather than to make arrangements for long-term service overseas.

It is quite apparent that the demand for good quality British teachers will remain for a very long time and that a permanent corps of overseas teachers would be in little danger of suffering unemployment — which was the Government argument against the formation of a career service in some other fields. Furthermore,

it is not at all evident, as the British Government appears to assume, that teaching is a basic profession which can be carried on more or less the same anywhere. Because of social, cultural and language differences, it may take even the best teacher several years to 'get the feel' of a society different from his own and to become a really effective teacher in the new environment. The present inability (outside the limited sphere of English-language teaching) to give teachers who are prepared to spend a medium or long-term period in developing countries some form of security with British Government backing seems to represent a gap in present arrangements.

Support for Private Recruiting Agencies

In the context of teacher supply one slightly surprising aspect of Government policy is the readiness to finance volunteers, some of them unqualified school leavers, whilst the private recruiting agencies providing longer-term teachers work on a shoe-string. For instance, some of the voluntary recruiting bodies are forced to charge a £45 fee per teacher appointed to remain solvent — and a £45 fee is too much for many hard-up schools in the developing countries. Two of these agencies recruited about 140 teachers last year and received £1,000 between them. One of the volunteer sending organisations received over £30,000 for its school leaver programme, and for the graduate volunteers the Government is prepared to put up as much as £125,000 for 175 people in 1963/4. The volunteer schemes are admirable and deserve increasing support. But does this contrast represent a proper sense of priorities?

Comparative Value of Training in Britain and Overseas

Overseas students undoubtedly gain much of value from their stay in Britain. On the other hand there are generally acknowledged disadvantages for the student too. There is also the question of cost. My impression is that the cost of bringing students to Britain is usually thought of in terms of the cost to the budget of the department sponsoring training and not in terms of the total burden on British resources. But what about the indirect cost? I am told that at one extreme, post-graduate university study in some of the applied sciences may cost £1,500-£2,000 a year more than fees. Adding on to this fees, fares and maintenance and allowances, one soon reaches quite a high figure. If we intend devoting £2,500 of British resources to educational aid, is support of an overseas student in Britain for a year the best way of doing it? At this price for training in Britain, should we more closely control the subjects studied by overseas students in our universities and insist that they return to their home countries for a specified period after completing their training here? An alternative approach might be to

investigate more closely whether it would be cheaper and in other ways more advantageous for Britain to finance and run some forms of training overseas — assuming that the staff could be found. If experiments along these lines were to be carried out it would be as well to launch them now when there is still a large body of British citizens with intimate knowledge of overseas educational problems — many of them already serving overseas.

Technical Education

Technical education continues to be a poor relation in the British official aid programme. Even if one accepts that the figures conceal the conversion of erstwhile Colleges of Technology into University Departments in the colonies, it still remains true that remarkably little is being done in a field where one would have thought Britain was well placed to help. This year £1.35m is being allocated to university institutions under CD & W, and £0.2m to higher technical colleges. In Britain itself little progress has been made with sorting out responsibilities for the technical education and practical training of overseas students. If TETOC is to be responsible should it not have its responsibilities more closely defined and be given the resources to carry them out?

At present, many of those in British technical colleges are doing low-level non-technical subjects, and it is very difficult to secure practical training in industrial firms for any but their own employees. The new White Paper on industrial training may help with the raising of standards of training given, and one implication of the proposed levy is that the British Government should be prepared to pay in all cases for training given to those overseas students it is sponsoring.

Books

Although books are no substitute for teachers, where teachers are very short and of poor quality adequate libraries may help to make up for the lack of them, especially in higher education institutions. So far, the Low-Priced Book Scheme has been applied only to Asian countries, and the University Textbook Series to only five. By all accounts, it has been a successful experiment. Has the time not come to extend very considerably its scale and geographical spread — not only to West Africa as now proposed — but to other countries too? To subsidise 10,000 first class university text books may cost no more than to keep one senior university lecturer overseas for a year. The books may last ten years each: the lecturer takes several months to get acclimatised and is soon gone. Furthermore, gifts of books to libraries can be made at comparatively short notice, which may be an advantage in situations where there is difficulty in spending sums set aside for aid within the time allocated. At present for example, Common-

wealth Educational Co-operation funds voted by Parliament are in danger of being under-spent by over £1m.

Research

Britain's contribution to research in the education field is abysmal. Almost nothing has been spent on behalf of the developing countries. Fundamental research into teaching methods and psychology is admittedly poorly developed in Britain itself. But in many of the developing countries even the basic facts about wastage, subjects of study, school enrolment, manpower needs, etc., are not known. A vast field for investigation is the degree to which British curricula and text books are really suitable for overseas countries. The economics of education in developing countries is perhaps even more important — can they really afford to run the universities and schools that have been built for them?

Use of Existing Experience

In education, as in other fields, there is a serious danger that the store of experience available in Britain and among British citizens may run to waste. Reference has already been made to the need for special arrangements to encourage British teachers to stay for longer periods in developing countries. It also seems a pity not to use in Britain those outside Government with long experience of education in developing countries. It will soon be two years since the Advisory Committee on Education met for the last time. Might not its early renewal with wider terms of reference be useful?

Conclusion

To conclude, my main plea is that British educational assistance should be re-examined and should always be considered as a whole. In particular there should be more cost-consciousness and, in so far as effectiveness is measurable in this field, the comparative advantages of different programmes and courses of action should be taken more into account. (In these respects, the recent Bridges Report on training in Public Administration was something of a disappointment in that it contained precisely two monetary figures in the whole report, and suggested many improvements all along the line but almost no priorities and no real indication of the demand for the facilities it was supposed to be surveying).

None of these advances is possible without a comprehensive factual survey of existing arrangements and I hope this paper has made some small contribution to this end, and that it will be followed by other deeper studies in the same field. Once it can be demonstrated to the satisfaction of all that our present funds for educational aid are being put to good use we shall be more than justified in

allocating, as I believe should be done, more to helping the developing countries through education and training.

P. R. C. Williams
June 1963

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Staffing African Universities

by Sir Alexander Carr-Saunders 2/6

The Universities of Middle Africa need 3,000 non-African teachers during the next five years, and a further 2,500 till 1971. These are the numbers of posts that cannot be filled by locally-born teachers. Seventy per cent of this demand comes from English-speaking universities.

Assistance in filling these posts may be more valuable than economic aid to build colleges, or scholarships to train Africans abroad. More valuable perhaps — but also more difficult. For the universities of Europe and America are also expanding fast. There is no surplus of university teachers.

This pamphlet (which was made possible by the Carnegie Corporation) looks into the numerical need for expatriate university teachers in Africa, and suggests practical ways in which the problems of meeting the need may be overcome. Some of the ideas are novel—for example the suggestion that scholarships should be given to European and American graduates to study in Africa. Some, such as secondment, are being tried on a small scale already. In this case it is questions of salary, and length and type of contract, that are considered.

Sir Alexander Carr-Saunders has for long been closely associated with higher education in Africa. He is the author of New Universities Overseas, and he is well qualified both to analyse problems and to suggest solutions.

He feels that university teachers in Europe and America are perhaps a little slow to realise how stimulating an experience it can be to work in an African university. Old problems take new shapes and novel problems arise; it becomes necessary to re-examine beliefs and practices.

This pamphlet puts the needs, problems and opportunities into perspective. With its factual analysis and practical suggestions it is important to all those interested in the future of Africa.

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British Aid - a factual survey

The ODI has just completed the first factual survey of British aid to developing countries. The survey covers both Government aid and private contributions; there are sections on the fields of finance, education and technical assistance. The historical background has also been outlined.

The survey was prepared in the form of working papers and it is being published in the summer and autumn of 1963. It is prefaced by a shorter pamphlet which underlines some of the implications of the factual surveys and raises questions about the system. The pamphlets are being issued as they are ready and therefore not in numerical order.

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