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Overseas Development Institute

# AID TO EDUCATION: AN ANGLO-AMERICAN APPRAISAL

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REPORT OF A DITCHLEY FOUNDATION  
CONFERENCE HELD AT DITCHLEY PARK  
26-29 MARCH, 1965

*Rapporteur:* PETER WILLIAMS

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- 5 to keep the urgency of the problems before the public and the responsible authorities.

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PETER WILLIAMS

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# Preface

Education has long been regarded as a most important key to social and economic progress. But it is only in the last hundred years or so that it has ceased to be a privilege reserved for the few and has become the legitimate aspiration for most of the world's children. And only in the last decade has the contribution of education to economic growth begun to be thoroughly explored and the concept of investment in education become widely accepted.

Perhaps nowhere is there more expectation and more hope pinned on education than in the developing countries of Africa, Asia and Latin America. They are increasingly coming to recognise that their future economic progress depends at least as much on developing the skills and qualities of their peoples as on expanding their stock of physical capital. And their leaders also look to education as an instrument of social change which may be used for the attainment of long-term social and political objectives. For these and other reasons, most of these countries are already devoting a large part of their resources – both in money and skilled people – to education.

But the resources available locally in the developing countries for the expansion of education are generally insufficient. Given their present levels of income and their existing administrative apparatus, developing countries have no great prospect of rapidly increasing the amount they can raise in taxes to pay for more teachers or build more schools: and in human terms the cost of expanding the teaching force may be to deprive agriculture, industry and the public service of able recruits. So, despite the heavy commitment of their own resources to expanding education, developing countries must also look to external educational aid in the form of money, teachers, overseas training places, textbooks and other educational materials or equipment, or expert help and advice. Fortunately, on the side of those in a position to give aid to developing countries, there has been a corresponding awareness of the priority that education must have in assistance programmes. The main suppliers of help have been individual countries like Britain, France, the United States; international organisations – most notably UNESCO and, more recently, the World Bank; and private foundations, trusts and voluntary

organisations. From most of these sources, there has been a marked expansion of educational aid in recent years; and, as the assistance programmes have grown, increasing thought and study have recently been devoted to examining the conditions in which educational aid can be most fruitful and effective.

Against this background, and in view of the increasingly important role that educational co-operation is coming to play in the relationship of Britain and the United States with developing countries, the Ditchley Foundation, through its Provost Mr. H. V. Hodson, decided to convene a Conference on the subject at Ditchley Park, near Oxford, from 26-29 March 1965. Those participating included a strong group from the United States, drawn from the Agency for International Development (AID), American universities, and Foundations; their counterparts from similar bodies in Britain; staff members of the World Bank and the International Institute for Educational Planning; and leading educational administrators or university representatives from Africa, Asia and the Caribbean. Members of the Conference were invited in their personal capacities and not as delegates of their institutions. The Conference Chairman was Sir Roger Stevens, Vice-Chancellor of the University of Leeds and formerly Deputy Under-Secretary of State at the Foreign Office. A full list of participants in the Conference is given in Appendix IV.

Conference members were welcomed to Ditchley by the Provost; and before dispersing, the Conference expressed its great appreciation to him and his staff, and through them to the Ditchley Foundation, for the opportunity to meet in such splendid surroundings and for the generous hospitality members had enjoyed.

This report was prepared by Peter Williams, from the Overseas Development Institute, who was asked to be Conference Rapporteur. No individual member of the Conference, nor the Conference corporately, is committed to the terms of the report in detail.



# Introduction

The Conference had no formal terms of reference and its subject matter is perhaps best described by its full title, which was the 'Anglo-American Conference on the Principles and Policies of Educational Aid, especially in Africa, Asia and the Caribbean'. The geographical limitation thus implied merely reflected the main areas of interest and competence amongst those present at Ditchley; it does not by any means indicate that what was discussed was relevant only to specific donors and particular developing regions. The principles enunciated at the Conference and the conclusions reached doubtless apply more widely – both to other donors of educational aid, in Europe and elsewhere, and to other developing countries, such as the Latin American nations.

The Conference had at its disposal three days for study and discussion. It had therefore to pursue a relatively broad approach and could not examine in any detail particular programmes and methods of educational aid. But any danger that this could result in too diffuse a discussion was largely avoided by the way in which the Conference was arranged. Focus was given to the Conference's deliberations in three ways.

First, some valuable background documentation – both descriptive and analytical – had been circulated to participants beforehand: a list of this material, much of it specially prepared for the Conference, forms Appendix III of this report.

Second, in the earlier plenary sessions, discussion was opened with a number of introductory statements. These were made by Sir Andrew Cohen, Mr. Hutchinson and Mr. Ballantine on donors' programmes and approaches; by Dr. Awokoya, Mr. Kirpal, Dr. Sherlock and Dr. Siddiqi on the needs of recipient countries; and by Mr. Pifer and Mr. Hunter on the lessons of past experience.

Third, after sessions of the full Conference on the first day, the members divided for the whole of the second day into three study groups, each of which was charged with the task of reporting back on various aspects of educational aid. The final plenary sessions of the Conference were devoted to a full discussion of these reports, which are reproduced in full in Appendix I to this Report.

The Conference proceedings and conclusions can best

be summarised under four main subject headings, in the order followed at Ditchley:

- 1 donors' programmes and policies of educational aid
- 2 the requirements of recipient countries
- 3 general conclusions about principles and policies to be pursued
- 4 specific suggestions for future Anglo-American co-operation

# I Donor Programmes and Policies of Educational Aid

*Oral statements were made by Sir Andrew Cohen, Permanent Secretary of the Ministry of Overseas Development; by Mr. Edward C. Hutchinson, Assistant Administrator for Africa, Agency for International Development; and by Mr. Duncan S. Ballantine who, as Assistant Director of the Projects Department, is in charge of Education at the World Bank. In addition, further details about British and American programmes and policies were given in the documents listed in Appendix III.*

## (i) **Britain**

*History.* It was said on the British side that her involvement with the development of education systems in the poorer parts of the world had a long history. India was the main focus of attention in the nineteenth century: Africa and the Caribbean had held the limelight in the twentieth. The Second World War provided a major impetus to educational development in the colonies by opening up the prospect of self-government and eventual independence. It was then that the major instrument of British educational aid since the war – the Colonial Development and Welfare programme – had been forged. Recently, however, other programmes operating mainly in independent countries, such as Commonwealth Educational Co-operation and the Overseas Service Aid Scheme, had become more important.

*Current Outlays.* Britain was currently contributing from public funds about £16m (\$45m) a year in bilateral educational aid, and educational assistance constituted about 10% of the total aid programme. Outside this total was a further £9m (\$25m) or so in the form of a hidden subsidy to students from developing countries who, like home students, were charged less than economic fees for courses of higher education in Britain. British educational aid went predominantly to Commonwealth countries, though it was hoped that additional help would be given to foreign countries in future.

*Capital Help.* The British Government intended to expand provision over the next five years to £5m (\$14m) a year

for capital development of Commonwealth higher education institutions. Recent major recipients had included Zambia, Tanzania, and India. Britain was also helping institutions in non-Commonwealth countries with equipment.

*Teacher Supply.* Britain had a wide range of specialist teacher recruitment agencies finding teachers for work overseas. Her contribution included university teachers, where the Inter-University Council and British Council were the main bodies involved; technical teachers, where the Council for Technical Education and Training for Overseas Countries was primarily responsible; teachers of English as a second language, in which field there was a small career service of experts under the British Council; and secondary teachers and teacher-trainers, where the Ministry of Overseas Development was the major recruiter, but private bodies were also important. The Ministry's 1965 recruitment target for non-university teachers, including those going under the Teachers for East Africa Scheme, was 1,000. The volunteer programmes, under which 500 volunteers were teaching abroad at the time of the Conference and which were partly financed by Government, were also a useful supplement to the provision of more experienced teachers.

Most of the teachers serving overseas were being financed in part or in whole by Britain through the Overseas Service Aid Scheme or other technical assistance programmes. Special arrangements existed to assist the smooth transfer of teachers between home employment and overseas posts and vice versa.

*Expert Advice and Specialist Services.* Apart from teachers, other education specialist services of all kinds were being provided. Experts were frequently obtained on loan under arrangements with educational institutions in Britain, and it was now planned to establish a small permanent corps of specialists who would provide a spearhead for the technical assistance effort in education. In addition, a number of specialist institutions had been established, such as the Centre for Educational Television Overseas, with substantial assistance from voluntary sources such as the Nuffield Foundation.

*Books and Library Services.* The main contribution here was the library development work done by the British Council and

a special scheme for providing developing countries with low-priced books.

*Study and Training in Britain.* Altogether about 50,000 students and trainees from developing countries were studying in Britain out of a total of 64,000 overseas students. About one-tenth of the students attending British universities were from overseas. Most of the students were private or sponsored by their own authorities, though they benefited in many cases from the indirect subsidies already referred to. But over 3,000 of the students were holding awards under British Government aid programmes, including about 500 each under the Commonwealth Scholarships Plan and under the Commonwealth Bursaries Scheme for teacher training. In addition, the British Government ran special programmes for the welfare and accommodation of overseas students.

*Current Policies and Developments.* It was stated that educational assistance was regarded as a crucial factor in the whole aid programme. Since the contribution that a donor country like Britain could make was limited in relation to what had to be done, it was important to be selective, to maintain a high quality and to move in the direction of greater specialisation. Britain was conscious of some weaknesses in her current programme, and areas where intensified effort seemed to be needed included provision of teacher trainers, science education, supply of books, curriculum development, correspondence courses, arrangements for technical training, and educational research. A closer look was being taken at the comparative costs and effectiveness of various forms of educational aid and the relationship of programmes in the education field to the total development effort. The new British Government administrative arrangements should make for greater effectiveness throughout this field.

(ii) **United States**

A factual description of the US educational aid effort was presented in a paper submitted to the Conference by Education and World Affairs. The main points to emerge from this were as follows:

*Current Outlays.* About \$169m (£60m) was allocated in the

US fiscal year 1964 for education projects in developing countries by three main government agencies – Agency for International Development – \$71.2m (£25m); Peace Corps – \$64m (£23m), and the State Department's Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs – \$33.8m (£12m). (These figures slightly underestimate the total US contribution, since they do not include support for agricultural schools, medical education, etc., which would be listed under the agriculture, health, etc., programmes.) This total of \$169m represented three times as much as the figure for 1959. The geographical distribution of the bilateral educational aid in 1964 was 44% to Africa, 27% to Latin America and the Caribbean, 20% to the Near East and South Asia, and 9% to the Far East. Africa was the area where the sharpest rise in activities had taken place in recent years.

Quite apart from the bilateral programme, a further \$44.3m (£16m) was given for educational assistance through multilateral channels.

The bilateral programmes of the three agencies referred to above are as follows:

*Agency for International Development.* Of the total of \$71.2m in 1964, Africa received most with \$27m (education accounts for 22% of all US assistance to Africa and is the principal field of activity in US aid programmes there), and then Latin America with \$23m. As well as meeting construction costs, the finance provided for 6,000 trainees coming to the United States under AID's Participant Training Programme, more than half of them in the fields of education, agriculture and public administration. There were also 800 education officers serving abroad under AID arrangements as advisers to national Ministries of Education, assisting with educational planning and so forth. 400 of these were employed directly by AID and a further 400 were working on university contract teams. At September 1964, AID had 41 contracts outstanding with universities for education projects to a total value of \$53m (£19m).

*Peace Corps.* The \$64m for education represented two-thirds of the Peace Corps budget of \$96m in 1964 and two-thirds of Peace Corps Volunteers were teaching. Of the 3,604 Volunteers who had completed their service and 9,814 then



enrolled, 8,850 were or had been teaching. Peace Corps teachers actually in service included 3,063 in Africa, 1,278 in Latin America and the Caribbean, 853 in the Far East, and 847 in other parts of the world.

*Department of State: Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs.* Through its Educational and Cultural Exchange Programme, the Department of State gave grants for US citizens and foreign nationals to travel abroad for teaching and lecturing, study and research, observation visits and so forth. Since the programme started in 1949, a total of 33,565 such grants had been made, 4,645 of these being in 1963 at a cost of \$33.8m (£12m). About one-quarter of the grants were for US citizens to travel abroad, the rest for foreigners to come to the United States.

*Other Government Agencies.* The US Office of Education in the Department of Health Education and Welfare administered international educational exchange and training primarily on behalf of AID and the Department of State. The Department of Defense had a large programme of military training in the United States accounting for an average of about 15,000 persons from the developing countries per year over the period 1956-61 (no account had been taken of military training in the foregoing statistics). Some 19 other US Government Agencies were also involved in education in under-developed areas, of which the US Information Agency, the National Science Foundation and the National Aeronautics and Space Administration were probably the most important.

*Colleges and Universities.* These had four main functions in relation to developing countries. (1) There were 53,000 students from developing countries at US universities in 1964, and to meet their responsibilities in this field the universities had some 1,400 full-time and part-time foreign student advisers. (2) About 1,303 US faculty members were abroad in developing countries in 1964 on teaching or research work. (3) Universities had 41 contracts from AID valued at \$53m (£19m) for projects in the education field alone (a further 90 contracts were held in other fields) of which 23 were in Africa, 9 in the Near East and South Asia, 6 in Latin America, and 3 in the Far East. In addition, universities

were financing some educational programmes in developing countries on their own account. (4) Universities ran large training programmes for AID personnel, Peace Corps Volunteers, etc., prior to their period of service overseas. Amongst the best known of these programmes was that of Teachers College, Columbia University, which had undertaken the preparation of the US contingent under the Anglo-American Teachers for East Africa Scheme and had also trained some 350 Peace Corps Volunteers for teaching in Africa.

*Foundations and Other Private Institutions.* The major US foundations involved in providing educational assistance to the developing countries were the Ford and Rockefeller Foundations and the Carnegie Corporation of New York. The Ford Foundation made grants of \$20.6m (£7m) in 1963 for 125 educational projects in developing countries under its \$53m Overseas Development Programme. The Rockefeller Foundation made grants of \$7.8m (£3m) in developing countries in 1963, much of which was for educational purposes. The Carnegie Corporation of New York was spending most of its \$800,000 (£300,000) Commonwealth Program Budget in 1963 on education in Africa, particularly on educational planning and the development of teaching and research in higher educational institutions.

Numerous private organisations were involved in the US educational effort to help developing countries, partly on their own account but sometimes acting on behalf of official bodies. The best known included the Institute of International Education, concentrating on the field of educational exchange; the Asia Foundation; the African-American Institute which is active in training and exchanges and administers the African Scholarship Program of American Universities (ASPAU); Education and World Affairs; Overseas Educational Service; Africa Liaison Committee of the American Council on Education.

*Current Policies and Developments.* The Conference was told of some of the current emphases in the US Government's approach to educational aid. First, a real attempt was being made to relate education programmes to economic development and social growth in the developing countries. This relatively new approach laid stress on the utilitarian aspects of education

as a producer of trained manpower and not only on its function of enriching the lives of individuals. Second, the emphasis in the US programme was on developing educational institutions and systems rather than on providing people to do operational jobs within the existing structure. Exceptions had, of course, to be made to this; for some countries, particularly in Africa, needed help of the kind provided by the Teachers for East Africa Scheme and the Peace Corps. Third, attempts were being made to bring assisted educational institutions overseas into closer relationship with their own environment. Just as the Land Grant Colleges in the US had played a creative role in American development, so universities and colleges in developing countries might be encouraged to become closely involved with the development effort in their own area. Fourth, the US generally looked for a strong commitment – usually entailing material involvement – on the part of recipient countries to projects and programmes receiving US aid. Fifth, there was great concern over the cost of education systems in developing countries. A hard look was needed at the nature of the physical facilities required in education and at the cost of supplying and operating them. There might be scope for co-operation with Britain and other countries on this, through joint architectural studies, etc. Sixth, a real attempt was being made in the educational aid programme to bring about the close involvement of educational organisations and institutions in the United States. American universities and institutes possessed competence, experience, and continuity that a government aid agency could not readily achieve. The purpose of involving the universities was not simply that they should be temporary agents of AID under contract or other arrangements, but that a permanent and mutually beneficial relationship should be forged between American universities and institutions in developing countries. Finally, the United States was very interested in the possibilities of close co-operation with Britain and others on specific projects and programmes.

(iii) **The World Bank (IBRD)**

It was reported that the Bank had become involved in educational assistance only during the previous two years; but education was becoming an increasingly important activity for both the Bank and its affiliate, the International

Development Association. As against \$52m (£19m) that had been made available under six loans (one World Bank: five IDA) in the first two years, \$50m (£18m) was being loaned for education in the current twelve-month period, and in the coming two years this latter figure would rise to \$100m (£36m). The Bank's contribution was not confined to bricks and mortar and 'hardware': of the \$52m already loaned, \$2m (£0.7m) had been for personnel costs and technical assistance, in addition to the \$35m (£13m) for construction costs and \$15m (£5m) for equipment.

Bank assistance for education was concentrated on general secondary education, technical education (broadly defined), and vocational training of different types and at various levels. The aid was project-oriented but at the same time it operated within the overall framework of Bank thinking about a given country and its economic position. The Bank had a co-operation agreement with UNESCO, to whom it looked for guidance and expertise on educational matters, whilst forming its own view on the economic aspects of educational aid programmes. However, this agreement with UNESCO was not exclusive and the Bank could look to others, too, with a view to co-operation.

The Bank was interested in qualitative improvement as well as quantitative expansion, and hoped through its lending to be in a position to give positive encouragement to the creation of more modern and effective education systems in developing countries.

## 2 The Needs of Developing Countries

*This part of the discussion was introduced by Dr. S. Awokoya, Permanent Secretary and Chief Federal Adviser on Education, Nigeria; Mr. Prem Kirpal, Secretary for Education, Government of India; Dr. P. M. Sherlock, Vice-Chancellor, University of the West Indies; and Dr. R. Siddiqi, Vice-Chancellor, University of Islamabad, Pakistan.*

Developing countries were faced by huge tasks in the field of education. Large numbers of their children were either totally unable to find places in school or else dropped out of the system after only two or three years. The task of providing enough education would become no easier, for the problem of low enrolment ratios was greatly aggravated by continuing high rates of population increase. Quite apart from the desired increases in education enrolments, developing countries recognised the need for qualitative improvement and better utilisation of existing resources in the education system. In so far as educational aid could help them to achieve this expansion and improvement, it was very welcome. And the English-speaking countries in particular naturally tended to look to Britain and America first of all for such help.

The giving and receiving of aid must, however, proceed in an atmosphere of mutual respect. The final decisions on an area as central to public affairs as education must be made by a country's own leaders, often on political grounds. The donor countries must therefore resist the temptation to try and impose solutions of their own devising on developing countries. It was true that in respect of many parts of the world more thinking about educational needs of developing countries had gone on in advanced countries than in less advanced. But educational plans in the poorer countries could be carried out successfully only with local leadership and popular political support: they must be meaningful to those who would be responsible for administering them, those who would participate in them, and those who would pay for them. In this latter respect, it had to be remembered that in most developing countries educational aid represented a comparatively small proportion of national expenditure

on education. One example cited at the Conference was that, out of 2,339 Nigerians expected to graduate from university in 1965, only 187 would be fully supported by external aid. Donor countries should not therefore expect their educational aid to give them the right to a major say in the shape of a recipient country's education system.

Donors should also beware of pressing inappropriate forms of help on developing countries. This sometimes resulted from competitive giving between aid agencies with empire-building ambitions and particular axes to grind. It was not difficult to identify the specialist institutions and facilities that poor countries lacked. But very often the provision of a fine new institute or college with prestige appeal might not be what was most urgently required. The receiving country had to think not only of the contribution immediately expected of it under the aid agreement but also about the future staffing, running and maintenance costs of new buildings and equipment. Its true needs might be very simple, mundane and unglamorous compared with what donors might like to give. It was not that what was offered was not needed, but that other priorities might make an even more urgent call on the recipient country's resources. Whilst it was primarily for developing countries to ensure that they did not become saddled with unwanted 'white elephants,' it also behoved the donors to take a responsible attitude and to realise that recipient countries were sometimes so inundated with suggestions and advice that they were frequently under considerable pressure in planning, implementing and accepting aid.

If educational aid was to be effective in promoting economic and social progress, it was essential that there should be an overall strategy for development in the country concerned and an operational educational plan. Provided that donor countries accepted the recipient countries' chosen objectives and priorities in their education plans – which would often be influenced by political and social factors as well as technical considerations – their assistance in the planning process itself would often be welcome and indeed was a form of aid which had the highest priority. They might also usefully help in establishing and operating the machinery for identifying sources of external aid, obtaining such aid and using it within the framework of the Plan.

Those Conference members who came from developing



countries mentioned some of the needs of their countries for educational aid. No attempt to quantify these requirements was made, but it was clear that a very wide range of services and facilities and of types of assistance was involved. The Conference recognised from the outset that there was immense diversity in the developing world and that each country had special characteristics requiring its own individual strategy for educational development and the use of educational aid; so that the priorities among the categories listed below would be different for each country. In the Indian sub-continent, for example, it was reported that the major emphasis should be on improving quality and that concentration on the development of selected institutions was needed. Yet in other countries receiving British and American educational aid – especially those of East and Central Africa – massive support was required for the systems as a whole in the form of expatriate teachers and finance. Generally speaking, however, it seemed reasonable to assume that requirements for skills and services abroad would become ever more specialised as the capacity of developing countries' own education and training institutions increased. And the necessity for personnel under technical assistance programmes to be of the highest quality was stressed. It was usually better to have a first-class man for a short period than a second-rater for a longer time.

The various needs of developing countries for educational aid mentioned at the Conference included:

(i) **Provision of administrative and other specialist services** by teams or individuals. Amongst the types of expertise specifically referred to were: educational planning including the establishment of statistical services; the integration of educational and economic planning; manpower planning and employment in relation to education; finance of education; mobilisation of external aid for education; schools inspection; drafting of educational legislation; organisation of educational research; curriculum development in both general and technical subjects; correspondence courses (middle level technical training was particularly mentioned); educational broadcasting, including television; organisation of examinations; vocational guidance; school library services; school welfare services; adult education.

(ii) **Provision of Teaching Staff** particularly for universities (where staff to undertake research were also required); in technical institutions; in teacher-training colleges; in English-language institutes and in secondary schools where the need was primarily in technical and scientific subjects and mathematics.

(iii) **Overseas Study and Training** especially at higher levels and in new and specialised subjects which were not yet developed in the poorer countries or for which their requirements were numerically too small to justify establishing their own institutions. But in the case of larger developing countries, only a very limited amount of training should be carried on abroad.

(iv) **Books, Scientific Equipment and other Educational Materials** were urgently needed and help in establishing production facilities in the developing countries themselves would be welcome.

(v) **Financial Help** to provide new physical facilities and also, on occasion, for running costs, especially for experimental projects and development services.

### 3 Conclusions about Priorities and Principles of Educational Aid

*Against the background of what it had been told of donor aid programmes and developing countries' needs, the Conference discussed at length the priorities of educational development and the principles which must underlie any assistance programme attempting to give them effect. The discussion, which was much influenced by the opening remarks made by Mr. Pifer and Mr. Hunter on the 'Lessons of Past Experience', ranged widely both in plenary sessions and in the individual groups. The following summary of this discussion attempts to draw out the dominant themes and, in so far as conclusions were reached, to present these.*

#### **(i) Need for Balance between Education and the Economy**

There was considerable discussion about the interaction of education and economic growth. Some members of the Conference expressed doubts as to whether the right balance had been struck in many developing countries between education and the economy. It was not uncommon to find that the education system was geared to the 'modern' urban sector of society, despite the fact that the vast majority of the population would have to live in the countryside and earn their living from agriculture. Employment opportunities in the modern sector tended to grow very slowly, more slowly as a rule than the rise in national income per head, and only a few of the school-leavers could be absorbed into wage employment. In such a situation, the present pattern of education, according to this school of thought, was wasteful in several respects. It encouraged young people to grow up with expectations that could not be fulfilled and created thereby social and political unrest amongst the educated unemployed in the towns. It created a society divided between the few lucky and affluent ones who obtained well-paid jobs in the modern sector and the many less fortunate who could not find employment and had to be content with a peasant standard of life. It represented a wasted opportunity of giving those who would live and work in the countryside a proper preparation for their future life by making them more satisfied and more productive members of the com-

munity. What was needed was more attention to the type of education that the mass of the people received and a greater emphasis within that education on giving young people the kind of skills and aptitudes actually in demand and corresponding to the economic opportunities in their society. This improved formal education should be supplemented by greater opportunities for on-the-job training, short practical courses for those in jobs, and so forth. In this way, education could be made a more active contributor to economic growth. An important corollary to all this was, of course, that transformation of the rural economy should take place. Only a dynamic and prosperous agriculture would attract well-educated people to the countryside and hold them there.

In discussion of this analysis and its implications for development policy, there was clearly general agreement amongst conference members about the seriousness of the problems of expanding employment, of achieving a more modern economy and a more egalitarian society, and of developing the agrarian base of the economies of less developed countries. It was also generally accepted that improvement of the quality of education was needed at all levels in developing countries and that efforts should be made to increase its relevance to the actual situation confronting these nations.

Nevertheless, some speakers doubted whether the analysis set out above was by itself wholly sufficient, and they raised a number of points which had to be taken account of in any strategy for development in the poorer countries. In the first place, developing countries had committed themselves to modernisation and industrialisation and it would be politically impossible to put into effect plans which seemed to base future progress on the transformation of the countryside alone. Moreover, it was quite possible that this emphasis on the 'modern' sector was correct, for where rural transformation and increased agricultural productivity had been achieved in other countries, the process had often involved taking people *off* the land; it had created unemployment rather than solved it. Furthermore, it was not at all certain that formal education should receive the major blame for having caused rural-urban migration; nor could one be at all sure that education, however much reformed, could prevent this migration taking place in future. There were powerful underlying economic and social forces at work in this situation.

It was also suggested that social and political unrest, unemployment, and rural-urban migration, were in fact all natural symptoms of the painful adjustment which was inevitable if developing societies were to become modern. They were not necessarily desirable symptoms and might well call for social counter-measures through the education system and in other ways. But it had to be realised that development was bound to be accompanied by some strains and dissatisfactions.

It was clear that many of these problems and paradoxes could be resolved – if indeed they were capable of solution – only on the basis of much more study, detailed investigation and discussion. The Conference therefore endorsed the proposal made in the Report of Study Group C (see page 39) for a tripartite conference to consider these issues in the context of one developing area's specific situation. It was thought that this might provide useful pointers to the way in which educational aid programmes could contribute to development.

#### **(ii) Importance of Social and Political Factors**

The Conference was constantly reminded that the interaction of education with economic growth was only one factor affecting education in developing countries. It had a tremendously important role in developing the cohesion of, and leadership for, new nations. The modern ideas and attitudes for which it provided a vehicle were a revolutionary element transforming traditional societies. From another standpoint, education enriched the lives of individuals and increased their capacity for a full life. Students could not be regarded as mere instruments in the process of social and economic growth.

It was accepted that these non-economic considerations loomed large in the minds of those responsible for planning education in developing countries. In giving aid for education, full account had to be taken of political and social as well as economic factors.

#### **(iii) Priorities between Types and Levels of Education**

The Conference devoted much thought to the way in which educational aid could most appropriately contribute to the development of different types and levels of education

and the broad conclusions reached are contained in the Reports of Groups A and B (see pages 33 and 36).

However, no attempt was made to assess the relative importance of different types and levels of education from the point of view of external aid. It was recognised that education systems comprised many different closely interrelated parts and that at any one moment the priorities between them would vary from country to country. As development proceeded, it seemed likely that there would be some shift in demand towards more specialist forms of help, particularly at the higher levels and in technical subjects. But meantime there were many countries where external aid of a general kind at, for instance, the secondary level, was crucial.

The Conference laid what was perhaps in some ways a new emphasis on including in educational aid programmes help at the primary stage and in adult education. The discussion on the balance between education and the economy, referred to above, gave these added importance. It was noted that a great deal of the expenditure on education in developing areas was devoted to primary education, but that the quality was often poor and the education given was contributing little to equipping the students for their life as citizens or producers. The most promising areas for foreign aid to primary education were in curriculum development and teacher training and further effort and co-operation in both these directions was recommended.

Throughout the Conference crucial importance was accorded to adult education at all levels, of all types, and carried out by a variety of agencies, official and unofficial, both within and outside the formal system of education. Training, re-training and up-grading the skills of the existing adult labour force was of vital significance to a nation's economy and constituted an essential complement to formal schooling in the whole process of development. This might be carried out in special institutions, or through in-service or on-the-job training. Particular attention should be paid to training related to agriculture, administration, and relevant technical skills. Aid in the form of staff and finance for buildings and equipment was urgently needed.

#### (iv) **Educational Aid as a Two-Way Process**

Many speakers referred, on the basis of their own experience,



to the value derived by aid-giving countries and institutions from educational co-operation. The developing countries had much of value to communicate to the so-called advanced countries. Co-operative links between universities and other institutions should sometimes include provision for the lending of staff from African, Asian or Caribbean institutions to those in Britain, America and other countries. There was also great advantage for developing countries in 'third country' aid programmes whereby a rich country financed an exchange of skills between two poor countries; for in certain fields and disciplines the most appropriate experience was available only outside those countries which were traditional donors of aid.

**(v) The Aim of Self-Sufficiency**

The ultimate objective of aid programmes should be to help developing countries reach a position where, whilst still benefiting from co-operative exchanges, they would no longer be dependent on outside help. This underlined the importance of training teachers at all levels and of advisory experts passing on their skills and experience to their local successors. Institutions established with the help of foreign assistance must be planned on the basis that they would be run with indigenous staff and finance as soon as practicable.

**(vi) The Value of Innovation**

Too often in the past, developing countries had copied the institutions and techniques of developed countries. This was understandable, for they wanted what seemed to be the best available and were too poor to feel able to afford to take chances with untried methods. But simple imitation was inappropriate, for the resources, social situation, and educational needs of poor countries were not identical with those in rich countries. It was also based on the false assumption that final solutions had been discovered by the rich countries. Yet education in Britain and America was far from static: their systems were continuously evolving and changing in the light of new circumstances and discoveries. It was therefore important that developing countries work out, with external help where appropriate and desired, their own solutions to the particular problems facing them and try to build in as a permanent feature of their systems the capacity to adapt and change.

Developed countries should be willing to give financial help and technical advice on experiments and pilot projects. These might cover such areas as new patterns of educational institutions (e.g., new types of comprehensive secondary education), curricular development, and the use of modern educational media and techniques. But the limited financial resources of recipients should be borne in mind and the Conference therefore recommended that, where experimental or demonstration projects were included in assistance programmes, they should be very largely financed by the donor agencies.

**(vii) Educational Research Priorities**

At many points during their discussions, the great gaps in existing knowledge about the educational process itself, the relationship of education to economic development, and the role of external aid, were borne in upon members of the Conference. There were two sides to this problem, and on both co-operation between the United States, Britain and developing countries could be of value. First, there was a need for a great deal more research to be undertaken and for existing knowledge to be collated. Priorities identified as being particularly urgent are listed in the Report of Group C (see page 39). Second, effort should be put into creating and strengthening educational research institutions in developing countries themselves.

**(viii) Long-Term Needs and the Importance of Continuity**

It was clear that developing countries would be in need of educational assistance for a very long time ahead. This being so, the Conference strongly urged that Britain and the United States should, as major donor countries, equip themselves to meet the challenge by establishing permanent resource centres on which to draw in their aid programmes. Too often in the past there had been an inadequate response to requests for help, which had been dealt with on an *ad hoc* basis.

If the necessary specialists and training facilities were to be supplied in future, new administrative arrangements would be necessary and no time should be lost in setting them up. In some of the special branches of expertise mentioned by the developing countries (see page 19), it would probably

be necessary to establish small cadres of experts on a permanent footing and to create supernumerary posts in government departments, universities and other institutions. It would also be essential to make appropriate arrangements for training the personnel involved. It would greatly assist planning if some reliable estimate could be obtained of likely minimum requirements from overseas and it was suggested that some body like the International Institute for Educational Planning might be invited to undertake this task.

One implication was that universities and other institutions which were regularly looked to for help in the aid programme would need support on a longer term basis than was provided for under the contract system which had been so often favoured (especially in the US) in the past. This would enable them to attract good talent for their programmes, to build up an experienced team, and to provide facilities on a long-range basis.

In addition to the need to provide for an assured supply of resources in the advanced countries for educational assistance, the Conference emphasised the value of periods of overseas service long enough to give those concerned a close understanding of the developing area's specific problems and to provide for continuity. This was, of course, always subject to the proviso that long-term service in particular cases accorded with the desires of the host country and that the ultimate objective of handing over to indigenous personnel was not lost sight of.

#### **(ix) Advantages of Involving Non-Government Institutions**

Reference was made to examples of the use of universities and other non-government institutions in educational aid, and it was noted that on the whole the experience had proved successful. Whilst the competent government authorities in the developing country must be kept in the picture about such arrangements, co-operation between non-government institutions had many advantages, including that of being less subject to political considerations. As mentioned above, it was considered important that universities, colleges and other such bodies should have their resources specially supplemented on a long-term basis to enable them to meet their responsibilities and to forge a permanent relationship with their opposite numbers overseas.

**(x) Need for a Strategy of Educational Aid**

The Conference considered that it would be an advantage if, in relation to each developing country's development programme, an overall strategy of educational aid were worked out which identified the main priorities for help. Ideally the process should involve several donors in consultation with representatives of the recipient country. The Agency for International Development was stated to be already experimenting along these lines and, when further progress had been made, British co-operation would be welcome.

What was envisaged in this proposal was not a monolithic united front of donors. This would hardly be practicable and would be obnoxious from a political point of view to receiving countries, who in any case derived some benefit from intelligent competition between donors. Nor was it intended that there should be any 'party line' on what should or should not be done; for the value of pioneering experiments along unorthodox lines, such as those that private foundations and trusts had often sponsored, was recognised. The essence of the suggestion was that there should be a continuing colloquy between donors and the host country about priorities and plans for educational development and aid, and a regular exchange of information between them about policies and programmes in this field.

## 4 Suggestions for Anglo-American Co-operation

It was recognised on all sides that British and American educational aid programmes differed in several respects, each having its own particular emphasis, just as the education systems of the two countries were unlike in several ways. In assistance to developing countries, Britain had the advantage in some parts of the world of a long and continuing close relationship with the development of educational systems and of particular institutions which were often modelled along British lines. As a legacy of her imperial days, Britain retained continuing responsibilities for helping maintain education systems in some of the poorest countries of the world, and consequently a great part of her educational aid, particularly in teacher supply, was concentrated on a few countries and on the filling of operational posts. American educational aid, on the other hand, was distributed more widely, and, to countries which had previously followed the British pattern of education, the United States brought many valuable new ideas and approaches based on her own different experiences of educational development. Through, for instance, her long tradition of drawing US universities into the aid programme on a contract basis, her emphasis on the project approach in educational assistance, and her comparatively large programmes of educational research, she had a great deal of value to contribute to Anglo-American partnership on a qualitative as well as a quantitative basis.

The Conference was confirmed in its support for new forms of Anglo-American co-operation by the several examples of successful collaboration in the past with which members were familiar. There was an impressive record of joint activity over a period of years in relation to higher education in Africa, as the paper presented to the Conference by the Carnegie Corporation of New York clearly demonstrated (see Appendix II). At lower levels, too, there was a tradition of partnership and the Conference was reminded of early examples, such as the famous Phelps-Stokes missions in the 1920s which had been a prelude to great advances in African education. More recently there had been the Anglo-American Teachers for East Africa Scheme, launched as a result of

the Princeton Conference in December 1960, under which substantial numbers of teachers had been provided for the secondary schools of Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda. Although the TEA Scheme was now coming to an end as a dual effort (since the Peace Corps would be replacing the American TEA contingent in East Africa), a successor scheme had already been launched. This was the Teacher Educators for East Africa Scheme, or TEEA – known in Britain as Teacher Trainers for East Africa Scheme, or TTEA – which involved loosely co-ordinated efforts to provide staff and other support to institutes of education and teacher-training colleges in the three East African countries.

Further co-operation would not just come about of its own accord, however, and positive efforts were needed on both sides. Unfortunately, as one speaker observed, 'international agencies, whether governmental or non-governmental, have an in-built characteristic of non-co-operation, which seems to be a function of the way in which bureaucracies operate'. As past experience had shown, new initiatives and continuing close liaison were needed if the opportunities for collaboration were to be seized and if misunderstandings over joint projects were to be avoided.

It was recognised that the prospect of closer future Anglo-American collaboration in educational aid might arouse fears among the unthinking that this represented a 'ganging up' in some sense against the developing countries. The Conference did not share such fears, though members were not unmindful of the advantages sometimes derived by developing countries from an atmosphere of competition between donors. But the principle of full consultation with developing countries on an Afro-Anglo-American or Asian-Anglo-American basis about their desires and needs was inherent in the proposed approach, and it was felt that some of the wastefulness often associated with competitive aid in the past might thus be avoided. Moreover, quite apart from the prospect of greater effectiveness, it was felt that, in a field as sensitive as education, developing countries could only be the gainers from assistance which combined more than one national approach; and that if anything their independence might be safeguarded rather than threatened by co-operative arrangements of the sort suggested.

A number of proposals were made during the Conference



covering future Anglo-American co-operation in educational aid to developing countries. These are in addition to the already existing relationships between such bodies as the Inter-University Council and the Africa Liaison Committee of the American Council on Education; or between Teachers College, Columbia University, and the University of London Institute of Education in the Afro-Anglo-American Programme of Co-operation in Teacher Training; the various triangular arrangements linking certain universities in Britain, the United States and the developing countries; the Teachers for East Africa Scheme; the Teacher Educators for East Africa Scheme; and so on. Some of the new proposals were specific suggestions requiring immediate follow-up. Others were more general, requiring further consideration and elaboration on both sides before they could take definite shape. The Conference intended these suggestions to be illustrative rather than exhaustive and it did not attempt to lay down with any precision the form which joint action should take, preferring to leave this for more detailed study by government agencies, universities and appropriate private institutions on both sides.

Suggestions made for new forms and areas of future co-operation are set out below (alphabetically rather than in any order of importance). Many of the ideas are elaborated more fully in the group reports.

*Comprehensive Secondary School Education.* Jointly-sponsored experiments might be undertaken in countries requesting such help.

*Cost of Education.* In view of the rising burden of educational costs, joint work on methods of reducing the capital and maintenance costs of educational systems, buildings and equipment should have high priority.

*Curriculum Development and Textbooks.* There were numerous possibilities of co-operation and it was particularly important to assist, by the provision of staff and in other ways, the building up of centres in the developing countries which would be able to undertake the work of preparing new texts and reforming curricula on a continuing basis.

*Education, Employment and Rural Development.* It was recommended (see Group C Report) that a tripartite Conference between representatives of Britain and the United States and developing countries be held in early 1966 to discuss these problems in the context of a specific area's problems. East Africa was mentioned as a possible venue.

*English-Language Teaching.* It was noted that a specialist Anglo-American Conference on the teaching of English would be held at Ditchley in November 1965; and therefore specific consideration of this important subject could be entrusted to that conference.

*Modern Educational Techniques.* Jointly-sponsored experiments and demonstration schemes in the use of techniques like television, radio, films, programmed learning, correspondence courses, etc., in education should be undertaken. It was also recommended that an Anglo-American Conference be held to assess existing experience with the use of these techniques and to lay down guidelines for further co-operation.

*Research.* Co-operation in educational research was a fruitful field for joint effort. Triangular arrangements for collaboration might be made with educational research institutions in developing countries. Also, a detailed survey of educational research needs and priorities should be undertaken.

*Secondary Level Teacher Supply.* In some countries, the need for overseas teachers would continue for some time, though with a tendency for the demand to become more specialised. Joint planning to meet these needs in the fashion of the Teachers for East Africa Scheme was recommended.

*Teacher Training.* Amongst the recommendations made were that there should be direct linking of American, British and overseas teacher-training institutions for a wide variety of purposes; that there should be co-ordination of British and American programmes for teacher refresher courses in developing countries; and that consultation should take place on the pattern of training given and awards made to people coming from developing countries to Britain and America for higher studies in education.

# Appendix I — Group Reports

## Report of Group A on University and Technical Education

*Chairman:* Mr. P. M. Sherlock *Rapporteur:* Mr. John Vaizey

The Group discussed the relationship of overseas aid to the development of universities, middle and higher technical education and adult education. Anglo-American co-operation in the development of aid to universities had already proved extremely fruitful, and needed to be continued and developed. In its considerations, the Group took the view that universities in developing countries particularly had an important part to play in the development of the whole educational system of a country, by means of research, consultation and the establishment of relations between other local educational institutions.

The Report falls into six sections.

1. *The relationships between universities in developing countries and universities in the United Kingdom, United States and other donor countries.*

The Group attached considerable importance to the development of relationships between universities, particularly those directed to staff development both in research and in teaching. Government and foundation aid was essential for this purpose, but it was important that it should be realised that the co-operating universities in the donor and the receiving countries were equal partners in the pursuit of truth, whose relationship with each other was the determining factor in the success of the project. It was felt important that the universities in the developing nations should be active at the frontiers of knowledge and that it should not be assumed that the universities in the donor countries had all the knowledge that was needed and that the problem was one of transmitting it to Africa and Asia. This led the Group to feel that the development of relevant research capabilities in the developing countries, both in universities and in research institutes, was of the greatest importance. It was felt that such experience as that of the group of American universities building the Kanpur Technological Institute, the Ford Foundation programmes of institution-building, and the recent promotion by the Committee for University Secondment in London of interdepartmental links between universities in the United Kingdom and in developing nations, were good examples of the way in which the relationship between universities should be developed. It was essential to build up long-term relationships between particular universities, particular faculties and particular departments. There had to be a long-term commitment on the part of the universities in the donor countries to build up the strength of the universities to which their scholars were sent. One test of this commitment would be the willingness of eminent scholars and researchers and especially the heads of departments to make short visits to the new universities, and to arrange for a two-way

traffic in graduate students and young research workers to work under their direction in the universities in both countries. The Group saw great value in the relations that would develop from the cross movement of young men and women at graduate level between the donor and the receiving countries. The emphasis on research also suggested that curriculum development in African and Asian universities would become easier as these universities themselves fed the results of their own research into their undergraduate teaching programmes. It was also felt that these international relationships would have the greatest chance of success if receiving countries selected certain of these universities and departments for special development. Only in this way could the aid be most effectively and most economically used.

### *2. Degree standards and new kinds of institutions.*

The Group considered the question of the standards of degrees in the developing countries and the allegation that was sometimes made that imported foreign models had led to a distortion of educational patterns which had made universities less relevant to the urgent needs of developing countries than they might have been. While it was felt that this criticism was less justified than was sometimes thought, the possibility of developing by foreign aid new types of institutions should be considered. Thus in the USA the land-grant college, the liberal arts college, the junior college and the community college were examples of new types of institutions which had all broken away from existing patterns and answered specific problems of their own generation. Such problems as the relative standing of technical studies and degrees in arts and sciences, and of broad versus specialised degrees, were important. Some members of the Group felt that in a dynamic situation it was inevitable that most higher educational institutions would seek to raise their status and that a continuous creation of new middle-level institutions to take their place was a common feature of twentieth century education systems. The assumption was often made that an institution once created would always remain what it was intended to be. The attention of both donor and receiving countries needed continually to be drawn, however, to the importance of building up non-university technical institutions in whatever form seemed most appropriate to local circumstances.

### *3. Technical education.*

The principles which had been enunciated for universities seemed particularly relevant to the field of technical and vocational education where, despite the universality of certain skills, there was a need to develop skills appropriate to evolving local conditions. There seemed a danger that the experience of technical and vocational institutions might be neglected in this field unless great attention was paid to developing their relationships with each other. The Group discussed at length the possible relationship between universities and technical institutions in the developing nations and concluded that a pragmatic attitude ought to be preserved on the question of bringing technical

institutions into the universities or allowing them to be separate. The Group saw the danger of the tendency constantly to raise the status of technical and vocational institutions at the expense of their primary function which was to train people in practical skills. Research was urgently needed in this area which might well be international in scope since it was a problem that affected both donor and receiving countries.

#### 4. *The flow of students.*

While the Group realised that serious problems of individual freedom were raised by any directive that students sent overseas for training and education should always return to their home countries, it was felt that as a general principle in giving external aid priority should be attached to those programmes and procedures that maximise the likelihood that a student will return to useful employment in his country. In general it was felt that, wherever possible, official grants for training in donor countries should be given in a way that would not prejudice the growth of local institutions, which might imply that they should normally be made available only for courses that were not available locally, especially for example at the post-graduate level. The problem of attracting those trained overseas back to their own countries, and making full use of them, was an important one. Sometimes difficulties were attributable to the local salary structure and employment conditions and these were matters for appropriate government action. Students' choice of subject was also a major factor and guidance of the students needed to be developed, as did appropriate curricula for those with special requirements. For this reason, the relationships between universities in the developed and the developing nations were of special importance if further steps were to be taken to ensure that the international flow of students was more effective. Particular importance was attached to the building up of institutes of advanced research in the developing countries because it was thought that these would attract outstanding scholars and at the same time would tempt bright graduate students to go home in order to undertake important work.

#### 5. *Upgrading and university adult education.*

The university had a task of building up an informed body of citizens by extra-mural work. In most developing nations the need for upgrading people already in employment and whose skills were inadequate was a major one. This was a field in which both universities and technical institutes had a major social responsibility and a national task to perform which could be substantially helped by overseas aid. The Group considered that two major steps were required. In the first place, research in the appropriate curriculum and teaching techniques was needed and, in the second place, the local universities and technical institutes needed to obtain additional staff and to use or adapt existing buildings or, as required, construct new multi-purpose buildings to help them in undertaking this responsibility. It was considered that the field of education itself was particularly

appropriate for experiments in upgrading of teachers where lessons could be learned which would be applicable both to donor and receiving countries. Upgrading and technical training in general, of course, must rely chiefly on non-university institutions, particularly enterprises, which was the subject of another Group Report.

#### 6. *New methods in education.*

It was felt that the major feature of these aid programmes was in enabling universities and colleges on both sides to break out of their existing insularity and therefore virtually any steps that led to greater contact on a continued basis were to be welcomed. It was noted that the ferment in universities both in the United States and United Kingdom was altering the nature of undergraduate education in both countries and that the problems that were being faced were similar in many respects to those that were affecting universities in the West Indies, Africa and Asia. Developed and developing countries alike had a major job to do in studying how new techniques and media might be used to make better use of scarce teaching resources. It was of critical importance that whatever was done in education be evaluated more thoroughly; in this sense, research in education itself was not a luxury but a precise need. Out of working together on these problems would come a realisation that aid, far from being a one-way activity, was one in which both sides learned.

#### 7. *Conclusion.*

It was felt that the relationship between universities and technical institutes in the developed and developing countries was not a one-sided one of help given by the rich to the poor but was one in which both could learn. Major policies to be pursued involved government aid in establishing relationships between individual universities, departments and faculties and, in particular, this required the deliberate manning up of universities and technical colleges in the donor countries to cope with their increased responsibilities for aid. The problems in this field had not yet been satisfactorily tackled. It was noted that the McGovern Bill in the United States offered a model of such legislation which might be appropriate for the next stage.

### **Report of Group B on Primary and Secondary Education, Teacher Training, Teacher Techniques and Curricula**

*Chairman:* Mr. H. L. Elvin *Rapporteur:* Mr. Francis X. Sutton

1. Before considering the particular levels and kinds of education which were in this Group's charge, we discussed needs for aid in educational television, broadcasting, and other modern techniques. It was the view of the Group that:

The Ministry of Overseas Development and AID should give sympathetic consideration, in consultation with other interested agencies, to experiments and demonstration schemes in selected countries in the educational uses of these techniques. It should be expected that such experiments will have to be very largely financed



by the donors, and they ought to be of sufficient size for meaningful conclusions to be drawn from them. They should be carefully evaluated and the results widely reported. For various reasons, including political ones, joint Anglo-American ventures would be better than separate ones.

2. Discussing primary education in the developing countries against the background of earlier plenary discussions, the group observed that:

The primary schools in the developing countries are likely for many years to come to be educating more people than can find wage employment. Most of them will be rural people and will remain in rural areas. There is a great need for primary education that will be valuable preparation for satisfying and productive lives whether or not the recipients find wage employment. Devising an appropriate kind of primary education requires efforts to improve curriculum, methods, and the quality of teaching in the schools. In many countries this cannot be done without extensive technical assistance. Sharply distinctive types of education for the rural areas are likely to be resisted and the history of efforts of this sort is not encouraging. However, this raises a problem which requires further examination. No type of education can be expected to achieve significant effects without related programmes for rural development, to which primary schooling may be able to contribute. Aid in curriculum development and teacher training programmes is needed. Much of this must be centred in the developing countries but can be supported in important ways by programmes like the Nuffield Science Teaching Program and the African Education Program of Educational Services, Inc. Universities in the developing countries have an important role to play through research, and the educational leadership they provide through Institutes and Departments of Education; assistance to them through linkages with universities in Britain and America can be particularly valuable.

3. The group noted that secondary education now takes the largest share of Anglo-American educational aid, both in capital and in technical assistance. It concluded that there will be continuing large needs for assistance to secondary education for some years ahead. Further assistance to the expansion of secondary school systems will have to give consideration to the rising burden of recurrent costs. Serious shortages of secondary teachers will continue in many countries for some years ahead, but the group foresaw a shift towards the meeting of more specialised needs as the numbers of nationals in the receiving countries become more adequate. Continued joint planning to meet the needs (in the fashion of the Teachers for East Africa Programme) was recommended.

4. Among particular possibilities of co-operative effort in secondary education the group noted the following:



(a) Comprehensive secondary school experiments may now be jointly developed and benefit by converging or criss-crossing tendencies in contemporary British and American thinking on this subject. The costs of secondary school buildings and laboratory equipment were noted as problems that might find new solutions through joint effort.

(b) The need for development of new texts and curricula in science, mathematics, English and other fields of secondary school work offer various opportunities for co-operation. Exploration of new forms of co-operation between British developments in secondary science and the American developments through ESI is now taking place. The Group noted that effective co-operation did not necessarily involve the establishment of an Anglo-American organisation or indeed work in the same fields. Complementary efforts, with attention to different fields, might be more effective. Work needs to be done in curriculum development through aid to institutes of education and curriculum development in Africa and it is desirable that there be Anglo-American co-operation in the staffing of these institutions. Common efforts in the developing countries could reduce undesirable competition, commercial and other, arising from efforts in Britain and America.

5. In the important field of the teaching of English it was noted than an Anglo-American Conference on this subject is scheduled to be held here at Ditchley, from the 19th to the 22nd of November this year, and the group concluded that specific consideration of this subject could be entrusted to that conference. It was noted that Anglo-American co-operation in this field is now close but a fresh impetus to joint efforts is hoped to follow on the November conference.

6. In Africa and elsewhere a new emphasis on teacher training is being observed and there is an apparent need for increased overseas aid in this field. Fortunately, provision for capital aid for the construction of new and better teacher training colleges is in prospect and specific possibilities of joint efforts in new colleges in Zambia, the West Indies and elsewhere are envisaged. The Teacher Educators for East Africa (TEEA) programme continues the patterns of Anglo-American co-operation established in the Teachers for East Africa (TEA) programme. Among particular needs and possibilities in this field were noted:

More adequate staffing of institutions for teacher education in Britain and America to enable them to meet the heavy demands for staffing of, and technical assistance to, teacher training overseas.

Co-ordination and consultation as to patterns of training and degrees awarded to people coming from developing countries for higher studies in education in Britain and America.

Direct linking between American, British and overseas institutions for a wide variety of purposes, including the possibility of joint

American and British assumption for responsibility for the validation of degrees, certificates and diplomas in teacher training colleges.

An urgency for teachers' refresher courses in many countries is increased by the new curricular developments that are being planned. Further efforts and co-ordination of British and American programmes are needed in the organisation of such courses.

## **Report of Group C on Planning, Research and Co-ordination**

*Chairman:* Professor Frederick Harbison

*Rapporteurs:* Mr. Ladislav Cerych and Mr. Peter Williams

We decided to discuss our subject under five main heads as follows:

### *1. Assessment of the Role of Education in Economic and Social Development.*

We were impressed by the importance and urgency of the questions raised in plenary session concerning the relationship of education to social and economic realities in many developing countries.

These questions arise particularly in those countries where 70-80% of total population are in rural areas; where wage and salary employment is available for only a small proportion of the labour force; and where these employment figures increase very slowly even where national income is rising. It is clear that in such countries a very high proportion of primary school leavers cannot expect to find paid employment but will be self-employed or unemployed, whether they stay in the country or move to the towns.

This raises, on the economic side, the problem of developing rapidly both the productivity of agriculture and the general level of rural life, in addition to industrialisation, so that the young labour force can find a more productive and satisfying livelihood. It also raises, on the educational side, most important implications for educational policy at the primary and post-primary level, so as to ensure that the education given may be best related to the real conditions of life which the great majority of young citizens will encounter.

Further evidence and closer analysis of this situation is needed both by policy makers in the developing countries and by the donors of aid, in order to identify the critical issues and the areas in which external aid could be most effective.

We feel that problems such as these require urgent study and discussion in the context of a specific area's problems. We therefore recommend that a tripartite conference attended by representatives of the United States, Britain, and developing countries in a specific region should be held within the next twelve months. Britain and American Foundations might be approached for support and participants at the Conference should include agricultural and other development specialists, educationalists, economists and politicians drawn from the selected developing region, from international organisations and elsewhere. As an immediate first step, bodies in the United States and Britain (perhaps Education and World Affairs and the Overseas Development

Institute) should be designated by AID and ODM to assemble material for the Conference, and international agencies such as the International Institute for Educational Planning should also be invited to participate in this task.

We suggest East Africa as a possible venue and subject for the first Conference, but we would hope that, if the experiment proved successful, it might be followed by others in different parts of the developing world. The Conference might also discuss the longer term need for organising the systematic collation of existing experience and knowledge about the role of education in economic and social development, and for promoting research in areas where present information seems deficient.

## *2. Assistance to Administration and Organisation for Planning.*

In the plenary session the representatives from the various developing countries identified certain types of specialists required from overseas to help with the planning and development of their educational systems and to assist with the creation of permanent local institutions to undertake this work. The exact types of specialist required by individual countries would vary, but we consider that demands in many fields are likely to be sufficiently regular and long-term that donor agencies must take immediate steps to ensure a continuing supply. A number of fields where help is required with institution building, through the provision of staff and in other ways, have been identified at the Conference by representatives of the developing countries. These include establishment of statistical services; integration of educational and economic planning; assessment of level of existing education; standardised design, building and financing of educational institutions; establishment of research and development facilities; project preparation; mobilisation of funds (including foreign aid) for development; drafting of educational legislation; finding increased employment opportunities for the educated; curriculum development; teacher training; technical education.

At present quite insufficient numbers of properly qualified people are available for service overseas. We fear the developed countries may well lose their capacity for assisting developing countries in educational planning and administration unless they make special efforts to build up the necessary cadres of experts through training programmes and the creation of supernumerary posts. What is needed is cadres of specialists, available on a long term basis and housed perhaps in universities, government departments or other institutions who would be drawn upon as necessary in response to overseas requests. In the United States the McGovern Bill before Congress will make provision for this and we see a need for the introduction of similar administrative arrangements in the U.K. We understand the introduction of such arrangements not only for universities but also for government departments, research institutes and other bodies has been under active consideration for some time by the Ministry of Overseas Development. We believe that the experience that such specialists will obtain during their periods of service overseas will increase their value for

work in their home countries, where these types of expertise are also in demand.

Of equal importance, and as an essential long term objective, are measures to provide training opportunities in the same fields for nationals of developing countries. Indeed, it is for this very reason that steps to develop resources of expertise in British and United States institutions are so urgent; for such training programmes will require capable and experienced teachers, who in many cases are not yet available.

An essential complement to action in the above directions is to assemble evidence of demand over a period of years from the developing countries for assistance in the various fields, and to examine the existing sources of supply. Whilst exact quantitative estimates might be difficult to obtain, such a survey would give indications of priority areas and of the minimum likely requirements which need to be met. We therefore recommend that a survey of needs in the developing world, preferably in selected countries, and of capabilities in the advanced countries and international institutions be conducted and that the International Institute for Educational Planning be invited to co-ordinate this work. The results of this survey should be made available to the various donors, who would then be in a position to approach universities and other specialist institutions with definite proposals for establishing and strengthening the necessary international and national training facilities and for creating supernumerary posts to produce and maintain the needed specialists.

### 3. *Research.*

The importance not only of strengthening educational research but of developing an expanded conception of it was recognised. By the latter we mean both basic and applied research, the application of research findings on an experimental basis and finally large scale dissemination and application of results throughout an educational system. We take the expanded conception of research to include the training of research workers, curriculum development and the training of teachers to use new curricula. We define the field of education as being concerned both with formal and informal instruction and with the training of employed manpower on the job.

The following list of illustrative research topics has been drawn up: research into changing manpower requirements and incentives (the relationship of wage and salary structures to the effective utilisation and development of manpower); efficient utilisation of educational resources (cost analysis, etc.); new educational technologies; problem of studies abroad; integration of foreign aid and national educational planning; education and rural development; new English language teaching methods; testing and selection.

Research on all these and other pertinent topics represents without any doubt a most appropriate area for an increased co-ordinated, and/or common, Anglo-American effort. When developing countries have decided to create new research institutions, triangular arrangements - e.g., Anglo-American-African or Anglo-American-Indian -

might be envisaged. As an important step towards the strengthening of this common effort, a detailed survey of educational research needs and priorities with an inventory of existing research facilities should be established. Studies already undertaken by the International Institute for Educational Planning ('Educational Planning: A Directory of Training and Research Institutions' published in Summer 1964, and 'Educational Planning: An Inventory of Major Research Needs' to be published in April 1965) can be considered as valuable starting points in this direction.

#### 4. *New Technology.*

It has been recognised that Anglo-American co-operation in helping to provide the developing countries with new educational technologies is of particular importance. Teaching by correspondence, films, radio, programmed instruction, television – all these must be taken into consideration as potential means of more efficient education.

In the field of instructional television, for example, most of the developing countries have already established – or will do so in the near future – the necessary physical facilities. They are all very keen to use them for educational purposes and they are seeking external assistance and advice in the preparation of teaching materials and the provision of all the necessary equipment.

Important work had already been accomplished, for example, by the Centre for Educational Television Overseas in London, but the demand for this type of aid will certainly be considerable within the next few years. If it cannot be met, the chances of introducing and using instructional television for the benefit of quantitative and qualitative expansion of education in developing countries might be in great danger. For this reason alone, it seems essential that practical action be taken as soon as possible.

We think that a conference organised in association with US AID and the Ministry of Overseas Development could provide a most appropriate starting point. The Conference should cover all the above mentioned educational media, not only educational television. All existing experience should be assessed and policy guidelines provided for further steps and continuous co-operation geared to the application of these technologies to the furtherance of education in developing countries. The Conference should, among other things, take into account all available data on the economic feasibility of the new educational media.

#### 5. *Long-Term Perspective.*

We are agreed that the time has now come for Britain and the United States to recognise explicitly a long-term need for educational assistance to the developing countries. It is clear to us that the largely *ad hoc* arrangements for extending aid which have obtained in recent years have been wasteful and inefficient and have fallen far short of meeting the needs of the situation. The long-term nature of the need has implications for organisation, training and research. It envisages the development, through appropriate training and career

arrangements, of a permanent supply of specialists in various fields of educational assistance, including that of helping the training of indigenous specialists so as to enable developing countries to reach a state of self-sufficiency. The idea we have in mind would, of course, include the important consideration that service over a period of years becomes progressively more valuable and should be encouraged wherever this accords with the wishes of developing countries and is not detrimental to the creation and growth of fully indigenous institutions there.

The long-term requirements also call for the establishment of substantial resource centres in designated universities and other institutions in Britain and the US prepared to carry on training and research and offer advisory services. Such centres will also serve as home bases for specialists making careers in educational assistance.

We believe this long-term need calls for new types of financial support from governments, foundations, and other sources, and we take favourable note of the introduction in Congress recently of the McGovern Bill as a significant step in the right direction. Legislation for a rather similar purpose has been introduced into the British Parliament and other plans for providing staff on a long-term basis are under active preparation.



# Appendix II — Anglo-American Collaboration in Aid to Higher Education in Africa

**A chronological outline, supplied by the Carnegie Corporation of New York, of some of the significant events in development of agreed principles and common action**

*May 1958*

The Greenbrier Meeting, West Virginia. This informal conference, attended by individuals from business, government, universities and foundations of the United Kingdom and the United States set in motion a new kind and level of thinking about co-operative action in meeting the needs arising from the new political situation in West Africa. In the field of education the participants agreed that with due sensitivity and careful planning collaboration in giving consultative assistance and financial aid was both desirable and possible. They recommend *inter alia* an 'Anglo-American-Nigerian review of the higher educational requirements of Nigeria' and suggested that 'consideration should be given to setting up a non-governmental consultative body through which American interest in fostering higher educational development in Africa could be channelled.'

*August/September 1958*

The idea of an American consultative body to be in some sense a counterpart of the Inter-University Council in the UK was taken several steps further in discussions at a meeting of British overseas university principals at Gould House, Ardsley, New York and at the Quinquennial Conference of the Association of Universities of the British Commonwealth in Toronto and Montreal which was attended by delegates from the Association of American Universities.

*November 1958*

Council of Ministers in Nigeria approved in principle proposal for an investigation of post-school certificate and higher education by a commission representative of Nigeria, the UK and the US.

*November 1958*

White Paper issued by the Eastern Region government recommending development of the University of Nigeria along lines proposed by the vice-chancellor of the University of Exeter and the president and dean of International Programs of Michigan State University, who had made a survey under the joint auspices of the Inter-University Council and the International Co-operation Administration.

*January 1959*

Anglo-American Conference on Aid to Higher Education in Africa, University Club, New York City. This meeting of representatives



of the Inter-University Council and the Association of American Universities recommended the establishment, within the framework of the American Council on Education, of an 'American Committee to Assist Higher Education in Africa' which would have as one of its objectives co-operation with British educational and governmental agencies.

#### *March 1959*

An Anglo-American-Nigerian Committee of Enquiry into the Educational System of the Eastern Region of Nigeria began work under the chairmanship of Dr. Kenneth Dike and with the support of the Ford Foundation.

#### *April 1959*

Provisional Council of the University of Nigeria appointed. A pattern which has spread to other African institutions was set when an American agency (in this case ICA) was asked in addition to IUC to nominate a member.

#### *May 1959*

First meeting, in Lagos, of the 'Ashby Commission' supported by a Carnegie Corporation grant to the Federal Government of Nigeria.

#### *May 1959*

Cumberland Lodge Meeting, Windsor. A follow-up of Greenbrier, held with assistance of the Leverhulme Trust, at which further discussions took place on problems of external aid, particularly economic aid, to West Africa. The group reviewed what had happened in the past year in development of educational co-operation and noted outstanding problems: sources of finance for higher education, expansion of teacher-training and – a new note – how far the educational structure should be determined by the needs of economic development.

#### *June 1959*

Formation by the American Council on Education with Carnegie support of the 'Committee for Educational Liaison between the United States and Countries of Sub-Sahara Africa'.

#### *July 1959*

First meeting in UK of representatives of IUC and what later became known as the Africa Liaison Committee.

#### *October 1959*

First meeting in the US (New York) of ALC members with representatives of IUC. Special attention was given to the resolving of some points of contention and misunderstanding with respect to the plans for the University of Nigeria and nature of American assistance. Thus the new machinery began to fulfil its primary function.

*April 1960*

Washington meeting of ALC and IUC representatives at which the educational problem of East Africa and the growing American involvement there were discussed. It was decided that a group of ALC members should visit East Africa in August preparatory to the holding of a conference on this subject later in the year.

*July 1960*

Establishment of Afro-Anglo-American Program of Co-operation in the Interest of Teacher Education in Africa. This scheme associated Teachers College, Columbia University, with the University of London Institute of Education and departments and institutes of education in six African universities to strengthen mutual appreciation of African educational problems and encourage more efficient use of resources on the three continents.

*September 1960*

'Ashby Commission' report submitted to Nigerian Government.

*December 1960*

Princeton Conference on Education in East Africa, held under the auspices of the American Council on Education. Consensus was reached on priorities for educational aid and on lines of development for the University of East Africa. The group discussed the thorny question of American scholarship policy and recommended ways in which selection procedures could be improved. Consideration of the crucial shortage of secondary school teachers led to the most significant proposal of the Conference: that American and British teachers and recent graduates be recruited for service in East Africa, the latter to receive professional training at Makerere.

The existence of the Afro-Anglo-American programme led logically to the choice of Teachers College as the administering agency of what became the Teachers for East Africa programme—the most far-reaching single project in Anglo-American collaboration to date, involving the International Co-operation Administration, (soon to be AID), Columbia University, Makerere University College, the Department of Technical Co-operation and the governments of the four East African territories.

*January 1961*

Authorisation from ICA to Teachers College to recruit teachers for East Africa. 156 teachers started orientation in June and almost all were in East Africa in September where they were joined by a group from the UK.

*May 1961*

Africa Liaison Committee nominated Americans to serve in Provisional Councils of University of East Africa and University of Northern Nigeria.

### *August 1961*

Bureau of External Aid set up in Nigeria with a Nigerian secretary and with under-secretaries from the UK and US.

### *December 1961*

Meeting in New York of ALC and IUC representatives at which it was agreed ALC should send an informal study group to the Rhodesias and Nyasaland. ALC study group visited Rhodesias and Nyasaland in April, 1962.

### *June 1962*

Informal report of ALC study group discussed with IUC representatives in Washington and prepared for limited circulation. First consideration given to request from the Agency for International Development that the American Council of Education undertake a survey of education in Nyasaland.

### *July 1962*

At the invitation of the UK High Commissioner in Pretoria a three man team headed by Dr. de Kiewiet of the ALC visited Roma, Basutoland, to consider the present problems and the future of Pius XII University College. The other members, Dr. Cook and Dr. Leddy, were nominees of the IUC and the Canadian Universities Foundation respectively. Their recommendations led eventually to the founding of the University of Basutoland, Bechuanaland Protectorate and Swaziland in January, 1964.

### *September 1962*

Survey by the Committee on Needs and Priorities of the University of East Africa with membership from Africa, UK, US and Canada. Report submitted January, 1963.

### *June 1963*

A preliminary study team reported on education in Nyasaland. The team was made up of members chosen by the IUC and the American Council on Education and was supported by the US and UK Governments.

### *August 1963*

Establishment of Overseas Educational Service to expand and improve the quality of the corps of American educators serving in colleges and universities in Africa, Asia and Latin America. In October the Executive Director visited London for consultations with IUC on co-ordination of effort in recruitment of staff for African institutions.

### *October 1963*

Como Conference, Bellagio, Italy. This conference, made possible by the Rockefeller Foundation, considered the implications for external aid of the development plan of the University of East Africa. This unique meeting of representatives of the University and of potential

sources of finance, public and private, achieved a high degree of success in securing the funds required to meet the approaching triennium.

*October 1963*

Study on development of a university for Northern Rhodesia began with US and UK membership. Publication of the 'Lockwood' report followed.

*November 1963*

Nyasaland study began under contract between AID and American Council on Education with members and consultants chosen in consultation with Nyasaland and UK. Final report issued by ACE in April, 1964.

*September 1964*

Afro-Anglo-American conference on the African University and National Educational Development, Lake Mohonk, N.Y.

*October 1964*

The Executive Director of OES travelled in East, Central and Southern Africa together with the Secretary of IUC.

*March 12, 1965*

# Appendix III — Conference Documentation

## (a) **British Programmes**

- 1 Principles and Policies of Educational Aid – The British Approach (mimeo) by D. M. Smith, Ministry of Overseas Development, Education Dept.
- 2 British Educational Aid in the Last Few Years (mimeo) by F. P. Dunnill, Ministry of Overseas Development, Education Dept.
- 3 British Aid to Overseas Education – A Factual Note (mimeo) submitted by the Ministry of Overseas Development
- 4 British Aid – 3 Educational Assistance published by the Overseas Development Institute, 1963 7s. 6d.
- 5 The Inter-University Council for Higher Education Overseas (mimeo) A note describing the Council's work dated January 1965

## (b) **United States Programmes**

- 1 United States Assistance to Education in the Developing Nations (mimeo) prepared for the Conference by Education and World Affairs
- 2 Ways to Improve US Foreign Educational Aid by Philip H. Coombs in 'Education and Foreign Aid', Harvard University Press 1965 (with Karl Bigelow, see below) \$2.50

## (c) **Anglo-American Co-operation**

- 1 Anglo-American Collaboration in Aid to Higher Education in Africa (mimeo) prepared for the Conference by the Carnegie Corporation of New York\*

## (d) **General Problems**

- 1 Problems and Prospects of Education in Africa by Karl W. Bigelow in 'Education and Foreign Aid', Harvard University Press 1965 (with Philip Coombs, see above) \$2.50
- 2 Problems of Aid to Education in Developing Countries by Ladislav Cerych of the Atlantic Institute. To be published 1965. (Chapter 1 'The Needs,' Chapter 17 'Conclusions' were circulated in mimeo to the Conference)
- 3 The Place of Education and Human Resource Development in Foreign Assistance (mimeo) by William W. Marvel (paper originally prepared for a Conference in April 1962 at Williamsburg, Virginia)

\* This paper is reproduced as Appendix II

# Appendix IV — Conference Members

Sir Roger Stevens, G.C.M.G.	Conference Chairman; Vice-Chancellor, University of Leeds; Deputy Under-Secretary of State, Foreign Office (1958–63).
Mr. H. V. Hodson	Provost of Ditchley; formerly Editor, <i>The Sunday Times</i> .
<b>British</b>	
Sir Andrew Cohen, K.C.M.G., K.C.V.O., O.B.E.	Director-General, Ministry of Overseas Development.
Sir Christopher Cox, K.C.M.G.	Educational Adviser, Ministry of Overseas Development.
Lord Dulverton, T.D.	Chairman, The Dulverton Trust.
Mr. H. L. Elvin	Director, University of London Institute of Education.
Mr. Leslie Farrer-Brown, C.B.E., J.P.	Chairman, Executive Board, Centre for Educational Television Overseas; recently Director, The Nuffield Foundation.
Sir John Fulton	Vice-Chancellor, University of Sussex; Chairman, Inter-University Council for Higher Education Overseas.
Mr. Guy Hunter	Director, East African Staff College, Nairobi.
Lord Kilmaine, C.B.E.	Secretary, The Dulverton Trust.
Sir John Lockwood	Master of Birkbeck College, University of London; Chairman, Voluntary Societies Committee for Service Overseas.
Mr. John Maddox	Assistant Director and Co-ordinator, Science Teaching Project, The Nuffield Foundation.
Sir Charles Morris, K.C.M.G.	Formerly Vice-Chancellor, University of Leeds (1948–63); Vice-Chairman, Inter-University Council for Higher Education Overseas.

Mr. F. J. Pedler	Chairman, Council for Technical Education and Training for Overseas Countries; Director, Unilever Ltd. and N.V.
Mr. R. A. Phillips, C.M.G., O.B.E.	Assistant Director-General, The British Council.
Mr. Douglas M. Smith	Assistant Secretary in charge of Education Department, Ministry of Overseas Development.
Mr. John Vaizey	Fellow of Worcester College, Oxford.
Mr. P. R. C. Williams	Research Officer, Overseas Development Institute.

### **United States**

Professor Karl W. Bigelow	Executive Officer, Institute for Education in Africa, Teachers College, Columbia University; Member of Africa Liaison Committee.
Dr. John Coleman	Dean, Division of Social Sciences, Carnegie Institute of Technology; recently represented Ford Foundation in India.
Dr. Adam Curle	Center for Studies in Education and Development, Harvard Graduate School of Education.
Dr. C. W. de Kiewiet	Chairman, Africa Liaison Committee, American Council on Education.
Professor Frederick Harbison	Director, Industrial Relations Section, Princeton University.
Mr. Edmond C. Hutchinson	Assistant Administrator for Africa, Agency for International Development.
Mr. E. Jefferson Murphy	Vice-President, The African-American Institute.
Mr. Alan Pifer	Vice-President, Carnegie Corporation of New York.
Professor Lucian W. Pye	Professor of Political Science, Massachusetts Institute of Technology.
Mr. Francis X. Sutton	The Ford Foundation Representative for East and Central Africa.



## **Developing Countries and International Organisations**

Dr. S. Awokoya	Permanent Secretary and Chief Federal Adviser on Education, Federal Ministry of Education, Nigeria.
Mr. Duncan S. Ballantine	Assistant Director of the Projects Department, in charge of Education, International Bank for Reconstruction & Development.
Mr. Ladislav Cerych	Consultant, International Institute for Educational Planning; author of Atlantic Institute's report on 'Problems of Aid to Education in Developing Countries'.
Mr. Philip H. Coombs	Director, International Institute for Educational Planning.
Mr. Prem Kirpal	Secretary for Education, Government of India.
Dr. P. M. Sherlock, C.B.E.	Vice-Chancellor, University of the West Indies.
Dr. Raziuddin Siddiqi	Vice-Chancellor, University of Islamabad, West Pakistan.

## **The Ditchley Foundation**

Captain R. P. S. Grant, D.S.C., R.N. (Retired)	Chief Administrative Officer.
Mr. G. A. B. Docker	Bursar.
Mr. D. G. Browning	Conference and Research Secretary.



